

Web Annex. Infographics



# The WHO AWaRe (Access, Watch, Reserve) antibiotic book

Web Annex. Infographics



The WHO AWaRe (Access, Watch, Reserve) antibiotic book. Web Annex. Infographics

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Suggested citation. Web Annex. Infographics. In: The WHO AWaRe (Access, Watch, Reserve) antibiotic book. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2022 (WHO/MHP/HPS/EML/2022.02). Licence: CC BY-NC-SA 3.0 IGO.

Cataloguing-in-Publication (CIP) data. CIP data are available at http://apps.who.int/iris.

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Design and layout by Interligar - Branding & Design

# **Contents**

PRIMARY HEALTH CARE	1
Bronchitis	3
Acute otitis media	5
Pharyngitis	8
Acute sinusitis	12
Oral and dental infections	16
Localized acute bacterial lymphadenitis	22
Conjunctivitis	26
Endophthalmitis	29
Keratitis	31
Periorbital cellulitis	33
Trachoma	36
Community-acquired pneumonia	38
Exacerbation of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease	42
Acute infectious diarrhoea/gastroenteritis	44
Enteric fever	48
Impetigo / Erysipelas / Cellulitis	50
Burn wound-related infections	53
Wound and bite-related infections	56
Chlamydial urogenital infection	60
Gonococcal infection	62
Syphilis	65
Trichomoniasis	67
Lower urinary tract infection	68
HOSPITAL FACILITY	73
Sepsis & septic shock	75
Sepsis in children	79
Sepsis in neonates	82
Bacterial meningitis	85
Community-acquired pneumonia	89
Hospital-acquired pneumonia	93
Acute cholecystitis & cholangitis	97
Pyogenic liver abscess	102

Acute appendicitis	
Acute diverticulitis	112
Clostridioides difficile infection (CDI)	114
Upper urinary tract infection	117
Acute bacterial osteomyelitis	121
Septic arthritis	125
Necrotizing fasciitis	129
Pyomyositis	133
Febrile neutropenia	136
Surgical prophylaxis	140
RESERVE ANTIBIOTICS	145
Cefiderocol	147
Ceftazidime+avibactam	148
Fosfomycin	
Linezolid	150
Meropenem+vaborbactam	151
Plazomicin	152
Polymyxin B and colistin (polymyxin E)	153





# **Bronchitis**



# **Definition**

A self-limiting inflammation of the trachea and bronchi characterized by persistent cough +/- fever (≥ 38.0 °C) usually caused by a viral infection



# Diagnosis



### **Clinical Presentation**

- Acute onset (<2 weeks) of cough lasting > 5 days +/sputum production and shortness of breath (colour of the sputum does not indicate bacterial infection) +/- fever (≥ 38.0 °C)
- · Generally a mild condition; cough usually lasts 10-20 days (can last longer)

Important: Symptoms can overlap with pneumonia and this can lead to inappropriate treatment with antibiotics. This should be avoided with a careful patient assessment

- Bronchitis: Less severe presentation, usually selflimiting (but cough may take weeks to resolve)
- · Pneumonia (see "Community-acquired pneumonia" infographic): More severe presentation with shortness of breath and systemic signs of infection (e.g. increased heart and respiratory rate)



# **Microbiology Tests**

Usually not needed; consider testing for Influenza virus or SARS-CoV-2 (e.g. during influenza season or outbreaks based on local epidemiological risk/situation/protocols)



# **Other Laboratory Tests**

Usually not needed



# **Imaging**

Usually not needed



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

### Respiratory viruses:

- Rhinovirus
- Influenza virus (A and B)
- · Parainfluenza virus
- Coronavirus (including SARS-CoV-2) Respiratory syncytial virus (RSV)
- Metapneumovirus
- Adenovirus
- · Other respiratory viruses



# **Treatment**



# **No Antibiotic Care**

- Symptomatic treatment
- · Bronchodilators (in case of wheezing), mucolytic or antitussive agents, can be considered based on local practices and patient preferences
- Patients should be informed that:
- · Great majority of cases are self-limiting and of viral origin
- · Cough can persist for several weeks

# $m R_{\!\scriptscriptstyle C}$ Symptomatic Treatment

Medicines are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options

Ibuprofen 200-400 mg g6-8h (Max 2.4 g/day)

Paracetamol (acetaminophen) 500 mg-1 g q4-6h (max 4 g/day)

· Hepatic impairment/cirrhosis: Max 2 g/day

# **Antibiotic Treatment**

Antibiotic treatment is not recommended and should be avoided as there is no evidence of a significant clinical benefit and there is a risk of side effects of antibiotics

3



# **Bronchitis**



# **Definition**

A self-limiting inflammation of the trachea and bronchi characterized by persistent cough +/- fever (≥ 38.0 °C) usually caused by a viral infection



# Diagnosis



# **Clinical Presentation**

· Acute onset of cough lasting > 5 days, usually with runny nose and mild fever, with no clinical signs of pneumonia · Generally a mild condition, cough usually lasts 1-3 weeks

Important: Symptoms can overlap with pneumonia and this can lead to inappropriate treatment with antibiotics. This should be avoided with a careful patient assessment

- Bronchitis: Less severe presentation, usually selflimiting (but cough may take weeks to resolve)
- · Pneumonia (see "Community-acquired pneumonia" infographic): More severe presentation with shortness of breath and systemic signs of infection (e.g. increased heart and respiratory rate)



# **Microbiology Tests**

Usually not needed; consider testing for Influenza virus or SARS-CoV-2 (e.g. during influenza season or outbreaks based on local epidemiological risk/situation/protocols)



# Other Laboratory Tests

Usually not needed



### **Imaging**

Usually not needed

# **Most Likely Pathogens**

### Respiratory viruses:

- Rhinovirus
- Influenza virus (A and B)
- · Parainfluenza virus
- Coronavirus (including SARS-CoV-2) · Respiratory syncytial virus (RSV)
- Metapneumovirus
- Adenovirus
- Other respiratory viruses



# **Treatment**

# **No Antibiotic Care**

- Symptomatic treatment
- · Bronchodilators (in case of wheezing), mucolytic or antitussive agents, can be considered based on local practices and patient preferences

Patients/parents should be informed that:

· Great majority of cases are self-limiting and of viral origin Cough can persist for several weeks

# **Symptomatic Treatment**

Medicines are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options



- Ibuprofen (do not use if <3 months of age)
- · Pain control/antipyretic 5-10 mg/kg q6-8h
- · Oral weight bands:

6-<10 kg	50 mg q8h
10-<15 kg	100 mg q8h
15-<20 kg	150 mg q8h
20-<30 kg	200 mg q8h
≥30 kg	200-400 mg q6-8h (Max 2.4 g/day)





### Paracetamol (acetaminophen)

- · Pain control/antipyretic: 10-15 mg/kg q6h
- · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	60 mg q6h
6-<10 kg	100 mg q6h
10-<15 kg	150 mg q6h
15-<20 kg	200 mg q6h
20-<30 kg	300 mg q6h
≥30 kg	500 mg-1 g q4-6h (Max 4 g/day or 2 g/day if hepatic impairment/cirrhosis)



# **Antibiotic Treatment**

Antibiotic treatment is not recommended and should be avoided as there is no evidence of a significant clinical benefit and there is a risk of side effects of antibiotics



# Acute otitis media



# **Definition**

Infection of the middle ear that is rare in adults, often as a complication of a viral upper respiratory tract infection



# Diagnosis



# **Clinical Presentation**

Acute onset of ear pain (unilateral or bilateral), fever (≥38.0 °C), +/- ear discharge



# **Microbiology Tests**

· Not needed unless a complication is suspected · Cultures of pus from perforated ear drums should not be used to guide treatment



# Other Laboratory Tests

Not needed unless a complication is suspected



# **Imaging**

Not needed unless a complication (e.g. mastoiditis, brain abscess) is suspected



# Otoscopy

### Required for definitive diagnosis if available:

Bulging, inflamed/congested tympanic membrane (may be opaque/show decreased mobility)



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

### Respiratory viruses (most cases): · Respiratory syncytial virus (RSV)

- Rhinovirus
- · Coronavirus (including SARS-CoV-2) • Influenza virus (A and B)
- Other respiratory viruses

Bacteria (rarely bacterial superinfections can occur):

- · Streptococcus pneumoniae
- Haemophilus influenzae
- Moraxella catarrhalis
- · Streptococcus pyogenes (group A Streptococcus)

# **Prevention**

Overlaps with prevention of upper respiratory tract infections; hand hygiene, vaccination against S. pneumoniae, influenza and SARS-CoV-2 viruses can be useful





# Clinical Considerations

Important: Most non-severe cases can be managed symptomatically with no antibiotic treatment Instruct patients to monitor symptoms and report back in case they worsen/persist after few days

Antibiotics should be considered if:

· Severe symptoms (e.g. systemically very unwell, ear pain despite analgesics, fever ≥39.0°C)

# **Symptomatic Treatment**

Medicines are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options



Ibuprofen 200-400 mg q6-8h (Max 2.4 g/day)

OR.

Paracetamol (acetaminophen) 500 mg-1 g q4-6h (max 4 q/day)

· Hepatic impairment/cirrhosis: Max 2 g/day

# **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

5 days

# **Antibiotic Treatment**

Antibiotic treatment is not required in the great majority of cases (see "Clinical Considerations" when antibiotics may be

All dosages are for normal renal function

### First Choice



Amoxicillin 500 mg q8h ORAL

# Second Choice



Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 500 mg+125 mg

q8h ORAL



# **Acute otitis media**

Page 1 of 2



# **Definition**

Infection of the middle ear that occurs mostly in children under 5 years of age, often as a complication of a viral upper respiratory tract infection



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

# Respiratory viruses:

- · Respiratory syncytial virus (RSV)
- Rhinovirus
- · Coronavirus (including SARS-CoV-2)
- Influenza virus (A and B)
- Other respiratory viruses

Bacteria (rarely bacterial superinfections can occur):

- · Streptococcus pneumoniae
- Haemophilus influenzae
- Moraxella catarrhalis
- · Streptococcus pyogenes (group A Streptococcus)



# **Prevention**

Overlaps with prevention of upper respiratory tract infections; hand hygiene, vaccination against S. pneumoniae, H. influenzae and influenza viruses can be useful

# Diagnosis

# **Clinical Presentation**

Acute onset of ear pain (unilateral or bilateral), fever (38.0 °C) +/- ear discharge

# **Microbiology Tests**

- Not needed unless a complication is suspected
- · Cultures of pus from perforated ear drums should not be used to guide treatment



# **Other Laboratory Tests**

Not needed unless a complication is suspected



# Imaging

Not needed unless a complication (e.g. mastoiditis, brain abscess) is suspected



# Otoscopy

# Required for definitive diagnosis if available:

Bulging, inflamed/congested tympanic membrane (may be opaque/show decreased mobility)



# **Acute otitis media**

Page 2 of 2

# $m R_{\!\! K}$ Treatment

# 鸎

# **Clinical Considerations**

**Important**: Most non-severe cases can be managed symptomatically with no antibiotic treatment, especially in children > 2 years of age

• Instruct caregivers to monitor symptoms and report back in case they worsen/persist after few days

Antibiotics should be considered if:

- Severe symptoms (e.g. systemically very unwell, ear pain despite analgesics, fever ≥39.0 °C)
- Immunocompromised children
- · Bilateral acute otitis media in children <2 years

# 

Medicines are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options



- Ibuprofen (do not use if <3 months of age)
- Pain control/antipyretic: 5-10 mg/kg q6-8h • Oral weight bands:

6-<10 kg	50 mg q8h
10-<15 kg	100 mg q8h
15-<20 kg	150 mg q8h
20-<30 kg	200 mg q8h
≥30 kg	200-400 mg q6-8h (Max 2.4 g/day)

### OR



- Paracetamol (acetaminophen)
- Pain control/antipyretic: 10-15 mg/kg q6h • Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	60 mg q6h
6-<10 kg	100 mg q6h
10-<15 kg	150 mg q6h
15-<20 kg	200 mg q6h
20-<30 kg	300 mg q6h
≥30 kg	500 mg-1 g q4-6h (Max 4 g/day or 2 g/day if hepatic impairment/cirrhosis)

# $\mathbb{R}$

# **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

5 days

# $\mathbf{R}_{\!\!\!\mathbf{X}}$ Antibiotic Treatment

Antibiotic treatment is not required in the great majority of cases (see "Clinical Considerations" when antibiotics may be indicated)

All dosages are for normal renal function

# First Choice



Amoxicillin 80-90 mg/kg/day ORAL
• Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	250 mg q12h
6-<10 kg	375 mg q12h
10-<15 kg	500 mg q12h
15-<20 kg	750 mg q12h
≥20 kg	500 mg q8h or 1 g q12h

### Second Choice



Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 80-90 mg/kg/day of amoxicillin component **ORAL** 

Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	250 mg of amox/dose q12h
6-<10 kg	375 mg of amox/dose q12h
10-<15 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q12h
15-<20 kg	750 mg of amox/dose q12h
≥20 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q8h or 1 g of amox/dose q12h

Amox = amoxicillin

Oral liquid must be refrigerated after reconstitution



Page 1 of 2



# **Definition**

Inflammation of the pharynx characterized by sore throat and painful swallowing



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

### Viruses (> 80% of cases):

- · Respiratory viruses (most cases)
- · Epstein Barr virus (rarely)

### Bacteria:

- Group A Streptococcus (5-10% in adults)
- Streptococci (group C and G)

# Other infectious causes:

- · Acute HIV-infection and other sexually transmitted diseases (syphilis, gonorrhea)
- Acute toxoplasmosis
- Diphtheria

### Non infectious (rare):

- Pollution
- Allergens
- Smoking

# Diagnosis



# **Clinical Presentation**

### Sore throat and painful swallowing

- Viral: Symptoms are often the same as those of a viral upper respiratory tract infection (URTI) with cough, headache and myalgia
- Bacterial: More severe presentation, fever (≥38.0 °C), tender cervical lymph nodes and pharyngeal exudates (see "Centor Clinical Scoring System")



# **Microbiology Tests**

# Low likelihood of Group A Streptococcus (GAS) (Centor score 0-2):

· Tests usually not needed

# Higher likelihood of GAS (Centor score 3-4):

- · Rapid antigen test or throat culture could be considered, especially in countries where rheumatic fever (RF) and rheumatic heart disease are frequent
- Tests should only be performed if antibiotic treatment is considered following a positive test result



# **Other Laboratory Tests**

Blood tests usually not needed



# Imaging

Usually not needed unless a complication is suspected



Page 2 of 2

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# **Centor Clinical Scoring System**

- This system can help indicate infection origin (bacterial or viral) and whether antibiotics are necessary
- However even with a score of 4, the probability of GAS infection is only 50% and this score has only been validated in highincome settings

# Signs & Symptoms (1 point each)

- O Fever > 38.0 °C
- O No cough
- Tender anterior cervical lymphadenitis
- O Tonsillar exudates

### Score 0-2

- GAS pharyngitis unlikely
- · Symptomatic treatment only

Score 3-4 - In case of low risk of RF (e.g. countries with **low** prevalence of RF)

 Antibiotic treatment can be withheld even in cases of likely GAS pharyngitis
 Score 3-4 - In case of high risk of RF (e.g.

countries with **med/high** prevalence of RF)

• Antibiotic treatment recommended

# R- Treatment

# -

# $m R_{\!\scriptscriptstyle C}$ Symptomatic Treatment

Medicines are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options

Duprofen 200-400 mg q6-8h (Max 2.4 g/day)

OR-

 Paracetamol (acetaminophen) 500 mg-1 g q4-6h (max 4 g/day)

• Hepatic impairment/cirrhosis: Max 2 g/day

# Antibiotic Treatment Duration

Depending on the local prevalence or previous history of rheumatic fever:

· Low Risk of RF: 5 days

• High Risk of RF: 10 days

Note: when clarithromycin or cefalexin are used treatment duration is always 5 days

# Rantibiotic Treatment

The only clear indication for antibiotic treatment is to reduce the probability of developing rheumatic fever in endemic settings (however, after 21 years of age the risk of RF is lower)

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated

# First Choice

Amoxicillin 500 mg q8h **ORAL** 

•

Phenoxymethylpenicillin (as potassium) 500 mg (800 000 IU) q6h **ORAL** 

# Second Choice

Cefalexin 500 mg g8h ORAL

---- O

Clarithromycin 500 mg q12h ORAL

GAS remains universally susceptible to penicillin. However, resistance to macrolides is common in some communities



Page 1 of 2



# **Definition**

Inflammation of the pharynx characterized by sore throat and painful swallowing



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

### Viruses (> 80% of cases):

- · Respiratory viruses (most cases)
- Epstein Barr virus

### Bacteria:

- Group A Streptococcus (20-30% in children)
- Streptococci (group C and G)

# Other infectious causes:

- Acute toxoplasmosis
- Diphtheria
- Non infectious (rare):
- Pollution Alleraens
- Smoking

# Diagnosis



# **Clinical Presentation**

### Sore throat and painful swallowing

- · Viral: Symptoms are often the same as those of a viral upper respiratory tract infection (URTI) with cough, headache and myalgia
- Bacterial: More severe presentation, fever (≥38.0 °C), tender cervical lymph nodes and pharyngeal exudates



# **Microbiology Tests**

### Lower likelihood to be caused by Group A Streptococcus (GAS) (Centor score 0-2):

· Tests usually not needed

# Higher likelihood to be caused by GAS (Centor score 3-4):

- · Rapid antigen test or throat culture could be considered, especially in countries where rheumatic fever (RF) and rheumatic heart disease are frequent
- · Negative rapid antigen test could be confirmed with a throat culture if available



# **Other Laboratory Tests**

Blood tests usually not needed



# **Imaging**

Usually not needed unless a complication is suspected



Page 2 of 2

# **Centor Clinical Scoring System**

- This system can help indicate infection origin (bacterial or viral) and whether antibiotics are necessary
- · However even with a score of 4, the probability of GAS infection is only 50% and this score has only been validated in highincome settings

# Signs & Symptoms (1 point each)

- O Fever > 38.0 °C
- O No cough
- O Tender anterior cervical lymphadenitis
- O Tonsillar exudates

- · GAS pharyngitis unlikely
- Symptomatic treatment only

Score 3-4 - In case of low risk of RF (e.g. countries with low prevalence of RF)

· Antibiotic treatment can be withheld even in cases of likely GAS pharyngitis

Score 3-4 - In case of high risk of RF (e.g. countries with med/high prevalence of RF)

Antibiotic treatment recommended



**Symptomatic Treatment** Medicines are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options



- Ibuprofen (do not use if <3 months of age)</p> · Pain control/antipyretic: 5-10 mg/kg q6-8h
  - · Oral weight bands:

6-<10 kg	50 mg q8h
10-<15 kg	100 mg q8h
15-<20 kg	150 mg q8h
20-<30 kg	200 mg q8h
≥30 kg	200-400 mg q6-8h (Max 2.4 g/day)

# OR



- Paracetamol (acetaminophen)
- · Pain control/antipyretic: 10-15 mg/kg q6h · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	60 mg q6h
6-<10 kg	100 mg q6h
10-<15 kg	150 mg q6h
15-<20 kg	200 mg q6h
20-<30 kg	300 mg q6h
≥30 kg	500 mg-1 g q4-6h (Max 4 g/day or 2 g/day if hepatic impairment/cirrhosis)

# **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Depending on the local prevalence or previous history of rheumatic fever:

- · Low Risk of RF: 5 days
- · High Risk of RF: 10 days

Note: when clarithromycin or cefalexin are used treatment duration is always 5 days

# **Antibiotic Treatment**

The only clear indication for antibiotic treatment is to reduce the probability of developing rheumatic fever in endemic settings

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated

Amoxicillin 80-90 mg/kg/day ORAL

· Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	250 mg q12h
6-<10 kg	375 mg q12h
10-<15 kg	500 mg q12h
15-<20 kg	750 mg q12h
≥20 kg	500 mg q8h or 1 g q12h

# OR

Phenoxymethylpenicillin (as potassium): 10-15 mg/kg/dose (16 000-24 000 IU/kg/dose) q6-8h ORAL

# Second Choice

Cefalexin 25 mg/kg/dose q12h ORAL

· Oral weight bands: 125 --- -- 126

3-<6 kg	125 mg q12n
6-<10 kg	250 mg q12h
10-<15 kg	375 mg q12h
15-<20 kg	500 mg q12h
20-<30 kg	625 mg q12h
≥30 kg	500 mg q8h

### ΛR



Clarithromycin 7.5 mg/kg/dose q12h ORAL

GAS remains universally susceptible to penicillin. However, resistance to macrolides is common in some communities



Page 1 of 2



# **Definition**

A symptomatic inflammation of the paranasal sinuses and nasal cavity



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

### Respiratory viruses:

- Influenza virus (A and B)
- Rhinovirus
- · Coronavirus (including SARS-CoV-2)
- · Respiratory syncytial virus (RSV)
- Other respiratory viruses

### Bacteria (rarely):

- · Streptococcus pneumoniae
- Haemophilus influenzae

# Diagnosis



# **Clinical Presentation**

- · Diagnosis is made clinically; symptoms of bacterial and viral sinusitis overlap considerably
- · Symptoms usually last 10-14 days and are self-limiting
- · Main symptoms are nasal drainage, nasal obstruction or congestion, unilateral dental or facial pain, facial fullness or pressure, and sometimes cough
- · Location of pain depends on involved sinuses
- Acute bacterial sinusitis suspected when:
- Signs/symptoms persist ≥10 days without improvement
- Significant worsening of symptoms after initial mild phase



# **Microbiology Tests**

Usually not needed



# **Other Laboratory Tests**

Usually not needed



# **Imaging**

Usually not needed unless a complication or an alternative diagnosis is suspected



Page 2 of 2





# **No Antibiotic Care**

- Treatment is to improve symptoms, but antibiotics have minimal impact on symptom duration in most cases
- · Symptomatic treatment includes antipyretic and analgesic medications, nasal irrigation with a saline solution and topical intranasal glucocorticoids or decongestants
- · Most guidelines recommend using disease severity (duration and intensity of symptoms) to direct treatment

Mild to Moderate Presentation (<10 days duration and improving):

· Watchful waiting approach with symptom relief and

no antibiotic treatment

# **Clinical Considerations**

Antibiotics should be considered if:

- Severe onset of symptoms
- Fever ≥39.0 °C & purulent nasal discharge or facial pain for at least 3-4 consecutive days
- · Patients at increased risk of complications e.g. those with chronic underlying comorbid diseases (deciding on a caseby-case basis)
- "Red flag" signs/symptoms suggestive of complicated infection such as systemic toxicity, persistent fever ≥39.0°C, periorbital redness and swelling, severe headache, or altered mental status



# **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

5 days

# $\mathbb{R}_{\!\scriptscriptstyle{\Gamma}}$ Symptomatic Treatment

Medicines are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options

Ibuprofen 200-400 mg q6-8h (Max 2.4 g/day)

OR-

Paracetamol (acetaminophen) 500 mg-1 g q4-6h (max 4 q/day)

· Hepatic impairment/cirrhosis: Max 2 g/day

# $m R_{\!\scriptscriptstyle C}$ Antibiotic Treatment

Antibiotic treatment is not required in the great majority of cases (see "Clinical Considerations" when antibiotics may be indicated)

All dosages are for normal renal function Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated

Amoxicillin 1 g q8h ORAL

Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 500 mg+125 mg a8h ORAL



Page 1 of 2



# **Definition**

A symptomatic inflammation of the paranasal sinuses and nasal cavity. Much less common than in adults because sinuses are not fully developed.



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

# Respiratory viruses:

• Influenza virus (A and B)

- Rhinovirus
- · Coronavirus (including SARS-CoV-2)
- · Respiratory syncytial virus (RSV)
- Other respiratory viruses

### Bacteria (rarely):

- · Streptococcus pneumoniae
- · Haemophilus influenzae

# Diagnosis



# **Clinical Presentation**

· Diagnosis is made clinically; symptoms of bacterial and viral sinusitis overlap considerably

- · Symptoms usually last 10-14 days and are self-limiting
- · Main symptoms are nasal drainage, nasal obstruction or congestion, unilateral dental or facial pain, facial fullness or pressure, and cough
- · Location of pain depends on involved sinuses
- Acute bacterial sinusitis suspected when:
- Signs/symptoms persist ≥10 days without improvement
- Significant worsening of symptoms after initial mild phase



# **Microbiology Tests**

Usually not needed



# **Other Laboratory Tests**

Usually not needed



# **Imaging**

Usually not needed unless a complication or an alternative diagnosis is suspected



Page 2 of 2

# **Treatment**



# **No Antibiotic Care**

- Treatment is to improve symptoms, but antibiotics have minimal impact on symptom duration in most cases
- · Symptomatic treatment includes antipyretic and analgesic medications, nasal irrigation with a saline solution and topical intranasal glucocorticoids or decongestants
- · Most guidelines recommend using disease severity (duration and intensity of symptoms) to direct treatment

Mild to Moderate Presentation (<10 days duration and improving trend of symptoms):

· Watchful waiting approach with symptom relief and no antibiotic treatment

# **Clinical Considerations**

Antibiotics should be considered if:

- Severe onset of symptoms
- Fever ≥39.0 °C and purulent nasal discharge or facial pain for at least 3-4 consecutive days
- · Patients at increased risk of complications e.g. those with chronic underlying comorbid diseases (deciding on a caseby-case basis)
- "Red flag" signs/symptoms suggestive of complicated infection such as systemic toxicity, persistent fever ≥39.0°C, periorbital redness and swelling, severe headache, or altered mental status



# **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

5 days

# $\mathbb{R}_{\!\scriptscriptstyle{\Gamma}}$ Symptomatic Treatment

Medicines are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options



Ibuprofen (do not use if <3 months of age)

- · Pain control/antipyretic: 5-10 mg/kg q6-8h
- · Oral weight bands:

6-<10 kg	50 mg q8h
10-<15 kg	100 mg q8h
15-<20 kg	150 mg q8h
20-<30 kg	200 mg q8h
≥30 kg	200-400 mg q6-8h (Max 2.4 g/day)

OR



- Paracetamol (acetaminophen)
- Pain control/antipyretic: 10-15 mg/kg q6h
- · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	60 mg q6h	
6-<10 kg	100 mg q6h	
10-<15 kg	150 mg q6h	
15-<20 kg	200 mg q6h	
20-<30 kg	300 mg q6h	
≥30 kg	500 mg-1 g q4-6h (Max 4 g/day or 2 g/day if hepatic impairment/cirrhosis)	

# **Antibiotic Treatment**

Antibiotic treatment is not required in the great majority of cases (see "Clinical Considerations" when antibiotics may be indicated)

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated



Amoxicillin 80-90 mg/kg/day ORAL · Oral weight bands:

<b>3</b>		
3-<6 kg	250 mg q12h	
6-<10 kg	375 mg q12h	
10-<15 kg	500 mg q12h	
15-<20 kg	750 mg q12h	
≥20 kg	500 mg q8h or 1 g q12h	

OR



Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 80-90 mg/kg/day of amoxicillin component ORAL

· Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	250 mg of amox/dose q12h
6-<10 kg	375 mg of amox/dose q12h
10-<15 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q12h
15-<20 kg	750 mg of amox/dose q12h
≥20 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q8h or 1 g of amox/dose q12h

Amox = amoxicillin

Oral liquid must be refrigerated after reconstitution



Page 1 of 3



# Definitions of Conditions That May Require Antibiotic Treatment

- Abscess: Localized collection of pus caused by a bacterial infection in the tooth, gums or alveolar bone supporting the tooth. Abscesses can be categorized as:
- Apical Abscess (more common): Infection at the apex of the dental root that originates from within the dental pulp usually resulting from untreated dental caries
- Periodontal abscess: Collection of pus between the root and alveolar bone usually resulting from serious gum diseases
- Pericoronitis: Inflammation of the gingiva (gum) surrounding a partially erupted tooth, often a lower wisdom tooth, which may be associated with an infection
- Necrotizing periodontal disease: A severe gum infection characterized by necrosis and ulcerations caused by a bacterial infection. Previously known as necrotizing ulcerative ginqivitis
- Noma: An acute necrotizing disease that destroys the soft tissues and bones of the mouth and face as it progresses from necrotizing periodontal disease (previously known as necrotizing ulcerative gingivitis), rare in adults



# **Dental Terminology Definitions**

- Alveolar bone: Part of the jawbones that surrounds and supports the teeth
- Dental pulp: Blood vessels and nerves within the inner part of the tooth
- Gingivae (gums): Soft tissue covering the alveolar bone
- Plaque: Biofilm of microbes, mainly bacteria, which grows on surfaces within the mouth and contributes to oral diseases such as caries and periodontal disease

Only oral and dental infections where antibiotic treatment is usually required are reported

Common dental procedures are beyond the scope of this guidance



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

Important: most dental infections are caused by conditions that favour the growth of pathogens in the mouth, including an abundance of sugars (e.g. sucrose) and reduced saliva flow (dry mouth)

### Bacteria associated with caries:

- · Acidogenic bacteria such as:
- Streptococcus spp. (e.g. S. mutans)
- Lactobacillus spp.
- Actinomyces spp.

# Bacteria associated with periodontal disease:

- · Mostly anaerobes such as:
- Capnocytophaga spp.
- Prevotella spp.
- Aggregatibacter spp.
   Porphyromonas spp.



### Prevention

- · Minimize sugar consumption
- Prevent the accumulation of dental plaque with regular dental cleaning and good oral hygiene; fluoride is important because it strengthens the tooth enamel making it more resistant to caries
- · Smoking cessation



Page 2 of 3



# Diagnosis



# **Clinical Presentation**

### Dental abscess

- Acute severe and persistent localized toothache that can radiate to the ear, jaw and neck
- · Tooth tenderness (e.g. with chewing) and swelling of the cheek above the affected tooth are often present
- If left untreated, the infection can spread and present with signs of cellulitis around the eye or throat, fever (≥ 38.0 °C), tachycardia and lymphadenopathy

- · Inflamed, swollen gum tissue surrounding a partially erupted tooth
- · Antibiotics are not normally required, although if infection is present, it should be carefully monitored as it can spread rapidly causing difficulty opening the mouth, swallowing or
- Cellulitis of the neck (e.g. Ludwig angina) can be present and is a medical emergency

# Necrotizing periodontal disease:

- · Severe pain and inflamed ulcerated gums that bleed easily, necrosis of the interdental papillae, foul breath and a bad taste in the mouth
- · It may also be accompanied by systemic symptoms, such as fever ≥ 38.0 °C, malaise and lymphadenopathy

- · It begins as necrotizing periodontal disease, it progresses rapidly destroying the soft tissues and bones of the mouth and further progressing to perforate the hard tissues and skin of the face
- · If detected early, its progression can be rapidly halted, through basic oral hygiene rules, diet supplementation with proteins and nutrients and with antibiotics

# **Microbiology Tests**

Mild cases: Usually not needed

Severe cases requiring hospitalization: Consider doing blood and/or pus aspirates cultures

# **Other Laboratory Tests**

Mild cases: Usually not needed

Severe cases requiring hospitalization: White blood cell count, C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin

# **Point-of-Care Tests and Investigations to Assist Diagnosis**

Point-of-care tests can be done to establish the source of the dental pain/infection and make appropriate treatment decisions, for example:

- Tapping the tooth to evaluate response to percussion:
- Tenderness indicates that the pain originates in the
- supporting bone and may be due to an abscess
- Periodontal probing
- Can identify a periodontal abscess if pus exudes from a pocket greater than 3mm or necrotizing ulcerative disease if there is extremely tender gingival tissue and grey sloughing
- Checking response to a cold stimulus:
- No response to cold may indicate a non-vital/necrotic pulp

# Imaging

Dental radiographs should be undertaken wherever possible as part of the diagnosis to differentiate between the various causes of dental pain



Page 3 of 3

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# **⊠**≡

# **Clinical Considerations**

### Important:

- Most dental infections and dental pain can be treated without antibiotic treatment by removal of the cause and drainage of the infection using a dental procedure (e.g. extraction of the tooth)
- Antibiotics do not prevent severe complications and cannot replace local surgical treatment
- Antibiotics should not be used before a dental procedure to "decrease inflammation" or to cure toothache. Antibiotics should not be used prior to most dental procedures to prevent surgical site infections
- Regular use of mouthwashes with an antiseptic product (e.g. chlorhexidine) is not necessary for the control of dental infections; rinsing with salty water is usually adequate.

Antibiotic treatment is not needed in most cases but can be considered (always complementary to dental procedures):

- In patients with severe, spreading infections with systemic signs (e.g. facial swelling, inability to open the mouth, fever ≥ 38.0 °C, tachycardia)
- In severely immunocompromised patients and patients with uncontrolled diabetes (higher risk of complications)

# X

# **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

If adequate source control achieved: 3 days

If adequate source control **not** achieved: **5 days**Note: patients should be reassessed before the end of treatment to check the resolution of the infection

# $m R_{\!\! K}$ Symptomatic Treatment

Medicines are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options

Ibuprofen 200-400 mg q6-8h (Max 2.4 g/day)

Paracetamol (acetaminophen) 500 mg-1 g

q4-6h (max 4 g/day)

• Hepatic impairment/cirrhosis: Max 2 g/day

# R Antibiotic Treatment

Antibiotic treatment is not required in the great majority of cases (see "Clinical Considerations" when antibiotics may be indicated)

For the treatment of infections of dental soft tissues (e.g. pericoronitis or necrotizing periodontal disease), metronidazole is an option

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated

Amoxicillin 500 mg q8h **ORAL** 

- OR -

Phenoxymethylpenicillin (as potassium) 500 mg (800 000 IU) q6h **ORAL** 



Page 1 of 3



# **Definitions of Conditions That May Require Antibiotic Treatment**

- · Abscess: Localized collection of pus caused by a bacterial infection in the tooth, gums or alveolar bone supporting the tooth. Abscesses can be categorized as:
- Apical Abscess (more common): Infection at the apex of the dental root that originates from within the dental pulp usually resulting from untreated dental caries
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- Pericoronitis: Inflammation of the gingiva (gum) surrounding a partially erupted tooth, often a lower wisdom tooth, which may be associated with an infection
- Necrotizing periodontal disease: A severe gum infection characterized by necrosis and ulcerations caused by a bacterial infection. Previously known as necrotizing ulcerative gingivitis
- · Noma: An acute necrotizing disease that destroys the soft tissues and bones of the mouth and face as it progresses from necrotizing periodontal disease (previously known as necrotizing ulcerative gingivitis), mostly in malnourished children living in extreme poverty and with weakened immune

# **Dental Terminology Definitions**

- · Alveolar bone: Part of the jawbones that surrounds and supports the teeth
- Dental pulp: Blood vessels and nerves within the inner part of the tooth
- · Gingivae (gums): Soft tissue covering the alveolar bone
- Plaque: Biofilm of microbes, mainly bacteria, which grows on surfaces within the mouth and contributes to oral diseases such as caries and periodontal disease

Only oral and dental infections where antibiotic treatment is usually required are reported

Common dental procedures are beyond the scope of this guidance



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

Important: most dental infections are caused by conditions that favour the growth of pathogens in the mouth, including an abundance of sugars (e.g. sucrose) and reduced saliva flow (dry mouth)

### Bacteria associated with caries:

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# Bacteria associated with periodontal disease:

- · Mostly anaerobes such as:
- Capnocytophaga spp.
- Prevotella spp.
- Aggregatibacter spp.
- Porphyromonas spp.



# Prevention

- Minimize sugar consumption
- Prevent the accumulation of dental plaque with regular dental cleaning and good oral hygiene; fluoride is important because it strengthens the tooth enamel making it more resistant to caries
- · Promote smoking cessation



Page 2 of 3



# Diagnosis



# **Clinical Presentation**

### Dental abscess:

- Acute severe and persistent localized toothache that can radiate to the ear, jaw and neck
- Tooth tenderness (e.g. with chewing) and swelling of the cheek above the affected tooth are often present
- · If left untreated, the infection can spread and present with signs of cellulitis around the eye or throat, fever (≥ 38.0 °C), tachycardia and lymphadenopathy

- · Inflamed, swollen gum tissue surrounding a partially erupted tooth
- · Antibiotics are not normally required, although if infection is present, it should be carefully monitored as it can spread rapidly causing difficulty opening the mouth, swallowing or
- · Cellulitis of the neck (e.g. Ludwig angina) can be present and is a medical emergency

# Necrotizing periodontal disease:

- · Characterized by severe pain and inflamed ulcerated gums that bleed easily, necrosis of the interdental papillae, foul breath and a bad taste in the mouth
- · It may also be accompanied by systemic symptoms, such as fever ≥ 38.0 °C, malaise and lymphadenopathy

- · It begins as necrotizing periodontal disease, it progresses rapidly destroying the soft tissues and bones of the mouth and further progressing to perforate the hard tissues and skin of the face
- · If detected early, its progression can be rapidly halted, through basic oral hygiene rules, diet supplementation with proteins and nutrients and with antibiotics

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Mild cases: Usually not needed

Severe cases requiring hospitalization: Consider doing blood and/or pus aspirates cultures

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Mild cases: Usually not needed

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- Checking response to a cold stimulus:
- No response to cold may indicate a non-vital/necrotic pulp

# Imaging

Dental radiographs should be undertaken wherever possible as part of the diagnosis to differentiate between the various causes of dental pain



Page 3 of 3

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# Clinical Considerations

### Important:

- Most dental infections and dental pain can be treated without antibiotic treatment by removal of the cause and drainage of the infection using a dental procedure (e.g. extraction of the tooth)
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**Antibiotic treatment is not needed in most cases** but can be considered (always complementary to dental procedures):

- In patients with severe, spreading infections with systemic signs (e.g. facial swelling, inability to open the mouth, fever  $\geq$  38.0 °C, tachycardia)
- In severely immunocompromised patients and patients with uncontrolled diabetes (higher risk of complications)



# **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

If adequate source control achieved: 3 days
If adequate source control not achieved: 5 days
Note: patients should be reassessed before the end of
treatment to check the resolution of the infection

# $m R_{ m X}$ Symptomatic Treatment

Medicines are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options

Ibuprofen (do not use if <3 months of age)</li>
 Pain control/antipyretic: 5-10 mg/kg q6-8h

- Oral weight bands: 6-<10 kg 50 mg q8h 10-<15 kg 100 mg q8h 15-<20 kg 150 mg q8h 20-<30 kg 200 mg q8h ≥30 kg 200 -400 mg q6-8h

# (Max 2.4 g/day)

Paracetamol (acetaminophen)

• Pain control/antipyretic: 10-15 mg/kg q6h

· Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	60 mg q6h
6-<10 kg 100 mg q6h	
10-<15 kg	150 mg q6h
15-<20 kg 200 mg q6h	
20-<30 kg	300 mg q6h
≥30 kg	500 mg-1 g q4-6h (Max 4 g/day or 2 g/day if hepatic impairment/cirrhosis)

# $m R_{\!\scriptscriptstyle K}$ Antibiotic Treatment

Antibiotic treatment is not required in the great majority of cases (see "Clinical Considerations" when antibiotics may be indicated)

For the treatment of infections of dental soft tissues (e.g. pericoronitis or necrotizing periodontal disease), metronidazole is an option

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated



3-<6 kg	250 mg q12h
6-<10 kg	375 mg q12h
10-<15 kg	500 mg q12h
15-<20 kg	750 mg q12h
≥20 kg	500 mg q8h or 1 g q12h

### OR-

Phenoxymethylpenicillin (as potassium):
10-15 mg/kg/dose (16 000-24 000 IU/kg/dose)
q6-8h **ORAL** 



Page 1 of 2

This guidance excludes management of severe or generalized infections or those caused by viral, fungal or parasitic pathogens



# Definition

Lymphadenitis refers to the inflammation and acute enlargement (>1-2 cm) of one or several lymph nodes

### Classification based on:

- · Number of lymph node regions affected:
- Localized (most cases): 1 lymph node region affected
- Generalized: >1 lymph node region affected
- · Location of the affected lymph node (e.g. cervical, axillary)
- · Depth of the affected lymph node (superficial or deep)



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

### Viruses (most cases):

- · Epstein-Barr virus, Cytomegalovirus (both viruses can cause infectious mononucleosis)
- · Respiratory viruses

### Bacteria (more rarely):

- · Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)
- · Streptococcus pyogenes (group A Streptococcus)

# Consider in specific situations (based on history and physical examination):

- · Sexually transmitted infections (e.g. HIV)
- · Zoonoses (e.g. brucellosis, tularemia, bartonellosis the latter mostly following cat bites or scratches)
- · Mycobacterial infections (including nontuberculous)

# Diagnosis

# **Clinical Presentation**

· Acute onset of a palpable, painful red and inflamed enlarged lymph node (>1-2 cm) +/- fever (≥ 38.0 °C), and other signs/symptoms of systemic disease & cellulitis

· Bacterial cause more probable if unilateral involvement, fluctuance and skin drainage of the lymph node



# **Microbiology Tests**

Usually not needed; consider testing for HIV and tuberculosis if these are suspected



# **Other Laboratory Tests**

Usually not needed but may be considered in selected cases



### **Biopsy**

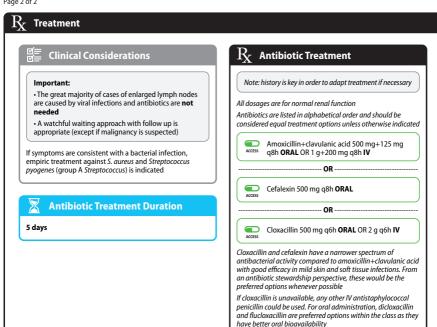
Consider when a malignancy is suspected

# Imaging

- Usually not needed
- · Ultrasound can be considered to confirm lymph node involvement, to quantify the enlargement and to detect the presence of an abscess; it is not reliable to rule out malignancies (biopsy should be performed)



Page 2 of 2





Page 1 of 2

This guidance excludes management of severe or generalized infections or those caused by viral, fungal or parasitic pathogens



### Definition

- · Lymphadenitis refers to the inflammation and enlargement (>1-2 cm) of one or several lymph nodes
- · Lymphadenopathy is another term often used

### Classification based on:

- · Number of lymph node regions affected:
- Localized (most cases): 1 lymph node region affected
- Generalized: >1 lymph node region affected
- · Location of the affected lymph node (e.g. cervical, axillary)
- Depth of the affected lymph node (superficial or deep)



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

### Viruses (most cases):

- Epstein-Barr virus (can cause infectious mononucleosis)
- · Cytomegalovirus (can cause infectious mononucleosis)
- Respiratory viruses

# Bacteria (more rarely):

- · Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)
- Streptococcus pyogenes (group A Streptococcus)

### Consider in specific situations (based on history and physical examination):

- · Sexually transmitted infections (e.g. HIV)
- · Zoonoses (e.g. brucellosis, tularemia, bartonellosis the latter mostly following cat bites or scratches)
- · Mycobacterial infections (including nontuberculous)

# Diagnosis

# **Clinical Presentation**

· Acute onset of a palpable, painful red and inflamed enlarged lymph node (>1-2 cm) +/- fever (≥ 38.0 °C), and other signs/symptoms of systemic disease & cellulitis

Bacterial cause more probable if unilateral involvement, fluctuance and skin drainage of the lymph node



# **Microbiology Tests**

Usually not needed; consider testing for HIV and tuberculosis if these are suspected



# III Other Laboratory Tests

Usually not needed but may be considered in selected cases



# **Biopsy**

Consider when a malignancy is suspected



# **Imaging**

- · Usually not needed
- · Ultrasound can be considered to confirm lymph node involvement, to quantify the enlargement and to detect the presence of an abscess; it is not reliable to rule out malignancies (biopsy should be performed)



Page 2 of 2

# **Treatment**

# **Clinical Considerations**

### Important:

- The great majority of cases of enlarged lymph nodes are caused by viral infections and antibiotics are not
- · A watchful waiting approach with follow up is appropriate (except if malignancy is suspected)

If symptoms are consistent with a bacterial infection, empiric treatment against S. aureus and Streptococcus pyogenes (group A Streptococcus) is indicated



# **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

5 days

# **Antibiotic Treatment**

Note: history is key in order to adapt treatment if necessary

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated



# Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid

- · 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose of amoxicillin component q12h
- > 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose of amoxicillin component q8h
- ORAL: 80-90 mg/kg/day of amoxicillin component
- · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	250 mg of amox/dose q12h
6-<10 kg	375 mg of amox/dose q12h
10-<15 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q12h
15-<20 kg	750 mg of amox/dose q12h
≥20 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q8h or

Amox = amoxicillin

Oral liquid must be refrigerated after reconstitution

# . AR

# Cefalexin 25 mg/kg/dose q12h ORAL

· Oral weight bands.		
3-<6 kg	125 mg q12h	
6-<10 kg	250 mg q12h	
10-<15 kg	375 mg q12h	
15-<20 kg	500 mg q12h	
20-<30 kg	625 mg q12h	
≥30 kg	500 mg q8h	

### OR



# Cloxacillin IV

- · Neonates: 25-50 mg/kg/dose g12h
- Children: 25 mg/kg/dose q6h

٠	OKA	<b>L</b> : 15	mg	/kg/	dose	qe
٠	Oral	weig	ght	ban	ds:	

3-<6 kg	62.5 mg q6h
6-<10 kg	125 mg q6h
10-<15 kg	250 mg q6h
15-<20 kg	375 mg q6h
≥20 kg	500 mg q6h

Cloxacillin and cefalexin have a narrower spectrum of antibacterial activity compared to amoxicillin+clavulanic acid with good efficacy in mild skin and soft tissue infections. From an antibiotic stewardship perspective, these would be the preferred options whenever possible

If cloxacillin is unavailable, any other IV antistaphylococcal penicillin could be used. For oral administration, dicloxacillin and flucloxacillin are preferred options within the class as they have better oral bioavailability



# **Conjunctivitis**

Bacterial eve infection



# Definition

Infection of the conjunctiva (i.e. the mucosa that covers the inside part of the eyelids and the sclera, which is the white part of the eye)



# Diagnosis

# **Clinical Presentation**

- Most cases are mild and self-limiting
- · Usually the eye is red, watery and itchy and patients have a feeling of "sand in the eve"
- · Vision is normal and there is no pain (if pain is present consider corneal involvement)
- Thick purulent eye discharge can be present in bacterial

### **Hyperacute Bacterial Conjunctivitis:**

- · Severe infection that presents with decreased vision, purulent eye discharge, eyelid swelling, pain on palpation and preauricular adenopathy
- · Consider urgent referral to an ophthalmologist due to risk for rapid progression to corneal perforation

# **Microbiology Tests**

Usually not needed unless Neisseria gonorrhoeae or Chlamydia trachomatis are suspected

# **Other Laboratory Tests**

Usually not needed



# **Imaging**

Usually not needed

# **Most Likely Pathogens**

- · Most cases are of viral origin
- · Bacterial cases are less common than viruses
- Consider Chlamydia trachomatis (serovars D to K) and Neisseria gonorrhoeae in the context of sexually transmitted infections (STI) see "STI - Chlamydia urogenital infections and gonococcal infection"
- · Hyperacute bacterial conjunctivitis is mostly caused by Neisseria gonorrhoeae

Important: non-infectious causes (mostly allergies) should always be considered

# **Treatment** Clinical Considerations · Most cases resolve without treatment in 7-10 days · Antibiotics can be considered in case of suspected bacterial conjunctivitis or conjunctivitis in the context of a sexually transmitted infection Antibiotic Treatment Duration Since treatment duration varies, please refer to the corresponding treatment section **Bacterial Conjunctivitis** Gentamicin 0.3% EYE DROPS 1 drop in the affected eye g6h Treatment duration: 5 days OR Ofloxacin 0.3% EYE DROPS 1 drop in the affected eye q6h Treatment duration: 5 days OR Tetracycline 1% EYE OINTMENT 1 cm in the affected eye g6h Treatment duration: 5 days **Gonococcal Conjunctivitis** All dosages are for normal renal function Ceftriaxone 250 mg IM Treatment duration: Single dose COMBINED WITH Azithromycin 1 q ORAL Treatment duration: Single dose



# **Conjunctivitis**

Bacterial eye infection • Page 1 of 2



# Definition

Infection of the conjunctiva (i.e. the mucosa that covers the inside part of the eyelids and the sclera, which is the white part of the eye)



# Most Likely Pathogens

- · Most cases are of viral origin
- Bacterial cases can occur in children more frequently than in adults (although less common than viruses)
- Consider Chlamydia trachomatis (serovars D-K) and Neisseria gonorrhoeae in neonates after vaginal delivery from infected mothers

**Important**: non-infectious causes (mostly allergies) should always be considered



# Diagnosis



# Clinical Presentation

# · Most cases are mild and self-limiting

- Usually the eye is red, watery and itchy and patients have a feeling of "sand in the eye"
- Vision is normal and there is no pain (if pain is present consider corneal involvement)
- Thick purulent eye discharge can be present in bacterial infection

### Hyperacute Bacterial Conjunctivitis:

- Severe infection that presents with decreased vision, purulent eye discharge, eyelid swelling, pain on palpation and preauricular adenopathy
- Consider urgent referral to an ophthalmologist due to risk for rapid progression to corneal perforation



# **Microbiology Tests**

Usually not needed unless *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* or *Chlamydia trachomatis* are suspected



# **Other Laboratory Tests**

Usually not needed



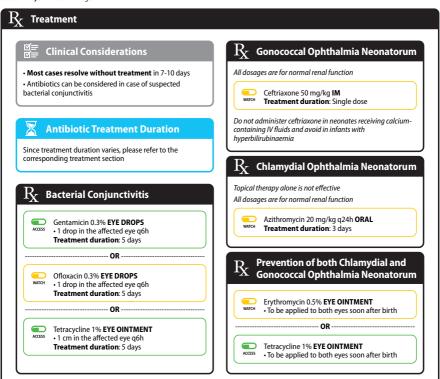
# **Imaging**

Usually not needed



# **Conjunctivitis**

Bacterial eye infection • Page 2 of 2





# **Endophthalmitis**

Bacterial eve infection

# Definition

- · Infection of the intraocular fluids (vitreous and aqueous humor) and the retina
- · Most cases occur as a result of penetrating eye trauma, after eye surgery or as a complication of keratitis
- Rare cases are due to bacteremia or fungemia from distant sites of infection (e.g. endocarditis, liver abscess)



### Diagnosis



# **Clinical Presentation**

- · Usually painful red eye, blurred vision and trouble looking at bright light
- In cases where pathogens reach the eye through the bloodstream from other sites of infection, signs and symptoms of bacteremia/fungemia can be present although usually ocular symptoms occur first



# **Microbiology Tests**

- · Consider microscopy and culture of a sample of aqueous or vitreous humour aspirate
- · Consider blood cultures if a distant source of infection is suspected (i.e. endogenous endophthalmitis)



# **Other Laboratory Tests**

Consider tests to detect organ dysfunction



# Imaging

Usually not needed



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

### Exogenous (Most Cases):

### · Bacteria:

- Mostly coagulase-negative Staphylococci, less frequently
- Staphylococcus aureus
- Streptococcus spp.
- Klebsiella spp. (more frequent in Asia) - Bacillus cereus (mostly in case of penetrating trauma)

# · Fungi:

- Fusarium spp.
- Aspergillus spp

# Endogenous (Rare):

# · Bacteria

- Mostly coagulase-negative Staphylococci, less frequently
- Staphylococcus aureus
- Streptococcus spp.
- Klebsiella spp. (more frequent in Asia)
- Bacillus cereus (mostly in case of penetrating trauma)

- Mostly Candida albicans

# **Treatment**

# **Clinical Considerations**

- · Endophthalmitis is an ocular emergency because it is a potentially blinding condition
- · Systemic antibiotics (in combination with intravitreal antibiotics) should be considered given the severity of this condition, especially when referral to an ophthalmologist is not rapidly available

The cornerstone of treatment is intravitreal injection of antibiotics. Two common approaches to administer intravitreal antihiotics

- 1. "Tap and inject": first a sample of vitreous humour is collected for culture (through vitreous aspiration), then antibiotics are injected into the vitreous
- 2. Vitrectomy is performed (i.e. eye surgery to remove some or all the inflamed vitreous from the eye as a form of source control) and during the procedure, the antibiotic is injected into the vitreous

# **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Intravitreal: Single dose

· If no clinical improvement after 48 hours, the injection can be repeated

Systemic: Depends on underlying source of bacteremia

# **Bacterial Endophthalmitis**

All dosages are for normal renal function

Vancomycin 1 mg INTRAVITREAL INJECTION

COMBINED WITH

Ceftazidime 2.25 mg INTRAVITREAL INJECTION

IF ENDOGENOUS INFECTION. ADD

Ceftriaxone 2 q q24h IV

COMBINED WITH

Vancomycin 15-20 mg/kg q12h IV



# **Endophthalmitis**

Bacterial eve infection

# Definition

- · Infection of the intraocular fluids (vitreous and aqueous humor) and the retina
- · Most cases occur as a result of penetrating eye trauma, after eye surgery or as a complication of keratitis
- Rare cases are due to bacteremia or fungemia from distant sites of infection (e.g. endocarditis, liver abscess)



### Diagnosis



# **Clinical Presentation**

- · Usually painful red eye, blurred vision and trouble looking at bright light
- In cases where pathogens reach the eye through the bloodstream from other sites of infection, signs and symptoms of bacteremia/fungemia can be present although usually ocular symptoms occur first



# **Microbiology Tests**

- · Consider microscopy and culture of a sample of aqueous or vitreous humour aspirate
- Consider blood cultures if a distant source of infection is suspected (i.e. endogenous endophthalmitis)



# **Other Laboratory Tests**

Consider tests to detect organ dysfunction



# Imaging

Usually not needed



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

### Exogenous (Most Cases):

### · Bacteria:

- Mostly coagulase-negative Staphylococci, less frequently
- Staphylococcus aureus
- Streptococcus spp. - Klebsiella spp. (more frequent in Asia)
- Bacillus cereus (mostly in case of penetrating trauma)

# · Fungi:

- Fusarium spp.
- Aspergillus spp

# Endogenous (Rare):

### · Racteria

- Mostly coagulase-negative Staphylococci, less frequently
- Staphylococcus aureus
- Streptococcus spp.
- Klebsiella spp. (more frequent in Asia)
- Bacillus cereus (mostly in case of penetrating trauma)

- Mostly Candida albicans

# **Treatment**

# **Clinical Considerations**

- · Endophthalmitis is an ocular emergency because it is a potentially blinding condition
- · Systemic antibiotics (in combination with intravitreal antibiotics) should be considered given the severity of this condition, especially when referral to an ophthalmologist is not rapidly available

The cornerstone of treatment is intravitreal injection of antibiotics. Two common approaches to administer intravitreal antihiotics:

- 1. "Tap and inject": first a sample of vitreous humour is collected for culture (through vitreous aspiration), then antibiotics are injected into the vitreous
- 2. Vitrectomy is performed (i.e. eye surgery to remove some or all the inflamed vitreous from the eye as a form of source control) and during the procedure, the antibiotic is injected into the vitreous



# **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Intravitreal: Single dose

· If no clinical improvement after 48 hours, the injection can be repeated

Systemic: Depends on underlying source of bacteremia

# **Bacterial Endophthalmitis**

All dosages are for normal renal function



Vancomycin 1 mg INTRAVITREAL INJECTION

COMBINED WITH

Ceftazidime 2.25 mg INTRAVITREAL INJECTION

IF ENDOGENOUS INFECTION. ADD

Ceftriaxone 80 mg/kg/dose g24h IV

COMBINED WITH



- Vancomycin IV
  - · Neonates: 15 mg/kg/dose q12h
  - · Children: 15 mg/kg/dose q8h



# **Keratitis**

Bacterial eve infection



# Definition

Infection of the cornea (i.e. transparent covering of the eye)



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

### **High Income Countries:**

· Bacteria and viruses are the most common causes

### Low and Middle Income Countries:

• Fungi predominate (especially in rural settings where eye trauma from plants is a common risk factor)

- · Pseudomonas spp. (mostly in individuals who wear contact lenses)
- Staphylococcus epidermidis
- Staphylococcus aureus
- · Streptococcus pneumoniae

### Fungi:

- Mostly Fusarium spp.
- · Aspergillus spp.

• Reactivation of herpes simplex virus (especially in patients who are immunocompromised)

· Acanthamoeba (contact lenses)



# Diagnosis

# **Clinical Presentation**

Usually painful eye, decreased vision, more tears and corneal oedema with a feeling of "having something in the eye" and difficulty in keeping the eye open +/- eye discharge



# **Microbiology Tests**

- · Consider microscopy and culture of a corneal sample (e.g. corneal scrapings or corneal biopsy)
- · Consider nucleic acid amplification testing for herpes simplex virus in patients who are immunocompromised



# **Other Laboratory Tests**

Usually not needed



# Imaging

Usually not needed; specialist eve examination may be considered





# **Clinical Considerations**

- · Infectious keratitis is an ocular emergency because it is a potentially blinding condition with poor prospects of visual
- · Patients with keratitis should stop wearing contact lenses until the infection is healed
- Consider giving cycloplegic eye drops (cyclopentolate 1% or atropine 1%) to reduce photophobia and to reduce the formation of pupillary adhesions to the lens



# **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

### 2 weeks

Duration is often personalized to the individual based on clinical improvement



# **Bacterial Keratitis**



### Ofloxacin 0.3% EYE DROPS

• 1 drop in the affected eye q1h for 48 hours, then q4h until healed

Drops are preferred over ointments because they have a better corneal penetration



## **Keratitis**

Bacterial eye infection



## Definition

Infection of the cornea (i.e. transparent covering of the eye)



## **Most Likely Pathogens**

## **High Income Countries:**

· Bacteria and viruses are the most common causes

## Low and Middle Income Countries:

• Fungi predominate (especially in rural settings where eye trauma from plants is a common risk factor)

## Bacteria

- Pseudomonas spp. (mostly in individuals who wear contact lenses)
- · Staphylococcus epidermidis
- Staphylococcus aureus
- · Streptococcus pneumoniae

## Fungi:

- Mostly Fusarium spp.
- Aspergillus spp.

## Viruses

• Reactivation of herpes simplex virus (especially in patients who are immunocompromised)

## Diagnosis



## **Clinical Presentation**

- Usually painful eye, decreased vision, more tears and corneal oedema with a feeling of "having something in the eye" and difficulty in keeping the eye open +/- eye discharge
- · Keratitis is rare in children

## 6

## **Microbiology Tests**

- Consider microscopy and culture of a corneal sample (e.g. corneal scrapings or corneal biopsy)
- Consider nucleic acid amplification testing for herpes simplex virus in patients who are immunocompromised



## Other Laboratory Tests

Usually not needed



## Imaging

Usually not needed; specialist eye examination may be considered

# $m R_{\!\! K}$ Treatment



## Clinical Considerations

- Infectious keratitis is an ocular emergency because it is a potentially blinding condition with poor prospects of visual restoration
- Consider giving cycloplegic eye drops (cyclopentolate 1% or atropine 1%) to reduce photophobia and to reduce the formation of pupillary adhesions to the lens

## X

## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

## 2 wook

Duration is often personalized to the individual based on clinical improvement

# $R_{\!\!X}$

## **Bacterial Keratitis**



## Ofloxacin 0.3% EYE DROPS

• 1 drop in the affected eye q1h for 48 hours, then q4h until healed

Drops are preferred over ointments because they have a better corneal penetration



# **Periorbital cellulitis**

Bacterial eve infection



## Definition

Infection of subcutaneous evelid tissues anterior to the orbital septum (the globe and the tissues within the bony orbit are not involved)

Important: most cases result from adjacent infections (e.g. infection of the eyelid, lacrimal sac, periorbital sinuses, dental infections) or follow bites or trauma of the eyelid



## Diagnosis



## **Clinical Presentation**

- · Usually unilateral signs of inflammation around the affected eye (e.g. red, swollen, warm and tender eyelid) with no restricted or painful eye movement +/- fever (≥ 38.0 °C)
- · Vision is normal

## Important:

- ·This is usually a mild condition that is rare in adults; complications are rare
- It is important to differentiate with orbital cellulitis (where there is usually restricted eye movements, protrusion of the eye and loss of vision)



## **Microbiology Tests**

- · Usually not needed
- · Cultures are difficult to obtain and blood cultures when performed are usually negative



## **Other Laboratory Tests**

Usually not needed



## **Imaging**

Consider a CT scan of the orbits and sinuses to assess the presence of orbital involvement and possible complications (e.g. abscess)

## **Most Likely Pathogens**

- · Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA strains)
- · Streptococcus pneumoniae
- · Haemophilus influenzae
- · Moraxella catarrhalis
- Anaerobes should be suspected if there is a history of animal or human bite or if necrosis is present

· Consider a virus (e.g. herpes simplex virus or varicella-zoster virus) if there is a vesicular skin rash



## **Treatment**



## **Clinical Considerations**

Most cases can be managed in the outpatient setting with oral antibiotics especially in adults with no signs of severe infection



## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

10-14 days (depending on the severity)

## **Antibiotic Treatment**

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated



Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 500 mg+125 mg q8h ORAL OR 1 q+200 mg q8h IV

OR.

Cefalexin 500 mg q8h ORAL

Cloxacillin 500 mg q6h ORAL OR 2 g q6h IV

Cloxacillin has a parrower spectrum of antibacterial activity compared to amoxicillin+clavulanic acid and cefalexin with limited coverage of Gram-negative bacteria from the upper respiratory tract that may cause periorbital cellulitis. Therefore, when this infection is suspected, amoxicillin+clavulanic acid or cefalexin would be the preferred options



# **Periorbital cellulitis**

Bacterial eye infection • Page 1 of 2



## Definition

Infection of subcutaneous eyelid tissues anterior to the orbital septum (the globe and the tissues within the bony orbit are not involved)

**Important**: most cases result from adjacent infections (e.g. infection of the eyelid, lacrimal sac, periorbital sinuses) or follow bites or trauma of the eyelid



## **Most Likely Pathogens**

## Bacteria:

- · Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA strains)
- · Streptococcus pneumoniae
- · Haemophilus influenzae
- · Moraxella catarrhalis
- Anaerobes should be suspected if there is a history of animal or human bite or if necrosis is present

## Viruses

• Consider a virus (e.g. herpes simplex virus or varicella zoster virus) if there is a vesicular skin rash

## Diagnosis

## 0

## Clinical Presentation

• Usually unilateral signs of inflammation around the affected eye (e.g. red, swollen, warm and tender eyelid) with no restricted or painful eye movement +/- fever ( $\geq$  38.0 °C)

· Vision is normal

## Important:

- This is usually a mild condition, complications are rare
- It is important to differentiate with **orbital cellulitis** (where there is usually restricted eye movements, protrusion of the eye and loss of vision)

## Č

## **Microbiology Tests**

- Usually not needed
- Cultures are difficult to obtain and blood cultures when performed are usually negative

## **iii**i

## Other Laboratory Tests

Usually not needed



## **Imaging**

Consider a CT scan of the orbits and sinuses to assess the presence of orbital involvement and possible complications (e.g. abscess)



# **Periorbital cellulitis**

Bacterial eye infection • Page 2 of 2

## R Treatment



## Clinical Considerations

Most cases can be managed in the outpatient setting with oral antibiotics especially in children >1 year with no signs of severe infection



## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

10-14 days (depending on the severity)

# $m R_{\!\! X}$ Antibiotic Treatment

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated



Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid IV:

- 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose of amoxicillin component q12h
- > 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose of amoxicillin component q8h
- **ORAL**: 80-90 mg/kg/day of amoxicillin component
- · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	250 mg of amox/dose q12h	
6-<10 kg	375 mg of amox/dose q12h	
10-<15 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q12h	
15-<20 kg	750 mg of amox/dose q12h	
≥20 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q8h or 1 g of amox/dose g12h	

Amox = amoxicillin

Oral liquid must be refrigerated after reconstitution

-- OR



## Cefalexin 25 mg/kg/dose q12h ORAL

Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	125 mg q12h
6-<10 kg	250 mg q12h
10-<15 kg	375 mg q12h
15-<20 kg	500 mg q12h
20-<30 kg	625 mg q12h
≥30 ka	500 ma a8h

OR -



## Cloxacillin

· Neonates: 25-50 mg/kg/dose q12h

• Children: 25 mg/kg/dose q6h

ORAL: 15 mg/kg/dose q6h
• Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	62.5 mg q6h
6-<10 kg	125 mg q6h
10-<15 kg	250 mg q6h
15-<20 kg	375 mg q6h
≥20 kg	500 mg q6h

Cloxacillin has a narrower spectrum of antibacterial activity compared to amoxicillin+clavulanic acid and cefalexin with limited coverage of Gram-negative bacteria from the upper respiratory tract that may cause periorbital cellulitis. Therefore, when this infection is suspected, amoxicillin+clavulanic acid or cefalexin would be the preferred options



## **Trachoma**



## **Definition**

Eye disease caused by specific serovars (A,B and C) of the bacterium Chlamydia trachomatis (other serovars cause urogenital diseases, see "Sexually transmitted infections -Chlamydial urogenital infections")



## **Pathogen**

- · Chlamydia trachomatis is a Gram-negative obligate intracellular bacterium
- · Strains associated with trachoma are serovars A, B, Ba, and C



## Diagnosis



## **Clinical Presentation**

- · Usually signs and symptoms of conjunctivitis with redness of the eye, eye discomfort, mucopurulent discharge and light sensitivity
- · Rare in adults

- $\bullet \ Conjunctival \ scarring, signs \ of \ chronic \ conjunctival$ inflammation and eyelashes turned inward
- · Mostly seen in adults due to repeated infections over time

WHO has a trachoma grading system used in field assessments to evaluate the extent of disease during examination (Reference: Solomon AW et al. The simplified trachoma grading system, amended. Bull World Health Organ. 2020:98(10):698-705)



## **Microbiology Tests**

- · Usually not needed
- · Consider testing a conjunctival sample (culture or nucleic acid amplification tests for Chlamydia trachomatis) in a selected subgroup of people to decide whether to stop or continue antibiotic treatment at the population level



## **Other Laboratory Tests**

Usually not needed



## Imaging

Usually not needed

## **Treatment**



## **Clinical Considerations**

- · Antibiotic treatment is often given as part of mass drug administration programmes in endemic areas to reduce the reservoir of Chlamydia trachomatis
- · If corneal damage has already occurred due to the inversion of the eyelashes, surgery is needed to correct the eyelid rotation and prevent blindness
- Repeated infections over the years can lead to permanent corneal damage and blindness

Important: Reinforce education on personal and community hygiene measures

- · Infection spreads via the hands through direct contact with contaminated people or objects
- · Flies can contribute by transporting contaminated eve/nose secretions to non-infected people
- · Risk factors include living in overcrowded conditions and poor sanitation; most transmission occurs within families



## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Since treatment duration varies according to the antibiotic used, please refer to the corresponding antibiotic section for treatment duration

## **Antibiotic Treatment**

All dosages are for normal renal function



Azithromycin 20 mg/kg (max 1 g) ORAL Treatment duration: Single dose

Administered once a year for 3 years as part of mass drug administration programmes



## **Topical Treatment**



Azithromycin 1.5% EYE DROPS

• 1 drop in both eyes a12h Treatment duration: 3 days

--- OR



Tetracycline 1% EYE OINTMENT

• 1 cm in both eyes q12h Treatment duration: 6 weeks

Topical treatment is used in areas where oral azithromycin is not readily available. Topical azithromycin may be as effective as oral azithromycin



## **Trachoma**



## **Definition**

Eye disease caused by specific serovars A, B and C of the bacterium Chlamydia trachomatis



## **Pathogen**

- · Chlamydia trachomatis is a Gram-negative obligate intracellular
- · Strains associated with trachoma are serovars A, B, Ba, and C



## Diagnosis



## Clinical Presentation

- Usually signs and symptoms of conjunctivitis with redness of the eye, eye discomfort, mucopurulent discharge and
- · More common in children living in endemic areas

- · Conjunctival scarring, signs of chronic conjunctival inflammation and eyelashes turned inward
- · Mostly seen in adults due to repeated infections over time WHO has a trachoma grading system used in field assessments to evaluate the extent of disease during examination (Reference: Solomon AW et al. The simplified trachoma grading system, amended. Bull World Health Organ. 2020;98(10):698-705)



## **Microbiology Tests**

- · Usually not needed
- · Consider testing a conjunctival sample (culture or nucleic acid amplification tests for Chlamydia trachomatis) in a selected subgroup of people to decide whether to stop or continue antibiotic treatment at the population level



## **Other Laboratory Tests**

Usually not needed



## **Imaging**

Usually not needed

## **Treatment**



## **Clinical Considerations**

- · Antibiotic treatment is often given as part of mass administration programmes in endemic areas to reduce the reservoir of Chlamydia trachomatis
- If corneal damage has already occurred due to the inversion of the eyelashes, surgery is needed to correct the evelid rotation and prevent blindness
- Repeated infections over the years can lead to permanent corneal damage and blindness

Important: Reinforce education on personal and community hygiene measures

- Infection spreads via the hands through direct contact with contaminated people or objects
- · Flies can contribute by transporting contaminated eve/nose secretions to non-infected people
- · Risk factors include living in overcrowded conditions and poor sanitation; most transmission occurs within families



## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Since treatment duration varies according to the antibiotic used, please refer to the corresponding antibiotic section for treatment duration

## **Antibiotic Treatment**

All dosages are for normal renal function



Azithromycin 20 mg/kg (max 500 mg) ORAL Treatment duration: Single dose

Administered once a year for 3 years as part of mass drug administration programmes



## **Topical Treatment**



Azithromycin 1.5% EYE DROPS

• 1 drop in both eyes a12h Treatment duration: 3 days

--- OR



Tetracycline 1% EYE OINTMENT

• 1 cm in both eyes q12h Treatment duration: 6 weeks

Topical treatment is used in areas where oral azithromycin is not readily available. Topical azithromycin may be as effective as oral azithromycin



Page 1 of 2



## **Definition**

An acute illness affecting the lungs usually presenting with cough, sputum production, and rapid and difficult breathing with a new or worsening pulmonary infiltrate on a chest radiograph



## **Most Likely Pathogens**

## "Typical" bacteria:

- · Streptococcus pneumoniae (most cases)
- · Haemophilus influenzae (chronic lung diseases, smoking)
- · Moraxella catarrhalis (chronic lung diseases, smoking)
- · Staphylococcus aureus (often associated with influenza)
- · Enterobacterales (severe comorbidities, e.g. chronic lung diseases, dementia, stroke)

## "Atypical" bacteria:

- Mycoplasma pneumoniae (more frequent in young adults)
- · Chlamydia pneumoniae and psittaci (more frequent in young
- · Legionella spp. (chronic lung diseases or other underlying illness, travel, exposure to hot tubs)
- · Coxiella burnetii (rural areas, exposure to livestock)

## Respiratory viruses:

- Influenza viruses (A and B)
- Respiratory syncytial virus (RSV)
- Metanneumovirus
- · Parainfluenza virus
- · Coronavirus (including SARS-CoV-2)
- Adenovirus
- Rhinovirus
- Other respiratory viruses

## Pathogens to consider in specific settings:

- · Burkholderia pseudomallei (SE Asia, Australia)
- Mycobacterium tuberculosis
- Pneumocystis jirovecii (people with HIV or other immunosuppression)



## Investigating for Tuberculosis (TB)

- · Consider specific investigations for TB in endemic settings especially in high-risk patients (e.g. HIV)
- · A rapid molecular test performed on a single sputum specimen is the preferred first line diagnostic test for pulmonary TB and to detect rifampicin resistance
- · Consider a lipoarabinomannan rapid urinary antigen test in severely immunocompromised HIV patients with signs and symptoms of tuberculosis

## Diagnosis

## **Clinical Presentation**

- New onset (<2 weeks) or worsening cough with fever (≥ 38.0 °C), sputum production, dyspnea, tachypnea, reduced oxygen saturation, crepitations on lung auscultation, chest pain/discomfort without alternative explanation
- · Extrapulmonary features (i.e. confusion, disorientation) may predominate in elderly, and immunocompromised patients and fever may be absent



## **Microbiology Tests**

Mild cases: usually not needed

Severe cases (to guide antimicrobial treatment): blood cultures, urinary antigens for L. pneumophila and S. pneumoniae

Selected cases (depending on epidemiology and risk factors): sputum rapid molecular test for M. tuberculosis,

nasopharyngeal swab for influenza viruses and SARS-CoV-2. HIV testing in settings with high HIV prevalence and in case of recurrent and/or severe pneumonia

## Other Laboratory Tests

Determine disease severity: blood urea nitrogen (see CURB-65 Scoring System box), blood pH and gases, white blood cell count

Differentiate bacterial and viral (taking into account pretest probability): C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin Note: tests depend on availability and clinical severity (e.g. blood gases will only be done in severe cases)



## Imaging

- · Chest X-ray not necessary in mild cases
- · Infiltrate may not always be evident (e.g. dehydration) and non-infectious etiologies may mimic infiltrates (e.g. lung edema, pulmonary embolism)
- · Radiologic appearance cannot be used to accurately predict pathogen



Page 2 of 2

# **CURB-65 Severity Scoring System**

## Signs & Symptoms (1 point each)

- O Presence of Confusion (new onset)
- O Urea > 19 mg/dL (or > 7 mmol/L)\*
- O Respiratory rate > 30/min
- O Systolic BP < 90 mmHq (<12 kPa) or Diastolic  $BP \le 60 \text{ mmHg } (<8 \text{ kPa})$
- O Age ≥ 65 years

First Choice

**Second Choice** 

a8h ORAL

## Score 0-1

 Consider outpatient treatment

- Consider inpatient treatment
- · Consider adding clarithromycin to betalactam for atypical coverage
- · Perform microbiology tests
- · Inpatient treatment (consider ICU)
- Consider adding
- clarithromycin · Perform microbiology tests

Other considerations such as severe comorbid illnesses or inability to maintain oral therapy should be taken into account. CURB-65 has not been extensively validated in low-income settinas.

\*The CRB-65 score, which does not require laboratory values for its calculation, can also be used, the score value interpretation is the same as for CURB-65

Mild to Moderate Cases

All dosages are for normal renal function

Amoxicillin 1 g q8h ORAL

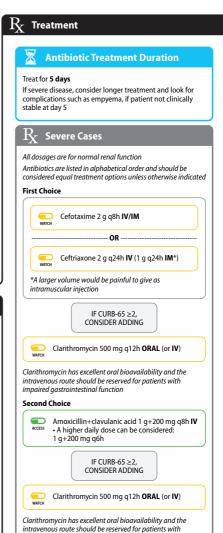
mg (800 000 IÚ) g6h ORAL

- OR

OR

Doxycycline 100 mg q12h ORAL

# Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated Phenoxymethylpenicillin (as potassium) 500 Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 875 mg+125 mg



impaired gastrointestinal function



Page 1 of 2



## **Definition**

An acute illness affecting the lungs usually presenting with cough, and rapid and difficult breathing with a new or worsening pulmonary infiltrate on a chest radiograph



## **Most Likely Pathogens**

## "Typical" bacteria:

- · Streptococcus pneumoniae (most common cause of CAP beyond the 1st week of life)
- · Haemophilus influenzae
- Moraxella catarrhalis
- · Staphylococcus aureus
- "Atypical" pathogens (more frequent in children >5 years compared to younger children):
- · Mycoplasma pneumoniae
- Chlamvdophila pneumoniae

## Respiratory viruses:

- · Respiratory syncytial virus (RSV)
- Influenza viruses (A and B)
- Metapneumovirus
- · Parainfluenza virus
- · Coronavirus (including SARS-CoV-2)
- Adenovirus
- Rhinovirus
- · Other respiratory viruses

## Investigating for Tuberculosis (TB)

- · Consider specific investigations for TB in endemic settings especially in high-risk patients (e.g. HIV)
- A rapid molecular test performed on a single sputum specimen is the preferred first line diagnostic test for pulmonary TB and to detect rifampicin resistance

## Diagnosis

## **Clinical Presentation**

- New onset (<2 weeks) or worsening cough with fever (≥ 38.0 °C), dyspnea, tachypnea, reduced oxygen saturation, crepitations, cyanosis, grunting, nasal flaring, pallor
- · Pneumonia is diagnosed on: fast breathing for age and/or chest indrawing
  - Check for hypoxia with oxygen saturometer if available
- · Children with runny nose and cough and no signs of severity usually do not have pneumonia and should not receive an antibiotic, only home care advice



## **Microbiology Tests**

Mild cases: usually not needed

Severe cases (to guide antimicrobial treatment): blood

Tests for COVID-19 and influenza can be considered if clinically indicated and available

## **Other Laboratory Tests**

No test clearly differentiates viral or bacterial CAP

Consider: full blood count and C-reactive protein

Note: tests depend on availability and clinical severity (e.g. blood gases will only be done in severe cases)

## Imaging

- · Chest X-ray not necessary in mild cases
- · Look for lobar consolidation or pleural effusion
- Radiologic appearance cannot be used to accurately predict pathogen



Page 2 of 2



## **Severity Assessment and** Considerations

## Children with pneumonia:

- · Should be treated with oral amoxicillin at home with home care advice
- · Pneumonia is diagnosed on either:
- 1. Fast breathing (respiratory rate > 50 breaths/minute in children aged 2-11 months; resp rate > 40 breaths/min in children aged 1-5 years)
- 2. Chest indrawing

Children with severe pneumonia (or a child with pneumonia who cannot tolerate oral antibiotics):

- · Should be admitted to hospital and treated with intravenous antibiotics
- · Severe pneumonia is characterized by signs of pneumonia:
- Fast breathing (+/- chest indrawing)
- A general danger sign:
- · Inability to breastfeed or drink
- Convulsions
- · Lethargy or reduced level of consciousness



## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

- 3 days: in areas of low HIV prevalence and no chest
- 5 days: in areas of high HIV prevalence and the child has chest indrawing

If severe disease, consider longer treatment and look for complications such as empyema, if patient not clinically stable at day 5



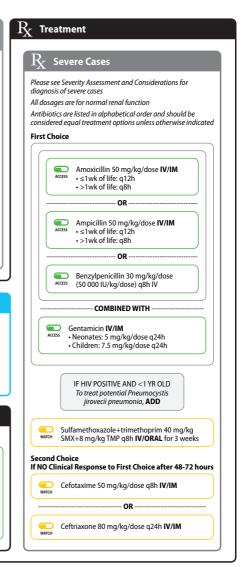
## Mild to Moderate Cases

All dosages are for normal renal function



Amoxicillin 80-90 mg/kg/day ORAL · Oral weight hand

3-<6 kg	250 mg q12h
6-<10 kg	375 mg q12h
10-<15 kg	500 mg q12h
15-<20 kg	750 mg q12h
≥20 kg	500 mg q8h or 1 g q12h





# **Exacerbation of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease**

Page 1 of 2



## Definition

Acute worsening of patient's respiratory symptoms beyond normal day-to-day variations that results in additional therapy in patients with underlying chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). COPD refers to a group of diseases that block airflow and impair breathing and includes emphysema and chronic bronchitis



## Most Likely Pathogens

## Respiratory viruses (most cases):

- Influenza virus (A and B)
- · Respiratory syncytial virus (RSV)
- Parainfluenza virus
- Rhinovirus
- · Coronavirus (including SARS-CoV-2)
- Other respiratory viruses

## Bacteria (more rarely):

- · Haemophilus influenzae
- Moraxella catarrhalis
- Streptococcus pneumoniae
- Gram-negative bacteria including *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (including multidrug-resistant strains)



## **Prevention**

Recommend smoking cessation, reduced indoor air pollution, use of long-acting inhaled  $\beta_2$ -agonists ( $\pm$  anticholinergics) and vaccination (e.g. against influenza, S. pneumoniae and SARS-CoV-2)

## Diagnosis

## $\mathcal{Q}$

## Clinical Presentation

Recent and sustained worsening of dyspnea and cough with increased sputum production compared to the baseline in a patient with COPD

**Important:** symptoms can overlap with pneumonia (pneumonia more likely if tachycardia, tachypnea at rest and crepitations that persist after coughing are present)

## C

## **Microbiology Tests**

Usually not needed but can be considered in severe cases; the respiratory tract of people with COPD may be colonized with bacteria (e.g. S. pneumoniae, H. influenze, M. catarrhalis, P. aeruginosa, S. maltophilia) and a positive culture may indicate colonization rather than acute infection



## Other Laboratory Tests

Consider C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin, complete blood count, and blood pH and gases



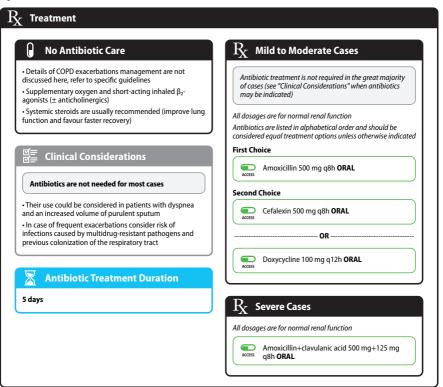
## **Imaging**

Consider a chest radiograph in patients requiring hospitalization to exclude other diagnoses and in outpatients if pneumonia suspected



# **Exacerbation of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease**

Page 2 of 2





Page 1 of 2

This guidance excludes Clostridioides difficile infection or enteric fever (see separate chapters)



## **Definition**

New (<14 days) onset of diarrhoea (≥3 unformed/liquid stools in 24 hrs or more than normal for individual). Diarrhoea can be watery or bloody (dysentery)

Important: Non-infectious causes are also possible and must be considered (e.g. adverse effects of medicines including antibiotics, bowel and endocrine diseases)



## **Most Likely Pathogens**

## Most cases have a viral origin

Always consider these risk factors as they may influence the most likely etiologic agents:

- · History of recent travel
- · Recent consumption of potentially unsafe food
- Recent antibiotic exposure (risk of C. difficile)
- Immunosuppression
- Severe malnutrition

## Watery diarrhoea

- · Most likely cause is viral (mostly norovirus and rotavirus)
- · Consider cholera in endemic settings or in the context of outbreaks

## Bloody diarrhoea (dysentery):

- · Most likely cause are bacteria, mostly:
- Shigella spp.
- Campylobacter spp.
- Diarrhoeal non-typhoidal Salmonella
- Enterotoxigenic Escherichia coli

## Consider parasites if symptoms do not resolve:

- Usually parasites are responsible for persistent (14-29 days duration) or chronic (>30 days duration) rather than acute diarrhoea
- Entamoeba histolytica
- Giardia intestinalis
- Other protozoal parasites and very rarely Schistosoma (intestinal species)



## **Prevention**

- · Access to safe drinking-water, use of improved sanitation, hand washing with soap, good food hygiene, health education about how these infections spread
- · Vaccination against cholera in endemic areas and during outbreaks

## Diagnosis

## **Clinical Presentation**

- · Diarrhoea, nausea, vomiting, bloating, abdominal pain and cramping; fever may be absent
- · Most cases are self-limiting in a few days
- · Patients may present with varying degrees of dehydration and can present with severe malnutrition (both a risk factor and a consequence of diarrhoea)

## Important:

- Rapidly evaluate the degree of dehydration
- (especially in the elderly)
- · Signs of severe dehydration (two or more must be
- Lethargy and/or unconsciousness
- Sunken eyes
- Inability to drink
- Skin pinch goes back very slowly (≥2 seconds)



## **Microbiology Tests**

Usually not needed

## Consider testing if:

- · Bloody diarrhoea
- · Immunocompromised patients (to exclude parasitic
- Recent antibiotic use (to exclude C. difficile)
- Suspected cholera outbreak

## Tests to consider:

- Stool culture
- Stool microscopy (for parasites)
- · Vibrio cholerae antigen (e.g. in outbreaks) • Test for C. difficile (if recent antibiotic exposure)



## **Other Laboratory Tests**

Usually not needed but consider in severe cases (e.g. check electrolytes)



## **Imaging**

Usually not needed



Page 2 of 2

# 



## No Antibiotic Care

Important: Rehydration and electrolyte replacement is the main treatment for acute infectious diarrhoea Fluid losses can be compensated by drinking adequate

Antidiarrhoeal and antiemetic drugs are not routinely needed (they do not prevent dehydration or improve nutritional status)



## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Since treatment duration varies according to the antibiotic used, please refer to the corresponding antibiotic section for treatment duration

## $R_{\!\scriptscriptstyle X}$

## Cholera Antibiotic Treatment

Treat with antibiotics only in:

- · Patients hospitalized with severe dehydration OR
- · Regardless of degree of dehydration:
- High purging or failure of first 4 hour course of rehydration therapy OR
- Coexisting conditions (e.g. pregnancy) OR
- Co-morbidities (e.g. severe acute malnutrition, HIV)

All dosages are for normal renal function

## First Choice



Azithromycin 1 g ORAL

Treatment duration: single dose

Azithromycin preferred because of the decreasing susceptibility of cholera to tetracyclines and fluoroquinolones





Doxycycline 300 mg single dose **ORAL Treatment duration**: 3 days

• If single dose is not tolerated: 100 mg q12h

## Second Choice



Ciprofloxacin 1 g ORAL

Treatment duration: single dose

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## **Clinical Considerations**

- Antibiotics usually not needed, including in cases with severe dehydration
- · Consider antibiotic treatment ONLY if:
- Significant acute bloody diarrhoea
- Severely immunocompromised patients

# $\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{X}}$

## Antibiotic Treatment

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated

If symptoms do not resolve within 24-48 hours of treatment, consider giving metronidazole for treatment of Entamoeba histolytica and Giardia intestinalis

## First Choice



Ciprofloxacin 500 mg q12h ORAL

Treatment duration: 3 days

## Second Choice



Azithromycin ORAL

Day 1: 500 mg q24h

• Day 2-4: 250 mg q24h

Treatment duration: 4 days

Azithromycin is preferred in case of high prevalence of ciprofloxacin resistance among bacteria frequently associated with acute infectious diarrhoea (e.g. Salmonella spp., Shiaella spp.)

## -- OR



Cefixime 400 mg q24h ORAL

Treatment duration: 3 days

OR



Sulfamethoxazole+trimethoprim 800 mg + 160 mg q12h **ORAL** 

Treatment duration: 5 days

Use only if local data suggest susceptibility In patients taking sulfamethoxazole-trimethoprim for prophylaxis, treat with a different antibiotic unless susceptibility is confirmed

OR



Ceftriaxone 1 g q24h IV/IM

Treatment duration: 3 days



Page 1 of 2



## **Definition**

New (<14 days) onset of diarrhoea (≥3 unformed/liquid stools in 24 hrs or more than normal for individual). Diarrhoea can be watery or bloody (dysentery)

Important: Non-infectious causes are also possible and must be considered (e.g. adverse effects of medicines including antibiotics, bowel and endocrine diseases)



## **Most Likely Pathogens**

## Most cases have a viral origin

Always consider these risk factors as they may influence the most likely etiologic agents:

- · History of recent travel
- Recent consumption of potentially unsafe food
- Immunosuppression
- Severe malnutrition

## Watery diarrhoea:

- · Most likely cause is viral, mostly:
- Rotavirus
- Norovirus
- Adenovirus
- Consider cholera in endemic settings or in the context of

## Bloody diarrhoea (dysentery):

- · Most likely cause are bacteria, mostly:
- Shiqella spp.
- Campylobacter spp.
- Diarrhoeal non-typhoidal Salmonella
- Enterotoxigenic Éscherichia coli

## Consider parasites if symptoms do not resolve:

- Usually parasites are responsible for persistent (14-29 days duration) or chronic (>30 days duration) rather than acute diarrhoea
- Entamoeba histolytica
- Giardia intestinalis
- Other protozoal parasites and very rarely Schistosoma (intestinal species)



## Prevention

- · Access to safe drinking-water, use of improved sanitation, hand washing with soap, good food hygiene, health education about how these infections spread
- · Exclusive breastfeeding for the first 6 months of life
- Vaccination against rotavirus and against cholera (in endemic areas and during outbreaks)

This guidance excludes enteric fever (see separate chapter)



## Diagnosis

## **Clinical Presentation**

- Diarrhoea, nausea, vomiting, bloating, abdominal pain and cramping; fever may be absent
- · Most cases are self-limiting in a few days
- · Patients may present with varying degrees of dehydration and can present with severe malnutrition (both a risk factor and a consequence of diarrhoea)

## Important:

- · Rapidly evaluate the degree of dehydration
- · Signs of severe dehydration (two or more must be
- Lethargy and/or unconsciousness
- Sunken eyes
- Inability to drink
- Skin pinch goes back very slowly (≥2 seconds)



## **Microbiology Tests**

Usually not needed

## Consider testing if:

- · Bloody diarrhoea
- · Immunocompromised patients (to exclude parasitic infections)
- · Suspected cholera outbreak

## Tests to consider:

- Stool culture
- · Stool microscopy (for parasites)



## Other Laboratory Tests

Usually not needed but consider in severe cases (e.g. check electrolytes)



## **Imaging**

Usually not needed



Page 2 of 2

# **Treatment**



## No Antibiotic Care

Important: Rehydration and electrolyte replacement is the main treatment for acute infectious diarrhoea

- · Low-osmolarity oral rehydration solution (ORS) is recommended
- In addition to ORS, zinc tablets (10-20 mg/day) for 10-14 days can shorten duration and severity of symptoms

Antidiarrhoeal and antiemetic drugs are not routinely needed (they do not prevent dehydration or improve nutritional status)



## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Since treatment duration varies according to the antibiotic used, please refer to the corresponding antibiotic section for treatment duration

## **Cholera Antibiotic Treatment**

Treat with antibiotics only in-

- · Patients hospitalized with severe dehydration OR
- Regardless of degree of dehydration:
- High purging or failure of first 4 hour course of rehydration
- Co-morbidities (e.g. severe acute malnutrition, HIV)

All dosages are for normal renal function

## First Choice



Azithromycin 20 mg/kg ORAL

Treatment duration: single dose

Azithromycin preferred because of the decreasing susceptibility of cholera to tetracyclines and fluoroquinolones

## Second Choice



Ciprofloxacin 15 mg/kg ORAL Treatment duration: single dose



Doxycycline ORAL

<45 kg (<12 yrs): 2-4 mg/kg</li>

•>45 kg (>12 yrs): 300 mg

Treatment duration: single dose

## Clinical Considerations

- · Antibiotics usually not needed, including in cases with fever and/or severe dehydration
- · Consider antibiotic treatment ONLY if:
- Significant bloody diarrhoea
- Severely immunocompromised patients

## **Antibiotic Treatment**

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated

If symptoms do not resolve within 24-48 hours of treatment, consider giving metronidazole for treatment of Entamoeba histolytica and Giardia intestinalis

## First Choice



Ciprofloxacin 15 mg/kg/dose q12h ORAL · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	50 mg q12h
6-<10 kg	100 mg q12h
10-<15 kg	150 mg q12h
15-<20 kg	200 mg q12h
20-<30 kg	300 mg q12h
≥30 kg	500 mg g12h

## Treatment duration: 3 days



Second Choice

Azithromycin 10 mg/kg/dose q24h ORAL

Treatment duration: 4 days

For children with bloody diarrhoea/dysentery ONLY azithromycin is preferred if suspected ciprofloxacin resistance

## OR.



Cefixime 10 mg/kg/dose q24h ORAL

Treatment duration: 5 days

OR



Sulfamethoxazole+trimethoprim 20 mg/kg + 4 mg/kg q12h ORAL

· Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	100 mg+20 mg q12h
6-<10 kg	200 mg+40 mg q12h
10-<30 kg	400 mg+80 mg q12h
≥30 kg	800 mg+160 mg g12h

Treatment duration: 5 days

Use only if local data suggest susceptibility

In patients taking sulfamethoxazole-trimethoprim for prophylaxis, treat with a different antibiotic unless susceptibility is confirmed

OR



Ceftriaxone 80 mg/kg/dose q24h IV/IM

Treatment duration: 3 days



## **Enteric fever**

## **Definition**

- · A severe systemic illness characterized by fever and abdominal pain caused by infection with Salmonella enterica
- · Acquired through ingestion of contaminated food/water

- · Mild: Not critically ill with no signs of intestinal perforation, peritonitis, sepsis or septic shock
- · Severe: Critically ill with confirmed/suspected intestinal perforation, peritonitis, sepsis or septic shock



## **Pathogen**

Enteric fever is caused by Salmonella enterica serotypes Typhi or Paratyphi A, B or C



## Diagnosis



## **Clinical Presentation**

- · It can be difficult to distinguish enteric fever from other febrile illnesses
- Symptoms include protracted fever (≥ 38.0 °C for >3 days) +/- headache, loss of appetite and nausea; gastrointestinal symptoms may also be present (diarrhoea more frequent in people living with HIV)
- · Consider peritonitis if there is severe pain, diffuse rebound tenderness upon sudden release of pressure on the abdomen and abdominal muscular tensing; peritonitis occurs as a result of intestinal bleeding and perforation
- Encephalopathy can also occur in severe cases

## **Microbiology Tests**

- · Mild Cases: Usually not needed
- · Severe Cases: Blood cultures (ideally before starting antibiotics)
- · Bone marrow culture is the reference standard test but is often not feasible
- · Note: the Widal serology is not a reliable method to diagnose acute illness (a positive result may be due to previous infection)



## **Other Laboratory Tests**

- · Mild Cases: Usually not needed
- Severe Cases: Complete blood count, creatinine, electrolytes, glucose, C-reactive protein and / or procalcitonin



## Imaging

Usually not needed



## **Prevention**

Access to safe water and adequate sanitation, health education, appropriate hygiene among food handlers, and typhoid vaccination



## **Treatment**

## **Clinical Considerations**

- · Antibiotic treatment should be started as soon as the diagnosis is suspected; delays are associated with higher risk of complications and severe disease
- · Empiric treatment should be chosen based on:
- Severity of presentation
- Local prevalence of fluoroquinolone resistance among Salmonella enterica serotypes Typhi or Paratyphi
- · Fever usually decreases slowly after 3-5 days of treatment
- If initially treated IV, step down from IV to oral antibiotics is suggested when the patient has clinically improved, is afebrile and is able to tolerate oral treatment



## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Mild Cases: 7 days\*

Severe Cases: 10 days\*

\*if clinical improvement and the patient is afebrile for 48

## Low Risk of Fluoroguinolone Resistance

All dosages are for normal renal function

Mild and Severe Cases



Ciprofloxacin 500 mg q12h ORAL

## High Risk of Fluoroquinolone Resistance

All dosages are for normal renal function

Mild Cases

Azithromycin 1 g once on day 1, then 500 mg q24h ORAL

Severe Cases



Ceftriaxone 2 g q24h IV



## **Enteric fever**



## **Definition**

- · A severe systemic illness characterized by fever and abdominal pain caused by infection with Salmonella enterica
- · Acquired through ingestion of contaminated food/water

- · Mild: Not critically ill with no signs of intestinal perforation, peritonitis, sepsis or septic shock
- · Severe: Critically ill with confirmed/suspected intestinal perforation, peritonitis, sepsis or septic shock



## **Pathogen**

Enteric fever is caused by Salmonella enterica serotypes Typhi or Paratyphi A, B or C



## Diagnosis



## Clinical Presentation

- · It can be difficult to distinguish enteric fever from other febrile illnesses
- Symptoms include protracted fever (≥ 38.0 °C for >3 days) +/- headache, loss of appetite and nausea; gastrointestinal symptoms may also be present
- Diarrhoea is common
- · Consider peritonitis if there is severe pain, diffuse rebound tenderness upon sudden release of pressure on the abdomen and abdominal guarding; peritonitis occurs as a result of intestinal bleeding and perforation
- Encephalopathy can also occur in severe cases



## **Microbiology Tests**

- · Mild Cases: Usually not needed
- · Severe Cases: Blood cultures (ideally before starting antibiotics)
- · Note: the Widal serology is not a reliable method to diagnose acute illness (a positive result may be due to previous infection)



## **Other Laboratory Tests**

- · Mild Cases: Usually not needed
- · Severe Cases: Complete blood count, creatinine, electrolytes, glucose, C-reactive protein



## **Imaging**

Routine imaging is not needed



## **Prevention**

Access to safe water and adequate sanitation, health education, appropriate hygiene among food handlers, and typhoid vaccination



## **Treatment**

## **Clinical Considerations**

 Antibiotic treatment should be started as soon as the diagnosis is suspected; delays are associated with higher risk of complications and severe disease

- · Empiric treatment should be chosen based on: - Severity of presentation
  - Local prevalence of fluoroquinolone resistance among Salmonella enterica serotypes Typhi or Paratyphi
- · Fever usually decreases slowly after 3-5 days of treatment
- · If initially treated IV, step down from IV to oral antibiotics is suggested when the patient has clinically improved, is afebrile and is able to tolerate oral treatment



## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Mild Cases: 7 days\*

Severe Cases: 10 days\*

\*if clinical improvement and the patient is afebrile for 48

## Low Risk of Fluoroquinolone Resistance

All dosages are for normal renal function

## Mild and Severe Cases



Ciprofloxacin 15 mg/kg/dose g12h ORAL · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	50 mg q12h
6-<10 kg	100 mg q12h
10-<15 kg	150 mg q12h
15-<20 kg	200 mg q12h
20-<30 kg	300 mg q12h
≥30 kg	500 mg g12h



## **High Risk of Fluoroquinolone** Resistance

All dosages are for normal renal function

## Mild Cases



Azithromycin 20 mg/kg/dose q24h ORAL

## Severe Cases



Ceftriaxone 80 mg/kg/dose q24h IV



# Impetigo / Erysipelas / Cellulitis

Skin and soft tissue infection



## Definition

Superficial bacterial skin infections, not affecting the deeper tissue layers



## Diagnosis



## **Clinical Presentation**

Impetigo: Acute onset of superficial skin lesions usually without systemic symptoms

- · Most cases: papules progressing to vesicles and pustules that break to form crusts (non-bullous form)
- · Minority of cases: vesicles evolve to form larger bullae (bullous form)

Erysipelas: Acute onset of a painful red skin lesion with well-defined indurated margins usually on face or legs

- · Bullae may be present or develop in first days
- Fever (≥ 38.0 °C) and other signs of systemic infection may be present

Cellulitis: Acute onset of a skin lesion presenting with redness, swelling and induration, warmth and pain or tenderness of the affected area

- · Most commonly affected areas: legs and face
- Fever (≥ 38.0 °C) and other signs of systemic infection may
- Redness alone may not indicate an infection
- · A clear clinical distinction between cellulitis and ervsipelas is often difficult to make



## Microbiology Tests

Not needed in most mild cases

· Tissue swab cultures are to be avoided, especially in case of intact skin



## Other Laboratory Tests

Not needed in most mild cases



## **Imaging**

Routine imaging of mild cases not necessary

· Ultrasound may be considered if abscess or subdermal involvement suspected



## **Most Likely Pathogens**

## Bacteria (most cases):

- · Streptococcus pyogenes (group A Streptococcus) especially in case of erysipelas
- · Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)

Additional bacteria (more rarely e.g immunocompromised and/or diabetic patients, traumatic skin lesions):

- Enterobacterale
- Pseudomonas spp.
- Anaerobes

This guidance excludes skin infections caused by viral, fungal or parasitic pathogens; diabetic foot infections; necrotizing fasciitis; pyomyositis; severe infections with sepsis; and surgical site infections

## **Treatment**



## **Clinical Considerations**

- Empiric antibiotic options need to have good activity against both Streptococcus pyogenes (group A Streptococcus)
- Empiric treatment against community-acquired MRSA: Consider in selected cases based on individual risk factors, known colonization and local prevalence
- Mild infections: Oral treatment is adequate
- Intravenous antibiotics: May be required if infection rapidly spreading and not responding to oral antibiotics



## Antibiotic Treatment Duration

Treat for 5 days

Longer durations may be required in case of no clinical improvement or if an underlying medical condition is present



## **Topical Treatment**

Localized non-bullous impetigo: Topical treatment is preferred over an oral antibiotic, whenever possible. For example, a 5 day course with mupirocin 2% ointment

## **Antibiotic Treatment**

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated



Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 500 mg+125 mg a8h ORAL

OR



Cefalexin 500 mg q8h ORAL

OR



Cloxacillin 500 mg q6h ORAL

Cloxacillin and cefalexin have a narrower spectrum of antibacterial activity compared to amoxicillin+clavulanic acid with good efficacy in mild skin and soft tissue infections. From an antibiotic stewardship perspective, these would be the preferred options whenever possible (except for bite wounds)

If cloxacillin is unavailable, dicloxacillin or flucloxacillin could



# Impetigo / Erysipelas / Cellulitis

Skin and soft tissue infection • Page 1 of 2

This guidance excludes skin infections caused by viral, fungal or parasitic pathogens; necrotizing fasciitis; pyomyositis; severe infections with sepsis; and surgical site infections



## **Definition**

Superficial bacterial skin infections, not affecting the deeper tissue layers



## **Most Likely Pathogens**

## Bacteria (most cases):

- Streptococcus pyogenes (group A Streptococcus) especially in case of erysipelas
- · Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)



## Diagnosis



## **Clinical Presentation**

**Impetigo**: Acute onset of superficial skin lesions usually without systemic symptoms

- Most cases: papules progressing to vesicles and pustules
- that break to form crusts (non-bullous form)
- Minority of cases: vesicles evolve to form larger bullae (bullous form)

**Erysipelas**: Acute onset of a painful red skin lesion with well-defined indurated margins usually on face or legs

- Bullae may be present or develop in first days
- Fever (≥ 38.0 °C) and other signs of systemic infection may be present

**Cellulitis**: Acute onset of a skin lesion presenting with redness, swelling and induration, warmth and pain or tenderness of the affected area

- · Most commonly affected areas: legs and face
- Fever (≥ 38.0 °Ć) and other signs of systemic infection may be present
- Redness alone may not indicate an infection
- A clear clinical distinction between cellulitis and erysipelas is often difficult to make



## Microbiology Tests

Not needed in most mild cases

• Tissue swab cultures are to be avoided, especially in case of intact skin

## **Other Laboratory Tests**

Not needed in most mild cases



## **Imaging**

Routine imaging of mild cases not necessary

• Ultrasound may be considered if abscess or subdermal involvement suspected



# Impetigo / Erysipelas / Cellulitis

Skin and soft tissue infection • Page 2 of 2

# $m R_{\!\scriptscriptstyle C}$ Treatment

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## **Clinical Considerations**

- Empiric antibiotic options need to have good activity against both Group A Streptococcus and MSSA
- Empiric treatment against community-acquired MRSA: Consider in selected cases based on individual risk factors, known colonization and local prevalence
- · Mild infections: Oral treatment is adequate
- Intravenous antibiotics: May be required if infection rapidly spreading and not responding to oral antibiotics



## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

## Treat for 5 days

Longer durations may be required in case of no clinical improvement or if an underlying medical condition is present



## **Topical Treatment**

**Localized non-bullous impetigo**: Topical treatment is preferred over an oral antibiotic, whenever possible. For example, a 5 day course with mupirocin 2% ointment

## $m R_{\!\scriptscriptstyle T}$ Antibiotic Treatment

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated



 Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 80-90 mg/kg/day of amoxicillin component ORAL

· Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	250 mg of amox/dose q12h
6-<10 kg	375 mg of amox/dose q12h
10-<15 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q12h
15-<20 kg	750 mg of amox/dose q12h
≥20 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q8h or 1 g of amox/dose q12h

Amox = amoxicillin

Oral liquid must be refrigerated after reconstitution

## ---- OR ----

## 

Cefalexin 25 mg/kg/dose q12h ORAL

Oral weight bands:

125 mg q12h
250 mg q12h
375 mg q12h
500 mg q12h
625 mg q12h
500 mg q8h

## OR-



Cloxacillin 15 mg/kg/dose q6h ORAL

· Oral weight bands:

<b>3</b>	
3-<6 kg	62.5 mg q6h
6-<10 kg	125 mg q6h
10-<15 kg	250 mg q6h
15-<20 kg	375 mg q6h
≥20 kg	500 mg q6h

Cloxacillin and cefalexin have a narrower spectrum of antibacterial activity compared to amoxicillin-clavulanic acid with good efficacy in mild skin and soft tissue infections. From an antibiotic stewardship perspective, these would be the preferred options whenever possible (except for bite wounds) If cloxacillin is unavailable, dicloxacillin or flucloxacillin could be used



# **Burn wound-related infections**



## **Definition**

An injury to the skin or other organic tissue primarily caused by heat or due to radiation, radioactivity, electricity, friction or contact with chemicals. Burns can be classified based on cause and depth of the burn



## Diagnosis



## Clinical Presentation

Diagnosis of a wound infection relies on the clinical examination

- Burn wounds should be monitored for signs of infection such as increased pain, redness or swelling of the area surrounding the wound
- · Redness alone may not indicate infection
- · Signs of invasive infection (e.g. change in wound colour, signs of sepsis) should be carefully monitored



## **Microbiology Tests**

- · Routine testing (including wound cultures) is not needed in mild cases with no signs of systemic infection
- · Identifying the pathogen in mild cases will not benefit the patient as it will rarely change management
- In severe cases, refer to the Sepsis infographic if this is suspected



## Other Laboratory Tests

- · Routine testing is not needed in mild cases with no signs of systemic infection
- Because of the inflammatory response associated with the burn, biomarkers of infection are of limited use to diagnose bacterial infections



## **Imaging**

Routine imaging not necessary



## Most Likely Pathogens

Mostly polymicrobial. Hospital-acquired multidrug-resistant organisms are a major concern in burn patients often because of prolonged hospitalization and frequent antibiotic exposure

## Early after the injury:

- Streptococcus spp.
- · Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)
- · Staphylococcus spp. other than S. aureus
- Enterobacterales\*

## **During hospitalization:**

- Pseudomonas aeruainosa\* Acinetobacter baumannii\*
- · Fungi (e.g. Candida spp.)

\*Including multidrug-resistant strains

This guidance excludes severe infections

## **Treatment**



## **Clinical Considerations**

- · Meticulous observation of infection control procedures to prevent transmission of multidrug-resistant organisms
- Irrigation and debridement of necrotic tissue to prevent infection of the wound
- · Appropriate daily cleaning and dressing of the wound
- · Only infected wounds should be treated
- Coverage against MRSA may be considered based on local prevalence and on individual risk factors



## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

## Treat for 5 days (mild cases)

(Potentially longer if severe systemic infections)



## **Prophylactic Antibiotics**

Avoid the routine use of antibiotics to prevent infections (no clear evidence of a benefit and increased risk of colonization with resistant bacteria)



## **Topical Treatment**

Local antiseptics could be considered based on local protocols



## **Antibiotic Treatment**

## Only infected wounds should be treated

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated



Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 500 mg+125 mg a8h ORAL



Cefalexin 500 mg q8h ORAL

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Cloxacillin 500 mg q6h ORAL

Cloxacillin and cefalexin have a narrower spectrum of antibacterial activity compared to amoxicillin+clavulanic acid with good efficacy in mild skin and soft tissue infections. From an antibiotic stewardship perspective, these would be the preferred options whenever possible

If cloxacillin is unavailable, dicloxacillin or flucloxacillin could he used



# **Burn wound-related infections**

Page 1 of 2

This guidance excludes severe infections



## Definition

- An injury to the skin or other organic tissue primarily caused by heat or due to radiation, radioactivity, electricity, friction or contact with chemicals
- · Burns can be classified based on cause and depth of the burn



## **Most Likely Pathogens**

Mostly polymicrobial. Hospital-acquired multidrug-resistant organisms are a major concern in burn patients often because of prolonged hospitalization and frequent antibiotic exposure

## Early after the injury:

- · Streptococcus spp.
- Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)
- · Staphylococcus spp. other than S. aureus
- Enterobacterales

## **During hospitalization:**

- Pseudomonas aeruginosa\*
- · Acinetobacter baumannii\*
- Fungi (e.g. Candida spp.)
- \*Including multidrug-resistant strains

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## Diagnosis

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## **Clinical Presentation**

Diagnosis of a wound infection relies on the clinical examination

- Burn wounds should be monitored for signs of infection such as increased pain, redness or swelling of the area surrounding the wound
- · Redness alone may not indicate infection
- Signs of invasive infection (e.g. change in wound colour, signs of sepsis) should be carefully monitored



## **Microbiology Tests**

- Routine testing (including wound cultures) is not needed in mild cases with no signs of systemic infection
- Identifying the pathogen in mild cases will not benefit the patient as it will rarely change management
- In severe cases, refer to the Sepsis infographic if this is suspected



## **Other Laboratory Tests**

- Routine testing is not needed in mild cases with no signs of systemic infection
- Because of the inflammatory response associated with the burn, biomarkers of infection are of limited use to diagnose bacterial infections



## **Imaging**

Routine imaging not necessary



# **Burn wound-related infections**

Page 2 of 2

# $m R_{\!\! K}$ Treatment



## **Clinical Considerations**

- Meticulous observation of infection control procedures to prevent transmission of multidrug-resistant organisms
- Irrigation and debridement of necrotic tissue to prevent infection of the wound
- · Appropriate daily cleaning and dressing of the wound
- · Only infected wounds should be treated
- Coverage against MRSA may be considered based on local prevalence and on individual risk factors



## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Treat for 5 days (mild cases)

(Potentially longer if severe systemic infections)



## **Prophylactic Antibiotics**

Avoid the routine use of antibiotics to prevent infections (no clear evidence of a benefit and increased risk of colonization with resistant bacteria)



## **Topical Treatment**

Local antiseptics could be considered based on local protocols

# $m R_{\! X}$ Antibiotic Treatment

## Only infected wounds should be treated

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated



Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 80-90 mg/kg/day of amoxicillin component **ORAL** 

· Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	250 mg of amox/dose q12h
6-<10 kg	375 mg of amox/dose q12h
10-<15 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q12h
15-<20 kg	750 mg of amox/dose q12h
≥20 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q8h or 1 g of amox/dose q12h

Amox = amoxicillin

Oral liquid must be refrigerated after reconstitution

- OR



## Cefalexin 25 mg/kg/dose q12h ORAL

• Oral weight bands:

125 mg q12h
250 mg q12h
375 mg q12h
500 mg q12h
625 mg q12h
500 mg q8h

OR-



## Cloxacillin15 mg/kg/dose q6h ORAL

Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	62.5 mg q6h
6-<10 kg	125 mg q6h
10-<15 kg	250 mg q6h
15-<20 kg	375 mg q6h
≥20 kg	500 mg q6h

Cloxacillin and cefalexin have a narrower spectrum of antibacterial activity compared to amoxicillin-clavulanic acid with good efficacy in mild skin and soft tissue infections. From an antibiotic stewardship perspective, these would be the preferred options whenever possible

If cloxacillin is unavailable, dicloxacillin or flucloxacillin could be used



Page 1 of 2

This guidance excludes severe infections, surgical wounds and management of bites from arthropods and poisonous animals



## Definition

Any traumatic skin injury characterized by damage and exposure of deeper skin tissue



## Diagnosis



## Clinical Presentation

Infection may or may not be present at time of clinical evaluation

- · Superficial infections: Symptoms of cellulitis (redness, swelling, warmth, lymphangitis, pain around wound)
- Invasive wound infection: Change in wound colour, signs of sepsis (should be carefully monitored)



## **Laboratory Tests**

Routine testing not needed in mild cases with no signs of systemic infection



## **Imaging**

Routine imaging not necessary

· May be considered in selected cases based on extent and depth of lesion

## **Most Likely Pathogens**

Infection commonly polymicrobial (mix of human skin and animal oral microbiota, and environmental organisms)

## Wounds

## Most cases:

- · Streptococcus spp.
- · Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)

## More rarely:

- Anaerobes
- Enterobacterales
- · Enterococcus spp.
- · Clostridium tetani (soil contaminant)

## Bites

## Human:

- Anaerobes
- Streptococcus spp.
- Staphylococcus aureus

## Dog:

- Anaerobes
- · Capnocytophaga canimorsus
- · Pasteurella multocida
- · Staphylococcus aureus

· Pseudomonas aeruginosa

- Reptile:
- Ánaerobes
- Enterobacterales

## Cat

- Anaerobes
- · Pasteurella multocida
- · Staphylococcus aureus

## Monkey:

- Anaerobes · Streptococcus spp.
- Staphylococcus aureus

## Rodent:

· Pasteurella multocida



Page 2 of 2

# **Treatment**



## **Clinical Considerations**

- · Rapidly after injury: Thorough washing and flushing of the wound (~15 minutes), with soap or detergent and copious amounts of water followed by debridement and immobilization
- · Risk of tetanus and rabies: Quickly evaluate need to provide adequate post-exposure prophylaxis
- Signs/symptoms of infection: Empiric treatment should include antibiotics with good activity against most likely pathogens (Staphylococcus spp. and Streptococcus spp. and anaerobes)
- · Animal/human bites: Empiric treatment against both aerobic and anaerobic bacteria required; empiric treatment against community-acquired MRSA usually not required

## **WHO Guidance**

- · Rabies: https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/272372
- Tetanus: https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/254583



## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Treat for 5 days

## **Prophylactic Antibiotics**

- In the absence of systemic signs of infection avoid antibiotics to prevent infections in otherwise healthy patients
- No clear evidence that antibiotics can prevent the infection
- · Consider in selected cases (e.g. severely immunocompromised patients) and/or high-risk clinical areas (face, hands, near joints)
- Duration: 3 days

## **Bite-related wounds**

## Only infected wounds should be treated

All dosages are for normal renal function



Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 500 mg+125 mg a8h ORAL

Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid is the preferred treatment option for bite wound infections because of its activity against anaerobic bacteria.

## Not bite-related wounds

## Only infected wounds should be treated

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated

 Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 500 mg+125 mg a8h ORAL

- OR

Cefalexin 500 mg q8h ORAL



Cloxacillin 500 mg q6h ORAL

Cloxacillin and cefalexin have a narrower spectrum of antibacterial activity compared to amoxicillin+clavulanic acid with good efficacy in other cases of mild skin and soft tissue infections. Therefore, from an antibiotic stewardship perspective, these would be the preferred options whenever possible (except for bite wounds)

If cloxacillin is unavailable, dicloxacillin or flucloxacillin could be used



Page 1 of 2

This guidance excludes severe infections, surgical wounds and management of bites from arthropods and poisonous animals



## Definition

Any traumatic skin injury characterized by damage and exposure of deeper skin tissue



## Diagnosis



## Clinical Presentation

Infection may or may not be present at time of clinical evaluation

- · Superficial infections: Symptoms of cellulitis (redness, swelling, warmth, lymphangitis, pain around wound)
- Invasive wound infection: Change in wound colour, signs of sepsis (should be carefully monitored)



## **Laboratory Tests**

Routine testing not needed in mild cases with no signs of systemic infection



## **Imaging**

Routine imaging not necessary

· May be considered in selected cases based on extent and depth of lesion

## **Most Likely Pathogens**

Infection commonly polymicrobial (mix of human skin and animal oral microbiota, and environmental organisms)

## Wounds

## Most cases:

- · Streptococcus spp.
- Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA strains)

## More rarely:

- Anaerobes
- Enterobacterales
- · Enterococcus spp.
- · Clostridium tetani (soil contaminant)

## Bites

## Human:

- Anaerobes
- Streptococcus spp.
- Staphylococcus aureus

## Dog:

- Anaerobes
- · Capnocytophaga canimorsus
- · Pasteurella multocida
- · Staphylococcus aureus

## Reptile:

- Ánaerobes
- Enterobacterales · Pseudomonas aeruginosa

## Cat

- Anaerobes
- · Pasteurella multocida
- · Staphylococcus aureus

## Monkey:

- Anaerobes · Streptococcus spp.
- Staphylococcus aureus

## Rodent:

· Pasteurella multocida



Page 2 of 2

# **Treatment**

## **Clinical Considerations**

- · Rapidly after injury: Thorough washing and flushing of the wound (~15 minutes), with soap or detergent and copious amounts of water followed by debridement and immobilization
- · Risk of tetanus and rabies: Quickly evaluate need to provide adequate post-exposure prophylaxis
- · Signs/symptoms of infection: Empiric treatment should include antibiotics with good activity against most likely pathogens (Staphylococcus spp. and Streptococcus spp. and anaerobes)
- · Animal/human bites: Empiric treatment against both aerobic and anaerobic bacteria required; empiric treatment against community-acquired MRSA usually not required

## **WHO Guidance**

- Rabies: https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/272372
- Tetanus: https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/254583

## **Prophylactic Antibiotics**

- In the absence of systemic signs of infection avoid antibiotics to prevent infections in otherwise healthy patients
- · No clear evidence that antibiotics can prevent the infection
- · Consider in selected cases (e.g. severely immunocompromised patients) and/or high-risk clinical areas (face, hands, near joints)
- Duration: 3 days

# Bite-related wounds

## Only infected wounds should be treated

All dosages are for normal renal function



 Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 80-90 mg/kg/day of amoxicillin component ORAL

## · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	250 mg of amox/dose q12h
6-<10 kg	375 mg of amox/dose q12h
10-<15 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q12h
15-<20 kg	750 mg of amox/dose q12h
≥20 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q8h or 1 g of amox/dose q12h

Amox = amoxicillin

Oral liquid must be refrigerated after reconstitution Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid is the preferred treatment option for bite wound infections because of its activity against anaerobic bacteria.



## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Treat for 5 days

## Not bite-related wounds

## Only infected wounds should be treated

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated



Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 80-90 mg/kg/day of amoxicillin component ORAL

· Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	250 mg of amox/dose q12h
6-<10 kg	375 mg of amox/dose q12h
10-<15 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q12h
15-<20 kg	750 mg of amox/dose q12h
≥20 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q8h or 1 g of amox/dose q12h

Amox = amoxicillin

Oral liquid must be refrigerated after reconstitution

OR.

## Cefalexin 25 mg/kg/dose g12h ORAL

· Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	125 mg q12h
6-<10 kg	250 mg q12h
10-<15 kg	375 mg q12h
15-<20 kg	500 mg q12h
20-<30 kg	625 mg q12h
≥30 kg	500 mg q8h

OR-



## Cloxacillin15 mg/kg/dose q6h ORAL

· Oral weight bands:

_	
3-<6 kg	62.5 mg q6h
6-<10 kg	125 mg q6h
10-<15 kg	250 mg q6h
15-<20 kg	375 mg q6h
≥20 kg	500 mg q6h

Cloxacillin and cefalexin have a narrower spectrum of antibacterial activity compared to amoxicillin+clavulanic acid with good efficacy in other cases of mild skin and soft tissue infections. Therefore, from an antibiotic stewardship perspective, these would be the preferred options whenever possible (except for bite wounds)

. If cloxacillin is unavailable, dicloxacillin or flucloxacillin could be used



# **Chlamydial urogenital infection**

Sexually transmitted infection • Page 1 of 2

In general this guidance applies to adults and young people aged over 12 years. In children, specialist advice should be sought where possible. Consideration should be given that an STI in a child may be due to child sexual abuse

For Chlamydial ocular infections (Trachoma) see separate infographic



## **Definition**

**Pathogen** 

A sexually transmitted infection (STI) caused by certain strains of the bacterium Chlamydia trachomatis

Chlamydia trachomatis is an intracellular Gram-negative bacterium;



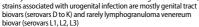
## Prevention

Important elements of prevention include:

- · Sexuality education
- · Promoting consistent use of condoms
- · Pre- and post-test counselling
- · Safe sex and risk reduction counselling
- · Interventions targeting high-risk groups

## Important:

- · Sexual partners should be informed of the disease and
- · Reporting of this infection to health authorities is encouraged according to local regulations



# Diagnosis



## **Clinical Presentation**

- · Most persons remain asymptomatic though they can still transmit the infection
- If symptoms occur they overlap with those of gonococcal infection (co-infection possible and common)

## Most common symptoms:

- . In men: acute urethritis with "clear" urethral discharge and dysuria
- · In women: vaginal discharge, dyspareunia (painful intercourse), and dysuria
- · Additionally in both sexes:
- Symptoms of acute proctitis with pain, pruritus, anal discharge and bleeding
- · Symptoms of lymphogranuloma venereum (men>women):
- Ulcerative lesion or a papule usually on the genitalia or rectum and inquinal or femoral lymphadenopathy (usually unilateral)
- Often the lesion remains unnoticed in women or when located in the rectum



## **Microbiology Tests**

- See WHO guidance "Laboratory diagnosis of sexually transmitted infections"
- https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/85343
- Important: all patients with suspected chlamydial urogenital infection should also be tested for gonococcal infection (as symptoms overlap) and other STIs (e.g. HIV, syphilis)

## Reference standard:

- · Nucleic acid amplification test (a test for both Chlamydia and Neisseria gonorrhoeae is available)
- Samples that can be used: urine (lower sensitivity and specificity in women), urethral, vulvovaginal,
- endocervical or anorectal samples collected with a swab
- Perform Chlamydia genovar testing for lymphogranuloma venereum in anorectal samples of men who have sex with men

## Other tests to consider:

- · Microscopy (Gram stain)
- In a symptomatic patient, it can be used to exclude Neisseria gonorrhoeae (therefore suggesting nongonococcal urethritis)
- Leukocytes are usually present but not a specific finding for chlamydial infection
- Culture: if symptoms persist despite adequate treatment (but it is rarely performed)
- · Note: urines are not good specimens for microscopy and



## Imaging

Usually not needed



## **Other Laboratory Tests**

Usually not needed



# **Chlamydial urogenital infection**



## **Treatment**

## **Clinical Considerations**

Treatment is aligned with the WHO 2016 guidelines for chlamydial urogenital infections (https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/246165) and the WHO 2021 guidelines for the management of symptomatic sexually transmitted infections

(https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/342523) but only options listed in the 2021 EML are reported

Treatment is always indicated when infection is diagnosed, including in asymptomatic persons because they can transmit the infection to others

## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Since treatment duration varies according to the antibiotic used, please refer to the corresponding antibiotic section for treatment duration

## Lymphogranuloma Venereum

All dosages are for normal renal function

Doxycycline 100 mg q12h ORAL Treatment duration: 21 days

# **Uncomplicated Urogenital Infection**

All dosages are for normal renal function

Doxycycline 100 mg q12h ORAL Treatment duration: 7 days

Azithromycin 1 g ORAL Treatment duration: single dose

Recent data suggest that doxycycline is more effective than azithromycin, therefore it could be given priority if adherence is not a concern (except in pregnant women where it is contraindicated)

## **Anorectal Infection**

All dosages are for normal renal function

Doxycycline 100 mg q12h ORAL Treatment duration: 7 days

# Infection in Pregnant Women

All dosages are for normal renal function

Azithromycin 1 g ORAL Treatment duration: single dose



# **Gonococcal infection**

Sexually transmitted infection • Page 1 of 3

In general this guidance applies to adults and young people aged over 12 years. In children, specialist advice should be sought where possible. Consideration should be given that an STI in a child may be due to child sexual abuse



## **Definition**

A sexually transmitted infection (STI) caused by the bacterium Neisseria gonorrhoeae



## Pathogen

- Neisseria gonorrhoeae is a Gram-negative bacterium that can easily develop resistance to antibiotics leading to infections that are difficult to treat, which is an increasing public health problem worldwide
- Data on Neisseria gonorrhoeae resistance is available through GLASS (The WHO Global Antimicrobial Resistance Surveillance System) and GASP (The WHO Gonococcal AMR surveillance program)

https://www.who.int/data/gho/data/themes/topics/whogonococcal-amr-surveillance-programme-who-gasp



## Diagnosis



## **Clinical Presentation**

- Some persons remain asymptomatic (women>men) though they can still transmit the infection
- If symptoms occur they overlap with those of chlamydial infection (co-infection possible and common)

# Most common symptoms (usually occur a few days after infection):

- In men: acute urethritis with profuse mucopurulent urethral discharge and dysuria +/- testicular discomfort
- In women: mucopurulent vaginal discharge and dysuria +/- vaginitis with vaginal pain and inflammation and lower abdominal pain. Cervical discharge, cervical ectopy and friability and easy bleeding on contact may also occur
- · Additionally in both sexes:
- Symptoms of acute proctitis with pain, pruritus, anal discharge and bleeding
- Pharyngitis and conjunctivitis are other possible presentations
- Rarely infection can disseminate, typically leading to localized infection in one or more joints
- In preanant women:
- Infection can transmit to the child during vaginal delivery
- · In newborns:
- Acute ocular infection and pharyngitis can occur a few days after birth
- Disseminated infection with septic arthritis (usually in multiple joints) may also occur

## <u>C</u>

## Microbiology Tests

- See WHO guidance "Laboratory diagnosis of sexually transmitted infections"
- https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/85343
- Important: all patients with suspected gonococcal infection should also be tested for chlamydial urogenital infection (as symptoms overlap) and other STIs (e.g. HIV, syphilis)

## Reference standard:

- Nucleic acid amplification test (a test for both *N. gonorrhoeae* and *Chlamydia* is available)
  - Samples that can be used: urine (lower sensitivity and specificity in women), urethral, vulvovaginal, endocervical or anorectal samples collected with a swab

## Other tests to consider:

- Culture + antimicrobial susceptibility testing: If symptoms persist despite adequate treatment and for surveillance of *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* resistance
- · Microscopy (Gram stain)
- Samples that can be used: urethral, endocervical, conjunctival samples collected with a swab
- · Blood cultures: If disseminated infection is suspected



## **Other Laboratory Tests**

Usually not needed



## Imaging

Usually not needed



# **Gonococcal infection**

Sexually transmitted infection • Page 2 of 3



## **Prevention**

Important elements of prevention include:

- · Sexuality education
- Promoting consistent use of condoms
- · Pre- and post-test counselling
- · Safe sex and risk reduction counselling
- · Interventions targeting high-risk groups

## Important:

- Sexual partners should be informed of the disease and treated
- Reporting of this infection to health authorities is encouraged according to local regulations



## Treatment (Section 1 of 2)



## **Treatment Recommendations**

- Treatment is aligned with the WHO 2016 guidelines for the treatment of gonococcal infection (https://apps.who.int/ins/handle/10665/246114) and the WHO 2021 guidelines for the management of symptomatic sexually transmitted infections (https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/34252) but only options listed in the 2021 EML are reported
- WHO is in the process of revising current treatment recommendations and dosages, please check the WHO website regularly for possible updates

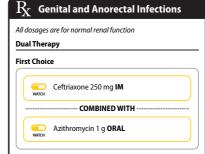
## Clinical Considerations

- Treatment is always indicated when infection is diagnosed, including in asymptomatic patients because they can transmit the infection to others
- Local resistance data should determine the most appropriate therapy and if data not available, dual therapy is preferred
- If symptoms do not resolve in approximately 5 days, resistant infection or alternative diagnosis should be suspected



## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Single Dose



## **Second Choice**



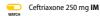
## Single Therapy

Only use single therapy if local resistance data confirm susceptibility to the antibiotic

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated



- OR -



A single dose of 500 mg or 1 g ceftriaxone IM is recommended in some international guidelines

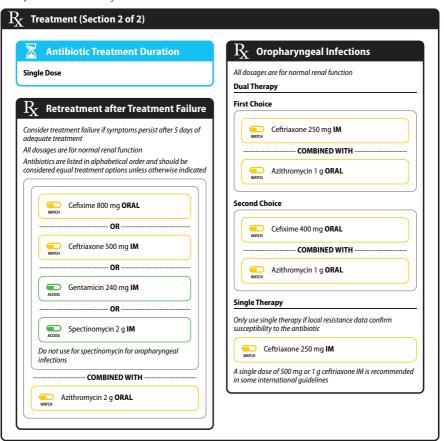
Spectinomycin 2 g IM





# **Gonococcal infection**

Sexually transmitted infection • Page 3 of 3





# **Syphilis**

Sexually transmitted infection • Page 1 of 2

In general this guidance applies to adults and young people aged over 12 years. In children, specialist advice should be sought where possible. Consideration should be given that an STI in a child may be due to child sexual abuse



## **Pathogen**

Treponema pallidum subspecies pallidum is a bacterium of the phylum Spirochaetes

· Slow growing, difficult to culture in vitro, thin



## Definition

- · A sexually transmitted infection (STI) caused by the bacterium Treponema pallidum subspecies pallidum
- The infection can be transmitted from the mother to her fetus because the pathogen can cross the placenta

## Classification based on:

- Timing since acquisition
- Early: ≤2 years (includes primary and secondary infections and the early latent phase)
- -Late: >2 years (includes the late latent phase and tertiary infections)
- Clinical presentation (see below)



## Diagnosis



## **Clinical Presentation**

## Early syphilis:

- · Primary infection: Often asymptomatic, localized non painful ulcerative lesion with indurated margins (usually on genitalia, mouth or rectum) +/- local lymphadenopathy
- · Secondary infection:
- Skin and mucosal manifestations over trunk and extremities including palms of hands and soles of feet
- Rash is commonly maculopapular and non-irritant
- Mucous membranes of mouth/perineum can show lesions
- Fever (≥ 38.0 °C), generalized lymphadenopathy and malaise usually present
- Meningitis, hepatitis and ocular involvement can occur

## Late syphilis:

- · Tertiary infection: Can affect different organ systems
- Cardiovascular system: usually aortitis
- Skin/soft tissues/bones: nodular lesions (gummas)
- Central nervous system: often progressive dementia, psychiatric symptoms, problems with coordination of movements



## **Other Laboratory Tests**

Primary syphilis: Usually not needed

Secondary or tertiary syphilis: May be required depending on the clinical presentation



## **Microbiology Tests**

- · See WHO guidance "Laboratory diagnosis of sexually transmitted infections"
- https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/85343
- Important: all patients with suspected syphilis should also be tested for other STIs (e.g. HIV, gonococcal infection)

## Direct detection methods:

 Can detect the pathogen in specimens from skin or tissue lesions

## Serological tests:

- · Treponemal tests: detect antibodies to treponemal antigens; they usually remain positive after infection even with successful treatment
- Type of tests: FTA-ABS, TPPA, TPHA
- Nontreponemal tests: detect antibodies that react to lipids released in response to cellular damage caused by infection; usually become negative with successful treatment
- Type of tests: VDRL, RPR
- · All tests are negative initially in primary infection
- · Both treponemal and non-treponemal tests need to be positive to confirm the diagnosis
- To increase access and same-day treatment, a rapid treponemal test followed (if positive) by a nontreponemal test is recommended; but starting with a non-treponemal test and confirming positive results with a treponemal test is also appropriate



## Imaging

Usually not needed unless a complication of late syphilis is suspected



# **Syphilis**

Sexually transmitted infection • Page 2 of 2



## Prevention

Important elements of prevention include:

- · Sexuality education
- · Promoting consistent use of condoms
- · Pre- and post-test counselling
- · Safe sex and risk reduction counselling
- · Interventions targeting high risk groups
- Access of pregnant women to early and adequate prenatal care to prevent congenital syphilis

## Important:

- Sexual partners should be informed of the disease and treated
- Reporting of this infection to health authorities is encouraged according to local regulations

# 

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## **Clinical Considerations**

Treatment is aligned with the WHO 2016 guidelines for the treatment of *Treponema pallidum* (https://apps.who.int/iiis/handle/10665/249572) and the WHO 2021 guidelines for the management of symptomatic sexually transmitted infections (https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/342523) but only options listed in the 2021 EML are reported below

- Treatment is always indicated when infection is diagnosed, including in asymptomatic patients because they can transmit the infection to others
- In early syphilis (primary/secondary), partners should also be treated if exposed within 90 days
- Assess serological response by repeating non-treponemal test to detect a reduction in titer; a 4-fold reduction in titers confirms adequate response (repeat 3, 6 and 12 months after the end of treatment)



## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Since treatment duration varies according to the antibiotic used and the stage of the infection, please refer to the corresponding antibiotic section for treatment duration

## R Neurosyphilis

All dosages are for normal renal function

ACCESS

Benzylpenicillin 2-4 million IU (1.2-2.4 g) q4h **IV Treatment duration**: 14 days

OR-

ACCESS

Procaine benzylpenicillin 1.2 million IU (1.2 g) q24h **IM** 

Treatment duration: 14 days

----- COMBINED WITH

Probenecid 500 mg q6h ORAL Treatment duration: 14 days

## $m R_{\!\! K}$ Early Syphilis

All dosages are for normal renal function

## First Choice

Benzathine benzylpenicillin 2.4 million IU (≈ 1.8 g) **IM** 

Treatment duration: single dose

## Second Choice



Procaine benzylpenicillin 1.2 million IU (1.2 g) q24h **IM** 

Treatment duration: 10-14 days

# ${ m R}_{\!\! { m X}}$ Syphilis in Pregnancy

All dosages are for normal renal function



Benzathine benzylpenicillin 2.4 million IU (≈ 1.8 g) **IM** 

## Treatment duration:

- Early Syphilis: Single dose
- Laté or Unknown Stage Syphilis: One dose per week for 3 consecutive weeks (total of 3 administrations, the interval between doses should not exceed 14 days)

## ${ m R}_{\!\! { m K}}$ Late or Unknown Stage Syphilis

All dosages are for normal renal function

## First Choice



Benzathine benzylpenicillin 2.4 million IU ( $\approx$  1.8 q) **IM** 

**Treatment duration:** One dose per week for 3 consecutive weeks (total of 3 administrations, the interval between doses should not exceed 14 days)

## **Second Choice**



Procaine benzylpenicillin 1.2 million IU (1.2 g) q24h **IM** 

Treatment duration: 20 days



## **Trichomoniasis**

Sexually transmitted infection

In general this guidance applies to adults and young people aged over 12 years. In children, specialist advice should be sought where possible. Consideration should be given that an STI in a child may be due to child sexual abuse

## Definition

A sexually transmitted infection (STI) caused by Trichomonas vaginalis

## **Diagnosis**

## Clinical Presentation

· Most persons have mild symptoms or remain asymptomatic (especially men) though they can still transmit the infection

## Symptomatic infection:

- In women: acute onset of vaginal inflammation and discharge (frothy and with a bad smell), dysuria and pelvic pain
- In men: urethral discharge, dysuria and testicular discomfort or pain; rarely epididymitis and prostatitis can be present

## **Microbiology Tests**

- See WHO guidance "Laboratory diagnosis of sexually transmitted infections"
- https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/85343
- · Important: all patients with suspected trichomoniasis should also be tested for other STIs (e.g. HIV, syphilis, gonococcal infection)

## Tests to consider:

- · Wet mount microscopy (easy and inexpensive but should be read within 10 minutes of sample collection)
- Nucleic acid amplification tests for T. vaginalis (very good sensitivity; preferred if available)
- · Culture (good sensitivity but requires long incubation)
- · Samples that can be used: Urethral, endocervical, and vaginal swabs



## **Other Laboratory Tests**

Usually not needed



## Imaging

Usually not needed



## **Pathogen**

Trichomonas vaginalis is an anaerobe flagellated protozoan



## Prevention

Important elements of prevention include:

- · Sexuality education
- · Promoting consistent use of condoms
- Pre- and post-test counselling
- · Safe sex and risk reduction counselling
- · Interventions targeting high-risk groups

## Important:

- · Sexual partners should be informed of the disease and
- · Reporting of this infection to health authorities is encouraged according to local regulations



## **Treatment**



## **Clinical Considerations**

Treatment is aligned with the WHO 2021 guidelines for the management of symptomatic sexually transmitted infections (https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/342523)

Treatment is always indicated when infection is diagnosed, including in asymptomatic persons because they can transmit the infection to others

## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Since treatment duration varies, please refer to the corresponding antibiotic section for treatment duration

• Evidence supports better cure rates with 7-day course (consider if treatment adherence is not an issue)

## **Antibiotic Treatment**

All dosages are for normal renal function



Metronidazole 2 g ORAL Treatment duration: single dose





Metronidazole 400 or 500 mg g12h ORAL

Treatment duration: 7 days



Urinary tract infection • Page 1 of 2



## Definition

- Infection of the lower part of the urinary tract (e.g. the bladdercystitis)
- Urinary tract infections (UTI) in individuals with structural anomalies of the urinary tract or who are immunocompromised and in pregnant women are generally considered at greater risk of complicated evolution (complicated UTI)



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

#### Bacteria:

#### Most common

- Enterobacterales (mostly *Escherichia coli* including multidrugresistant strains such as those producing ESBL)

#### More rarely

- Coagulase-negative Staphylococci: S. saprophyticus (mostly in young women)
- Streptococcus agalactiae (group B Streptococcus)
- Enterococcus spp.
- Pseudomonas aeruginosa or Acinetobacter baumannii (including multidrug-resistant strains such as those producing ESBL especially in patients with recent antibiotic exposure)

# 🖒 Diagnosis



### Clinical Presentation

Acute (< 1 week) dysuria, increased urinary urgency and frequency, lower abdominal pain or discomfort and sometimes gross hematuria

- In women, a vaginal source of the symptoms (vaginal discharge or irritation) should be excluded first
- In elderly patients with pre-existing urinary symptoms the most reliable symptoms of infection are acute urinary changes compared to the baseline

# Ò

## Microbiology Tests

In symptomatic patients:

• Urine culture if risk of complicated UTI and/or recurrent UTI (to confirm the diagnosis and adapt empiric treatment)

#### Important:

- A positive urine culture in an asymptomatic patient indicates bacterial colonization and does not require treatment except in pregnant women or in patients undergoing urological procedures in which bleeding is anticipated
- The absence of urine leucocytes has a good negative predictive value but the positive predictive value of leucocyturia is suboptimal



# **Other Laboratory Tests**

In symptomatic patients:

- Urinalysis (dipstick or microscopy) to detect bacteriuria and/or indirect signs of infection (positive leucocyte esterase and nitrites)
- · Blood tests usually not needed



# **Imaging**

Usually not needed unless need to investigate possible underlying abnormalities of the urinary tract



Urinary tract infection • Page 2 of 2

# Treatment



# **Clinical Considerations**

Antibiotic treatment recommended if compatible clinical presentation AND a positive test (positive urine leucocytes/leucocyte esterase or positive urine culture)

- · If tests could not be performed, treat based on clinical presentation
- · Clinical improvement should be evident within 48-72h
- Antibiotics shorten duration of symptoms by 1-2 days



## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Duration varies according to the antibiotic used - see corresponding antibiotic section

Note: in general consider longer treatments for preanant women (usually 5 days) and men (usually 7 days)

# **Antibiotic Treatment**

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated



Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 500 mg+125 mg a8h ORAL

Treatment duration: 3-5 days

Active against some ESBL-producing isolates

- Nitrofurantoin ORAL
- 100 mg q12h (modified release formulation) • 50 mg q6h (immediate release formulation)
- Treatment duration: 5 days

Nitrofurantoin is the preferred treatment option for acute lower UTI and is active against most ESBL-producing isolates

Sulfamethoxazole+trimethoprim 800 mg+160 mg q12h ORAL Treatment duration: 3 days

Resistance is high in many settings and NOT active against most ESBL-producing isolates



Trimethoprim 200 mg q12h ORAL ACCESS Treatment duration: 3 days

Resistance is high in many settings and NOT active against most ESBL-producing isolates



Urinary tract infection • Page 1 of 2



## Definition

- Infection of the lower part of the urinary tract (e.g. the bladdercystitis)
- Urinary tract infections (UTI) in children with structural anomalies of the urinary tract (e.g. vesicoureteral reflux or other congenital anomalies) or who are immunocompromised are generally considered at greater risk of complicated evolution (complicated UTI)



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

#### Bacteria:

- Most common
- Enterobacterales (mostly *Escherichia coli* including multidrugresistant strains such as those producing ESBL)

#### More rarely

- Streptococcus agalactiae (group B Streptococcus)
- Enterococcus spp.
- Pseudomona aeruginosa or Acinetobacter baumannii (including multidrug-resistant strains such as those producing ESBL especially in patients with recent antibiotic exposure)

# Diagnosis



#### Clinical Presentation

- Acute (< 1 week) dysuria, increased urinary urgency and frequency, incontinence/wetting, lower abdominal pain or discomfort and sometimes hematuria
- · Generally no systemic signs/symptoms (e.g. fever)
- In girls, a vaginal source of the symptoms (vaginal discharge or irritation) should be excluded first



## **Microbiology Tests**

In symptomatic patients:

• Urine culture (always in children) to confirm the diagnosis and adapt empiric treatment

## Important:

- A positive urine culture in an asymptomatic patient indicates bacterial colonization and does not require treatment except in patients undergoing urological procedures in which bleeding is anticipated
- The absence of urine leucocytes has a good negative predictive value but the positive predictive value of leucocyturia is suboptimal

# 100

# **Other Laboratory Tests**

In symptomatic patients:

- Urinalysis (dipstick or microscopy) to detect bacteriuria and/or indirect signs of infection (positive leucocyte esterase and nitrites)
- · Blood tests usually not needed



# **Imaging**

Usually not needed unless need to investigate possible underlying abnormalities of the urinary tract



Urinary tract infection • Page 2 of 2

# 



## **Clinical Considerations**

Antibiotic treatment recommended if compatible clinical presentation AND a positive test (positive urine leucocytes/leucocyte esterase or positive urine culture)

- If tests could not be performed, treat based on clinical presentation
- · Clinical improvement should be evident within 48-72h
- Antibiotics shorten duration of symptoms by ~2 days



# **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Duration varies according to the antibiotic used - see corresponding antibiotic section

# 

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated



Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 80-90 mg/kg/day of amoxicillin component **ORAL**• Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	250 mg of amox/dose q12h
6-<10 kg	375 mg of amox/dose q12h
10-<15 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q12h
15-<20 kg	750 mg of amox/dose q12h
≥20 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q8h or 1 g of amox/dose q12h

Treatment duration: 3-5 days

Amox = amoxicillin

Active against some ESBL-producing isolates Must refrigerate oral liquid after reconstitution





Nitrofurantoin 2 mg/kg/dose q12h OR 1 mg/kg/dose q6h (immediate-release formulation)
ORAL

Treatment duration: 5 days

Nitrofurantoin is the preferred treatment option for acute lower UTI and is active against most ESBL-producing isolates

#### - OR -



Sulfamethoxazole+trimethoprim 20 mg/kg + 4 mg/kg q12h **ORAL** 

• Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	100 mg+20 mg q12h
6-<10 kg	200 mg+40 mg q12h
10-<30 kg	400 mg+80 mg q12h
≥30 kg	800 mg+160 mg q12h

Treatment duration: 3 days

Resistance is high in many settings and NOT active against most ESBL-producing isolates

#### OR



Trimethoprim 4 mg/kg q12h ORAL

Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	20 mg q12h
6-<10 kg	40 mg q12h
10-<30 kg	80 mg q12h
>30 ka	200 mg g12h

Treatment duration: 3 days

Resistance is high in many settings and NOT active against most ESBL-producing isolates



HOSPITAL FACILITY



Page 1 of 4



## **Definition**

#### Sepsis (Sepsis 3):

· A life-threatening organ dysfunction caused by a dysregulated host response to infection

#### Sentic Shock

- A type of sepsis in which underlying circulatory and cellular and/or metabolic abnormalities substantially increase short-
- Patients have persistent hypotension and require vasopressors to maintain a mean arterial pressure ≥65 mmHg (8.7 kPa) and present with a level of serum lactate >2 mmol/L (>18 mg/dL) in the absence of hypovolemia

Important: bacteraemia is not part of the definition of sepsis, while many patients with sepsis have bacteraemia, most patients with bacteraemia do not fulfill sepsis criteria



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

- · Sepsis can originate from any type of infection in any organ system. Bacteria, viruses, fungi and protozoa can all cause sepsis (but only sepsis of bacterial origin is addressed here)
- · Consider pathogens other than bacteria based on local epidemiology (e.g. malaria, viral haemorrhagic fevers, influenza, COVID-19)

#### Community Setting (in alphabetical order):

- Enterobacterales
- Escherichia coli, Klebsiella pneumoniae and others
- Invasive non-typhoidal Salmonella (elderly patients and patients with HIV)
- Salmonella Typhi and Paratyphi (causing enteric fever)
- · Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)
- · S. pyogenes (group A Streptococcus)
- · S. pneumoniae (including penicillin non-susceptible strains)

#### Others to consider:

- · Burkholderia pseudomallei (pathogen causing melioidosis, endemic in South-East Asia and Australia)
- Neisseria meningitidis

### Hospital Setting (in alphabetical order):

- · Acinetobacter baumannii\*
- Enterobacterales\* (Escherichia coli, Klebsiella pneumoniae and others)
- · Pseudomonas aeuroginosa\*
- · Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)
- \*Including multidrug-resistant strains such as those producing ESBL and carbapenemases

### Maternal Sepsis:

· Consider Listeria monocytogenes and Streptococcus agalactiae, however the urinary tract represents main source of infection

# **Diagnosis**

## **Clinical Presentation**

- Early recognition of the source of infection and treatment is fundamental and impacts mortality
- · Symptoms are highly variable and mostly non-specific
- Patients often present with fever (≥ 38.0 °C) or hypothermia (< 36.0 °C); tachycardia, respiratory distress, acute altered mental status and hypotension. Reduced urine output may be present

#### Important:

- Accurate identification of patients with sepsis is difficult and no single reference standard test exists
- Adoption and use of the internationally accepted definitions is critical to avoid overdiagnosis and overtreatment
- · While it is important to rapidly treat patients with sepsis and septic shock with antibiotics it should be kept in mind that only a very small proportion of patients with an infection have sepsis



## **Microbiology Tests**

- · Guided by the suspected primary site of infection but should always include blood cultures (ideally two sets)
- Tests should ideally be performed before initiating antibiotics



# **Other Laboratory Tests**

### To Identify a Bacterial Infection:

- · White blood count, CRP and/or procalcitonin
- In initial patient assessment, inflammatory markers in the normal range do not rule out sepsis if high pre-test probability

#### To Identify Organ Dysfunction:

- · Bilirubin, blood pH and gases, blood urea nitrogen (required for CURB-65 score calculation if suspected pneumonia), complete blood count with platelets. creatinine, electrolytes, glucose, whole blood lactate
- Tests in bold are required for SOFA score calculation



## Imaging

Guided by the suspected primary site of infection



### Prevention

- Preventing infections includes vaccinations, adequate nutrition, and access to safe water and sanitation
- · Preventing evolution of infection to sepsis relies on timely diagnosis and adequate treatment of the underlying infection



Page 2 of 4

# ☐ Organ Dysfunction Assessment Scores

# Sequential Organ Failure Assessment (SOFA)

	Score				
Parameter	0	1	2	3	4
PaO₂/FiO₂, mmHg (kPa)	≥ 400 (53.3)	300 - 399 (40.0 - 53.2)	200 - 299 (26.7 - 39.9)	100 - 199 (13.3 - 26.6)	< 100 (13.3)
MAP mmHg (kPa) and catecholamine doses needed (μg/kg/min for ≥ 1h)	MAP ≥ 70 (9.3)	MAP < 70 (9.3)	Dopamine < 5 OR dobutamine any dose	Dopamine 5.1–15 OR epinephrine (adrenaline)/ norepinephrine ≤ 0.1	Dopamine > 15 OR epinephrine/ norepinephrine > 0.1
Platelets (x 10 <sup>3</sup> /μL, x 10 <sup>9</sup> /L)	≥ 150	100 - 149	50 - 99	20 - 49	< 20
Bilirubin mg/dL (μmol/L)	< 1.2 (20)	1.2 - 1.9 (20 - 32)	2.0 - 5.9 (33-101)	6.0 - 11.9 (102 - 204)	> 12.0 (204)
Glasgow coma scale	15	13 - 14	10 - 12	6-9	< 6
Creatinine mg/dL (µmol/L)	< 1.2 (110)	1.2 - 1.9 (110 - 170)	2.0 - 3.4 (171 - 299)	3.5 - 4.9 (300-440)	> 5.0 (440)
Urine output (mL/day)				< 500	< 200

Definitions: FiO<sub>2</sub>: fractional inspired oxygen; PaO<sub>2</sub>: arterial oxygen partial pressure; MAP: mean arterial pressure

# **建 Quick SOFA (gSOFA**

Parameter	Value
Respiratory Rate	≥ 22 breaths/min
Altered Mental Status	Glasgow Coma Scale < 15
Systolic Blood Pressure	≤ 100 mmHg

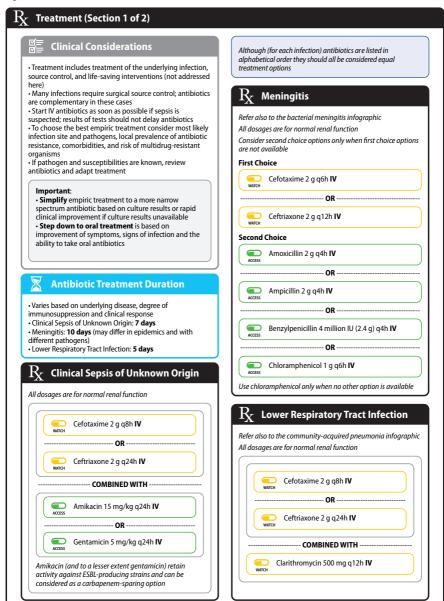
# Interpretation

An acute change of  $\geq$  2 points from the baseline score suggests organ dysfunction due to infection

These scores have not been extensively validated for use in lowand middle-income settings

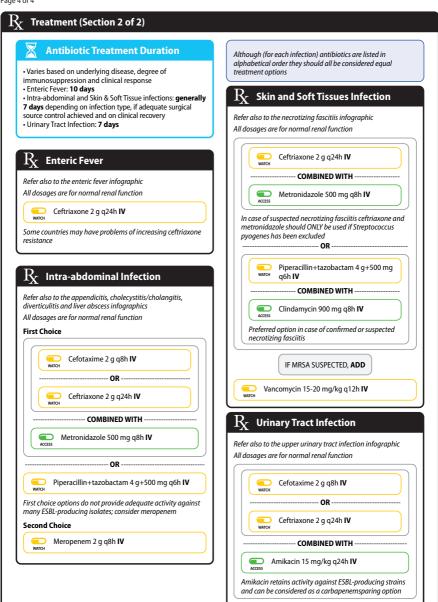


Page 3 of 4





Page 4 of 4





# Sepsis in children

Page 1 of 3

This guideline is intended for children over the age of 1 month up to 12 years. For children 0-1 month see sepsis in neonates



## Definition

- International Pediatric Sepsis Consensus Conference: Suspected or proven infection caused by any pathogen or clinical syndrome associated with a high probability of infection AND systemic inflammatory response syndrome
- Children < 5 years of age can be classified as having "Possible</li> Serious Bacterial Infection" (PSBI) when at least one of the following signs is present:
- Not able to feed since birth or stopped feeding well (confirmed by observation)
- Convulsions
- Fast breathing (≥ 60 breaths per minute)
- Severe chest indrawing
- Fever (≥ 38.0 °C)
- Low body temperature (< 35.5 °C)

Important: bacteraemia is not part of the definition of sepsis, while many patients with sepsis have bacteraemia, most patients with bacteraemia do not fulfill sepsis criteria



## **Prevention**

### Preventing infections includes:

- Vaccinations
- · Adequate nutrition
- · Healthy living environments (e.g. access to safe water and

# Preventing evolution of infection to sepsis relies on:

- Timely diagnosis
- · Adequate treatment of the underlying infection



# Diagnosis

## **Clinical Presentation**

- · Usually signs and symptoms are non-specific
- Fever (≥ 38.0 °C), respiratory symptoms, tachycardia, acute altered mental status, hypotension, vomiting



## **Microbiology Tests**

· Diagnostic tests will be different depending on the suspected source of infection

- · Ideally perform tests before initiating antibiotics; tests should not cause a major delay to the start of antibiotic
- · Tests for suspected sepsis would normally include blood, urine and CSF culture



# **Other Laboratory Tests**

### To Identify a Bacterial Infection:

- · White blood count
- · C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin

# To Identify Organ Dysfunction:

- · Complete blood count with platelets . Riliruhin
- · Blood pH and gases
- · Blood urea nitrogen
- · Creatinine
- · Electrolytes Glucose
- · Whole blood lactate

Tests in bold are required for pSOFA score calculation



# Imaging

Guided by the suspected primary site of infection



# Sepsis in children

Page 2 of 3

# Paediatric Sequential Organ Failure Assessment (pSOFA) Score

		Score				
Parameter	Age	0	1	2	3	4
PaO <sub>2</sub> /FiO <sub>2</sub> , mmHg (kPa)	All ages	≥ 400 (53.3)	300 - 399 (40.0 - 53.2)	200 - 299 (26.7 - 39.9)	100 - 199 (13.3 - 26.6) with respiratory support	< 100 (13.3) with respiratory support
Platelets (x 10 <sup>3</sup> /μL, x 10 <sup>9</sup> /L)	All ages	≥ 150	100 - 149	50 - 99	20 - 49	< 20
Bilirubin mg/dL (μmol/L)	All ages	< 1.2 (20)	1.2 - 1.9 (20 - 32)	2.0 - 5.9 (33 - 101)	6.0 - 11.9 (102 - 204)	> 12.0 (204)
Glasgow coma scale	All ages	15	13 - 14	10 - 12	6 - 9	< 6
MAP mmHg (kPa) and	<1 mo	≥ 46 (6.1)	< 46 (6.1)	Dopamine < 5	Dopamine 5.1–15	Dopamine > 15
catecholamine doses needed (µg/kg/min for	1-11 mo	≥ 55 (7.3)	< 55 (7.3)	OR dobutamine	OR	OR epinephrine/ norepinephrine
needed (μg/kg/min for ≥ 1h)	1-2 yrs	≥ 60 (8.0)	< 60 (8.0)	dobutamine epinephrine (adrenaline)/ norepinephrine ≤ 0.1		
,	2-5 yrs	≥ 62 (8.2)	< 62 (8.2)		> 0.1	
	6-11 yrs	≥ 65 (8.6)	< 65 (8.6)		≤ 0.1	
	12-18 yrs	≥ 67 (8.9)	< 67 (8.9)			
Creatinine mg/dL (µmol/L)	<1 mo	< 0.8 (71)	0.8 - 0.9 (71 - 80)	1.0 - 1.1 (88 - 97)	1.2 - 1.5 (110 - 133)	≥ 1.6 (141)
	1-11 mo	< 0.3 (26)	0.3 - 0.4 (26 - 35)	0.5 - 0.7 (44 - 62)	0.8 - 1.1 (71 - 97)	≥ 1.2 (110)
	1-2 yrs	< 0.4 (35)	0.4 - 0.5 (35 - 44)	0.6 - 1.0 (53 - 88)	1.1 - 1.4 (97 - 124)	≥ 1.5 (133)
	2-5 yrs	< 0.6 (53)	0.6 - 0.8 (53 - 71)	0.9 - 1.5 (79 - 133)	1.6 - 2.2 (141 - 195)	≥ 2.3 (203)
	6-11 yrs	< 0.7 (62)	0.7 - 1.0 (62 - 88)	1.1 - 1.7 (97 - 150)	1.8 - 2.5 (159 - 221)	≥ 2.6 (230)
	12-18 yrs	< 1.0 (88)	1.0 - 1.6 (88 - 141)	1.7 - 2.8 (150 - 247)	2.9 - 4.1 (256 - 362)	≥ 4.2 (371)

Definitions: FiO<sub>2</sub>: fractional inspired oxygen; PaO<sub>2</sub>: arterial oxygen partial pressure; MAP: mean arterial pressure

# **₩** 1

# Bacteria Most Frequently Identified in Blood Cultures in Children with Sepsis

- Sepsis can originate from any type of infection in any organ system; it is most commonly caused by bacteria
- Hospital-acquired infections have a higher risk of being caused by multidrugresistant organisms
- Sepsis related with malaria and viral haemorrhagic fevers should always be considered in endemic settings
- Consider sepsis related with respiratory viruses

	Low and Middle Income Setting	High Income Setting
Community Acquired	Gram-negative bacilli (mostly Escherichia coli, Klebsiella spp.)* Salmonella Typhi and Paratyphi Invasive non-typhoidal Salmonella** Streptococcus pneumoniae Streptococcus pyogenes Staphylococcus aureus Neisseria meningitidis Haemophilus influenzae type b	Streptococcus pneumoniae Streptococcus pyogenes Staphylococcus aureus Neisseria meningitidis Gram-negative bacilli (mostly Escherichia coli, Klebsiella spp.)*
Hospital Acquired	- Klebsiella spp.*  - Escherichia coli*  - Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)  - Other Gram-negative bacteria  - Enterococcus spp.	Klebsiella spp.*     Escherichia coli*     Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)     Other Gram-negative bacteria     Enterococcus spp.

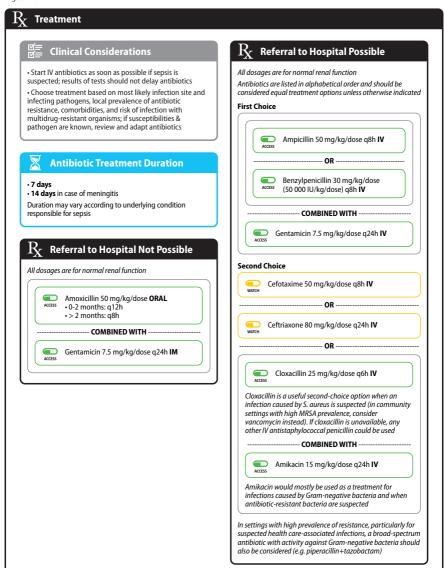
<sup>\*</sup>Including multi-drug resistant strains such as those producing ESBL and carbapenemases

<sup>\*\*</sup>Mostly sub-Saharan Africa, < 5 years with recent malaria, anaemia, malnutrition or HIV



# Sepsis in children

Page 3 of 3





# Sepsis in neonates

Page 1 of 3

This guideline is intended for infants under the age of 1 month



# Definition

A serious systemic condition of infectious origin (usually bacterial) associated with a combination of clinical and laboratory signs that occurs in the first month of life

#### **Commonly Used Classifications:**

- · By timing of clinical onset:
- Early onset sepsis: Occurring ≤ 3 days after birth, often acquired vertically or in peripartum period
- Late onset sepsis: Occurring > 3 days after birth, often hospital acquired
- · By setting of acquisition:
- Community-acquired
- Hospital-acquired

#### **Alternative Definition:**

- A young infant is classified as having "Possible Serious Bacterial Infection" (PSBI) when at least one of the following signs is present:
- Not able to feed since birth or stopped feeding well
- (confirmed by observation)
- Convulsions
- Fast breathing (≥ 60 breaths per minute)
- Severe chest indrawing
- Fever (≥ 38.0 °C)
- Low body temperature (< 35.5 °C)

**Important**: bacteraemia is not part of the definition of sepsis, while many patients with sepsis have bacteraemia, most patients with bacteraemia do not fulfill sepsis criteria



# Prevention

# Preventing infections includes:

- Vaccinations
- Adequate nutrition
- Healthy living environments (e.g. access to safe water and sanitation)

## Preventing evolution of infection to sepsis relies on:

- Timely diagnosis
- · Adequate treatment of the underlying infection

# <u>C</u>

# Diagnosis

# Q

# Clinical Presentation

- · Usually signs and symptoms are non-specific
- Hypothermia (< 35.5 °C) or fever (≥ 38.0 °C), severe chest indrawing, tachycardia, poor feeding, reduced spontaneous movements, hypotension, vomiting
- More rarely irritability, diarrhea, abdominal distention, convulsions



## **Microbiology Tests**

- Diagnostic tests will be different depending on the suspected source of infection
- Ideally perform tests before initiating antibiotics; tests should not cause a major delay to the start of antibiotic treatment
- Tests for suspected sepsis in young infants would normally include blood, urine and culture of the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF)



# Other Laboratory Tests

# To Identify a Bacterial Infection:

· White blood count

· C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin

# To Identify Organ Dysfunction:

- · Complete blood count with platelets
- Bilirubin
- Blood pH and gases
- Blood urea nitrogenCreatinine
- Electrolytes
- Glucose
- · Whole blood lactate



# Imaging

Guided by the suspected primary site of infection



# **Sepsis in neonates**

Page 2 of 3



# Pathogens Most Frequently Identified in Blood Cultures in Neonates with Sepsis

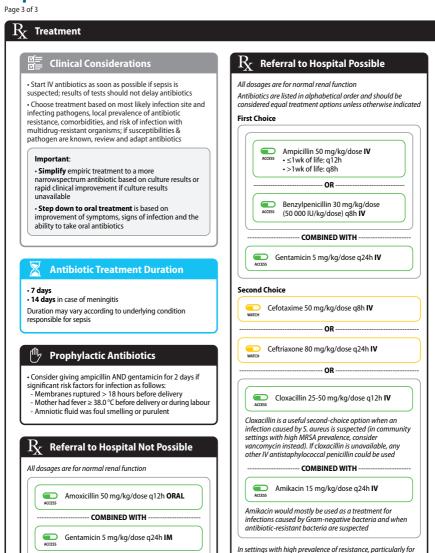
- Sepsis can originate from any type of infection in any organ system; it is most commonly caused by bacteria
- Hospital-acquired infections have a higher risk of being caused by multidrugresistant organisms
- Sepsis related with malaria and viral haemorrhagic fevers should always be considered in endemic settings
- Consider sepsis related with respiratory viruses

	Low and Middle Income Setting	High Income Setting
	• Escherichia coli*	Escherichia coli*
	Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)	Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)
Community	• Klebsiella spp.*	Streptococcus agalactiae
Acquired	More rare	
	Acinetobacter spp.*	
	Streptococcus agalactiae	
	Streptococcus pyogenes	
	Streptococcus pneumoniae	
	• Klebsiella spp.*	• Escherichia coli*
Hospital	• Escherichia coli*	• Klebsiella spp.*
Acquired	Acinetobacter spp.*	Staphylococcus aureus (including
	Staphylococcus aureus (including	MRSA)
	MRSA)	<ul> <li>Other Gram-negative bacteria*</li> </ul>
	Other Gram-negative bacteria*	• Enterococcus spp.
	Enterococcus spp.	

<sup>\*</sup>Including multidrug-resistant strains such as those producing ESBL and carbapenemases



# Sepsis in neonates



suspected health care-associated infections, a broad-spectrum antibiotic with activity against Gram-negative bacteria should also be considered (e.g. piperacillin+tazobactam)



Page 1 of 2



## **Definition**

- · Acute inflammation of the meninges, the membranes lining the brain and spinal cord
- The cause can be infectious or non-infectious (e.g. associated with autoimmunity)



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

#### Non-immunocompromised patients:

- · Streptococcus pneumoniae
- Neisseria meningitidis

# Immunocompromised patients or >50 years:

- · Streptococcus pneumoniae
- · Neisseria meninaitidis
- · Listeria monocytogenes (consider also in pregnant women)

#### Consider in specific situations:

- · Viral infections (especially Enteroviruses, Herpesviridae and Arboviruses)
- · Mycobacterium tuberculosis (mostly in endemic settings and/or in patients living with HIV)
- · Cryptococcal meningitis and cerebral toxoplasmosis in severely immunocompromised patients (HIV)
- Cerebral malaria (in patients living or travelling to endemic settings)
- Staphylococcus aureus or Gram-negative bacteria, including multidrug-resistant strains after neurosurgical interventions or (for Gram-negative bacteria) in the context of Strongyloides hyperinfection syndrome



# Prevention

- · Vaccination against meningococcal, pneumococcal and Haemonhilus influenzae type h disease
- · Post-exposure antibiotic prophylaxis with ciprofloxacin or ceftriaxone for close contacts (only for meningococcal
- https://www.who.int/health-topics/meningitis#tab=tab 3



# Diagnosis



#### **Clinical Presentation**

- · Acute onset (<48 h) of:
- Fever (≥ 38.0 °C) and/or
- Headache and/or confusion and/or
- Neck stiffness
- · All three signs and symptoms are present in only around half of patients but 95% of patients usually have at least two and the absence of all three symptoms significantly reduces the probability of meningitis
- · Haemorrhagic rash may be present (especially in case of meningococcal infection)



# **Microbiology Tests**

# Ideally before starting antibiotic treatment:

- Microscopy and culture of cerebrospinal fluid (CSF)
- · Cryptococcal antigen in CSF and blood (patients with HIV) Blood cultures
- · Note: if lumbar puncture not possible immediately start antibiotics after blood cultures. Testing should not delay



## **Other Laboratory Tests**

- · Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) examination (leukocyte count and differential leukocyte count, protein and glucose)
- · Complete blood count · Blood glucose

giving antibiotics

- · CRP and/or procalcitonin Blood lactate

## CSF findings suggestive of bacterial etiology:

- High opening pressure (normal range 80-200 mm H<sub>2</sub>O or 8-20 cm H<sub>2</sub>O)
- Turbid aspect Elevated white blood cell count (often several hundred to
- several thousand WBC/mm3 or >0.1 to >1 X 109/L) · Elevated % of neutrophils (>80%)
- Elevated protein (>45 mg/dL or >0.45 g/L) Low glucose (<40 mg/dL or <2.2 mmol/L)</li>
- CSF/Serum glucose ratio ≤0.4



#### **Imaging**

Consider doing a head CT scan before doing the lumbar puncture in patients with focal neurological signs, decreased level of consciousness/coma or a history of central nervous system disease or recent seizures (<1 week)



# Page 2 of 2 **Treatment**

# **Clinical Considerations**

#### Important:

- · Due to the severity of this condition all suspected cases of meningitis should be treated as soon as possible as bacterial meningitis until this has been excluded/viral cause has been clearly identified
- · Listeria is not covered by ceftriaxone or cefotaxime therefore when Listeria is suspected, ampicillin should be used
- · Empiric treatment is based on:
- Age of the patient
- Immune status of the patient
- Local prevalence of *S. pneumoniae* isolates resistant to third-generation cephalosporins (rare but can occur especially in patients with prolonged or multiple exposures to β-lactam antibiotics in the previous three
- · If a pathogen is isolated and its susceptibilities are known, review and modify antibiotics accordingly

# **Use of Corticosteroids**

- Dexamethasone 0.15 mg/kg q6h
- · Recommended only in high-income settings (no evidence of benefit in other settings)
- · Give with the first dose of antibiotic to attenuate the inflammatory response and reduce the risk of neurological complications and death
- · Continue only if S. pneumoniae is confirmed

## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Unknown pathogen: 10 days

Confirmed pneumococcal meningitis: 10-14 days

Confirmed meningococcal meningitis: 5-7 days

Confirmed Listeria meningitis: 21 days

# **Antibiotic Treatment**

All dosages are for normal renal function Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated Consider second choice options only when first choice options are not available

#### First Choice

Cefotaxime 2 g q6h IV

Ceftriaxone 2 g q12h IV

Add Ampicillin (or IV amoxicillin) to ceftriaxone/cefotaxime if risk factors for Listeria monocytogenes are present (e.g. patients ≥50 years, pregnancy)

## Second Choice

Amoxicillin 2 g q4h IV

Ampicillin 2 g q4h IV

Benzylpenicillin 4 million IU (2.4 g) q4h IV

Chloramphenicol 1 g q6h IV

Use chloramphenicol only when no other option is available because of toxicity



Page 1 of 2



## **Definition**

- Acute inflammation of the meninges, the membranes lining the brain and spinal cord
- The cause can be infectious or non-infectious in origin (e.g. associated with autoimmunity)



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

#### Neonates (0-1 month):

- Streptococcus agalactiae (Group B Streptococcus)
- Escherichia coli
- Listeria monocytogenes
- · Streptococcus pneumoniae

#### Children/adolescents:

- · Streptococcus pneumoniae
- Neisseria meningitidis
   Haemophilus influenzae type b
- Invasive non-typhoidal Salmonella (HIV/sickle cell disease)

# • Salmonella Typhi (rare)

- Consider in specific situations:
   Viral infections (especially Enteroviruses, Herpesviridae and Arboviruses) and non-infectious causes
- Mycobacterium tuberculosis (mostly in endemic settings and/or in patients living with HIV)
- Cryptococcal meningitis and cerebral toxoplasmosis in severely immunocompromised patients
- Cerebral malaria (in patients living or travelling to endemic settings)
- Staphylococcus aureus or Gram-negative bacteria, including multidrug-resistant strains after neurosurgical interventions



## Prevention

- Vaccination against meningococcal, pneumococcal and Haemophilus influenzae type b disease
- Post-exposure antibiotic prophylaxis with ciprofloxacin or ceftriaxone for close contacts (only for meningococcal meningitis)
- https://www.who.int/health-topics/meningitis#tab=tab



# Diagnosis

# Q

## **Clinical Presentation**

#### Neonates:

- Symptoms are usually non-specific; often a combination of fever, poor feeding, lethargy, drowsiness, vomiting, irritability, seizures or a full fontanelle
- · Neck stiffness is very uncommon

## Older children:

- · Acute onset (<48 h) of:
- Fever (≥ 38.0 °C) and /or
- Headache and/or confusion and/or
- Neck stiffness
- Haemorrhagic rash may be present (especially in case of meningococcal infection)



# **Microbiology Tests**

## Ideally before starting antibiotic treatment:

- Microscopy and culture of cerebrospinal fluid (CSF)
- · Cryptococcal antigen in CSF and blood (patients with HIV)
- Blood cultures
- Note: testing should not delay giving antibiotics



## **Other Laboratory Tests**

 Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) examination (leukocyte count and differential leukocyte count, protein and glucose

# CSF findings suggestive of bacterial etiology:

- High opening pressure (normal range, 80-200 mm H<sub>2</sub>O or 8-20 cm H<sub>2</sub>O)
   Turbid aspect
- Elevated white blood cell count (often several hundred to
- several thousand WBC/mm³)
   Elevated % of neutrophils (>80%)
- Elevated protein (>45 mg/dL or >0.45 g/L)
   CSF/Serum glucose ratio ≤0.4

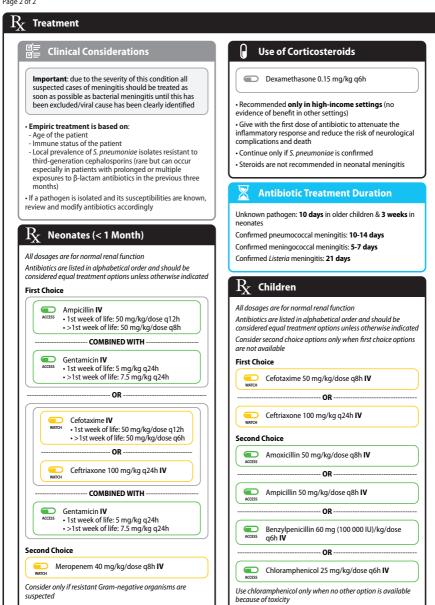


### Imaging

Consider doing a head CT scan before doing the lumbar puncture in patients with focal neurological signs, decreased level of consciousness/coma or a history of central nervous system disease or recent seizures (<1 week)



Page 2 of 2





Page 1 of 2



## **Definition**

An acute illness affecting the lungs usually presenting with cough, sputum production, and rapid and difficult breathing with a new or worsening pulmonary infiltrate on a chest radiograph



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

## "Typical" bacteria:

- · Streptococcus pneumoniae (most cases)
- · Haemophilus influenzae (chronic lung diseases, smoking)
- · Moraxella catarrhalis (chronic lung diseases, smoking)
- · Staphylococcus aureus (often associated with influenza)
- · Enterobacterales (severe comorbidities, e.g. chronic lung diseases, dementia, stroke)

#### "Atypical" bacteria:

- Mycoplasma pneumoniae (more frequent in young adults)
- · Chlamydia pneumoniae and psittaci (more frequent in young
- · Legionella spp. (chronic lung diseases or other underlying illness, travel, exposure to hot tubs)
- · Coxiella burnetii (rural areas, exposure to livestock)

#### Respiratory viruses:

- Influenza viruses (A and B)
- Respiratory syncytial virus (RSV)
- Metanneumovirus
- · Parainfluenza virus
- · Coronavirus (including SARS-CoV-2)
- Adenovirus
- Rhinovirus
- Other respiratory viruses

## Pathogens to consider in specific settings:

- · Burkholderia pseudomallei (SE Asia, Australia)
- Mycobacterium tuberculosis
- · Pneumocystis jirovecii (people with HIV or other immunosuppression)



# Investigating for Tuberculosis (TB)

- Consider specific investigations for TB in endemic settings especially in high-risk patients (e.g. HIV)
- · A rapid molecular test performed on a single sputum specimen is the preferred first line diagnostic test for pulmonary TB and to detect rifampicin resistance
- · Consider a lipoarabinomannan rapid urinary antigen test in severely immunocompromised HIV patients with signs and symptoms of tuberculosis

# **Diagnosis**

### **Clinical Presentation**

- New onset (<2 weeks) or worsening cough with fever (≥ 38.0 °C), sputum production, dyspnea, tachypnea, reduced oxygen saturation, crepitations on lung auscultation, chest pain/discomfort without alternative explanation
- · Extrapulmonary features (i.e. confusion, disorientation) may predominate in elderly, and immunocompromised patients and fever may be absent



# **Microbiology Tests**

Mild cases: usually not needed

Severe cases (to guide antimicrobial treatment): blood cultures, urinary antigens for L. pneumophila and S. pneumoniae

Selected cases (depending on epidemiology and risk factors): sputum rapid molecular test for M. tuberculosis, nasopharyngeal swab for influenza viruses and SARS-CoV-2. HIV testing in settings with high HIV prevalence and in

## Other Laboratory Tests

case of recurrent and/or severe pneumonia

Determine disease severity: blood urea nitrogen (see CURB-65 Scoring System box), blood pH and gases, white blood cell count

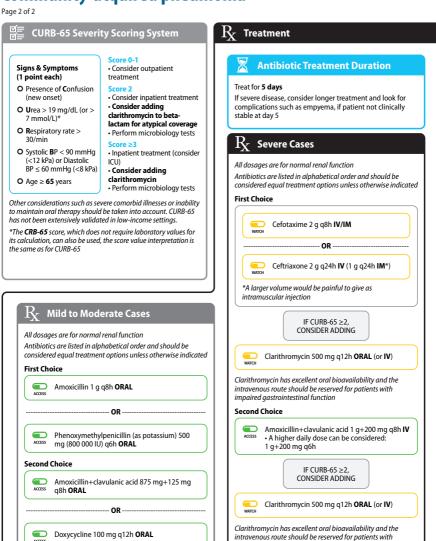
Differentiate bacterial and viral (taking into account pretest probability): C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin Note: tests depend on availability and clinical severity (e.g. blood gases will only be done in severe cases)



# Imaging

- · Chest X-ray not necessary in mild cases
- · Infiltrate may not always be evident (e.g. dehydration) and non-infectious etiologies may mimic infiltrates (e.g. lung edema, pulmonary embolism)
- · Radiologic appearance cannot be used to accurately predict pathogen





impaired gastrointestinal function



Page 1 of 2



## **Definition**

An acute illness affecting the lungs usually presenting with cough, and rapid and difficult breathing with a new or worsening pulmonary infiltrate on a chest radiograph



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

#### "Typical" bacteria:

- · Streptococcus pneumoniae (most common cause of CAP beyond the 1st week of life)
- · Haemophilus influenzae
- Moraxella catarrhalis
- · Staphylococcus aureus

"Atypical" pathogens (more frequent in children >5 years compared to younger children):

- · Mycoplasma pneumoniae
- Chlamvdophila pneumoniae

#### Respiratory viruses:

- · Respiratory syncytial virus (RSV)
- Influenza viruses (A and B)
- Metapneumovirus
- · Parainfluenza virus
- · Coronavirus (including SARS-CoV-2)
- Adenovirus
- Rhinovirus
- Other respiratory viruses

# **Investigating for Tuberculosis (TB)**

- · Consider specific investigations for TB in endemic settings especially in high-risk patients (e.g. HIV)
- A rapid molecular test performed on a single sputum specimen is the preferred first line diagnostic test for pulmonary TB and to detect rifampicin resistance

# Diagnosis

### **Clinical Presentation**

- New onset (<2 weeks) or worsening cough with fever (≥ 38.0 °C), dyspnea, tachypnea, reduced oxygen saturation, crepitations, cyanosis, grunting, nasal flaring, pallor
- · Pneumonia is diagnosed on: fast breathing for age and/or chest indrawing
- Check for hypoxia with oxygen saturometer if available
- · Children with runny nose and cough and no signs of severity usually do not have pneumonia and should not receive an antibiotic, only home care advice



# **Microbiology Tests**

Mild cases: usually not needed

Severe cases (to guide antimicrobial treatment): blood

Tests for COVID-19 and influenza can be considered if clinically indicated and available

# **Other Laboratory Tests**

No test clearly differentiates viral or bacterial CAP

Consider: full blood count and C-reactive protein

Note: tests depend on availability and clinical severity (e.g. blood gases will only be done in severe cases)

# Imaging

- · Chest X-ray not necessary in mild cases
- · Look for lobar consolidation or pleural effusion
- · Radiologic appearance cannot be used to accurately predict pathogen



Page 2 of 2



# **Severity Assessment and** Considerations

#### Children with pneumonia:

- · Should be treated with oral amoxicillin at home with home care advice
- · Pneumonia is diagnosed on either:
- 1. Fast breathing (respiratory rate > 50 breaths/minute in children aged 2-11 months; resp rate > 40 breaths/min in children aged 1-5 years)
- 2. Chest indrawing

Children with severe pneumonia (or a child with pneumonia who cannot tolerate oral antibiotics):

- · Should be admitted to hospital and treated with intravenous antibiotics
- · Severe pneumonia is characterized by signs of pneumonia:
- Fast breathing (+/- chest indrawing)
- A general danger sign:
- · Inability to breastfeed or drink
- Convulsions
- · Lethargy or reduced level of consciousness



## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

- 3 days: in areas of low HIV prevalence and no chest
- 5 days: in areas of high HIV prevalence and the child has chest indrawing

If severe disease, consider longer treatment and look for complications such as empyema, if patient not clinically stable at day 5



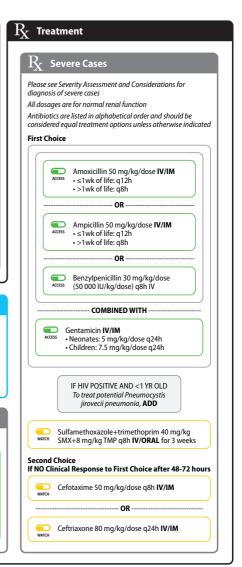
# Mild to Moderate Cases

All dosages are for normal renal function



Amoxicillin 80-90 mg/kg/day ORAL

• Oral weight bands:		
3-<6 kg	250 mg q12h	
6-<10 kg	375 mg q12h	
10-<15 kg	500 mg q12h	
15-<20 kg	750 mg q12h	
≥20 kg	500 mg q8h or 1 g q12h	





Page 1 of 2



## **Definition**

Hospital-acquired pneumonia (HAP): Acute illness affecting the lungs caused by pathogens in the hospital setting and presenting 48 hours or more after admission

Ventilator-associated pneumonia (VAP): Acute illness affecting the lungs caused by pathogens in the hospital setting and presenting 48 hours or more after admission while the patient is on a ventilator

**Important**: the cut-off of 48 hours is chosen for convenience and surveillance purposes



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

- HAP may be caused by the same pathogens found in CAP or by multidrug-resistant (MDR) pathogens
- Majority of data on the microbiologic etiology of HAP is derived from ventilated patients in the intensive care setting

#### Bacteria most frequently associated with HAP:

- Gram-negative bacteria including *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Acinetobacter baumannii* and Enterobacterales such as *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (including multidrug-resistant strains)
- Streptococcus pneumoniae
- Haemophilus influenzae
- Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)
- Anaerobes (mostly associated with large aspiration of secretions)
- Legionella pneumophila

#### Respiratory Viruses:

- Influenza viruses (A and B)
- Other respiratory viruses (including SARS-CoV-2)

### Risk factors for infection with MDR pathogens:

- · Previous treatment with antibiotics
- Prolonged hospital stay (particularly in the ICU)
- · Prior colonization with MDR pathogens
- High local prevalence of resistant pathogens (e.g. among S. aureus and Gram-negative bacteria, including P. aeruginosa)

# <u>C</u>

# Diagnosis

# Q

## **Clinical Presentation**

Non-ventilated patients: New or worsening cough +/sputum production, difficult and rapid breathing, reduced oxygen saturation, crepitations on lung auscultation, or chest pain/discomfort with no alternative explanation; fever > 38.0 °C usually present (may be absent, especially in the elderly)

**Ventilated patients:** Increased respiratory secretions, reduced oxygen saturation and a new lung infiltrate on a chest-radiograph

Note: the clinical presentation is non-specific and other diseases (e.g. pulmonary embolism) can mimic HAP. HAP/VAP may progress to sepsis

# C

# Microbiology Tests

### All cases:

- Blood cultures (ideally before starting antibiotics)
   Microscopy and culture of respiratory samples (ideally)
- Microscopy and culture of respiratory samples (ideally before starting antibiotics)
- Urinary antigens for L. pneumophila and S. pneumoniae

Selected cases (depending on epidemiology and risk factors): Nasopharyngeal swab for influenza viruses and SARS-CoV-2

**Important**: a positive respiratory culture may indicate colonization rather than acute infection



# Other Laboratory Tests

**Determine disease severity**: Blood pH and gases, white blood cell count

Differentiate bacterial and viral (taking into account pretest probability): C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin

Note: tests depend on availability and clinical severity (e.g. blood gases will only be done in severe cases)

• If sepsis is suspected consider additional laboratory tests (see sepsis infographic)



# **Imaging**

Chest radiograph needed because other conditions have similar clinical features and antibiotics may be avoided if bacterial pneumonia is not suggested

#### Important:

- Chest radiographs can be difficult to interpret and correlate with the clinical presentation; many other conditions mimic infectious infiltrates (especially in the elderly)
- The radiographic pattern cannot be used to accurately predict the microbial cause



Page 2 of 2



## **Prevention**

#### Key principles:

- Vaccination against pathogens that can commonly cause pneumonia
- · Good hand hygiene
- Maintain mobility
- · Maintain good oral and dental care
- Maintain nutrition in hospital
- Elevate the head of the bed to reduce the chances of aspirating respiratory secretions into the lungs
- Avoid intubation or reduce duration as much as possible

#### Bundles of care specific to the ICU also usually include:

- Minimizing sedation
- Regularly assessing if the endotracheal tube may be removed; extubate patients as soon as it is safe to do so
- Selective oral decontamination (SOD) and/or selective decontamination of the digestive tract (SDD) to reduce the bacterial burden of the upper (with SOD) and lower (with SDD) digestive tract through the administration of non-absorbable applicative.
- SOD/SDD can help reduce the incidence of VAP, yet there is concern about the risk of selecting resistant bacteria





# **Clinical Considerations**

#### Important:

- Consider stopping treatment if HAP is ruled out or an alternative diagnosis can be made
- If not severely ill, consider targeted treatment based on microbiology results

### Empiric antibiotic treatment should be guided by:

 The severity of symptoms (scoring systems exist but are not addressed here), considering local prevalence of resistant pathogens and individual risk factors for resistant pathogens

# In patients with VAP specifically consider:

 Need for double anti-pseudomonal coverage (risk of infection caused by isolates resistant to an antibiotic used for monotherapy)

#### Important:

- Simplify empiric treatment to a more narrowspectrum antibiotic based on culture results or rapid clinical improvement if culture results unavailable
- Step down to oral treatment is based on improvement of symptoms, signs of infection and the ability to take oral antibiotics



### **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

**7 days**; reassess diagnosis and consider longer treatment if the patient is not clinically stable at day 7

# $m R_{\!\! K}$ HAP (non-VAP)

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated



Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 1 g+200 mg q8h IV OR 875 mg + 125 mg q8h **ORAL** 

Consider if low-risk of multidrug-resistant infections (e.g. short hospitalization before symptom onset and no prior antibiotic exposure)

OR --

Cefotaxime 2 g q8h IV/IM

ΛD

Ceftriaxone 2 g q24h IV (1 g q24h IM\*)

\*A larger volume would be painful to give as intramuscular injection

--- OR --

WATCH

Piperacillin+tazobactam 4 g+500 mg q6h IV

Piperacillin+tazobactam offers anti-pseudomonal coverage, which the other options do not (risk of P. aeruginosa higher in patients with recent antibiotic exposure, known previous respiratory colonization and underlying lung diseases)



Page 1 of 2



## **Definition**

Hospital-acquired pneumonia (HAP): Acute illness affecting the lungs caused by pathogens in the hospital setting and presenting 48 hours or more after admission

Ventilator-associated pneumonia (VAP): Acute illness affecting the lungs caused by pathogens in the hospital setting and presenting 48 hours or more after admission while the patient is on a ventilator

Important: the cut-off of 48 hours is chosen for convenience and surveillance purposes



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

- HAP may be caused by the same pathogens found in CAP or by multidrug-resistant (MDR) pathogens
- · Maiority of data on the microbiologic etiology of HAP is derived from ventilated patients in the intensive care setting

#### Bacteria most frequently associated with HAP:

- · Gram-negative bacteria including Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Acinetobacter baumannii and Enterobacterales such as Klebsiella pneumoniae (including multidrug-resistant strains)
- Streptococcus pneumoniae
- · Haemophilus influenzae
- · Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)
- · Anaerobes (mostly associated with large aspiration of secretions)
- · Legionella pneumophila

#### Respiratory Viruses:

- Influenza viruses (A and B)
- Other respiratory viruses (including SARS-CoV-2)

### Risk factors for infection with MDR pathogens:

- · Previous treatment with antibiotics
- Prolonged hospital stay (particularly in the ICU)
- · Prior colonization with MDR pathogens
- · High local prevalence of resistant pathogens (e.g. among S. aureus and Gram-negative bacteria, including P. aeruginosa)

# **Diagnosis**

## **Clinical Presentation**

Non-ventilated patients: New or worsening cough +/sputum production, difficult and rapid breathing, reduced oxygen saturation, crepitations on lung auscultation, or chest pain/discomfort with no alternative explanation; fever ≥ 38.0 °C usually present (may be absent)

Ventilated patients: Increased respiratory secretions. reduced oxygen saturation and a new lung infiltrate on a chest-radiograph

Note: the clinical presentation is non-specific and other diseases (e.g. pulmonary embolism) can mimic HAP. HAP/VAP may progress to sepsis

# **Microbiology Tests**

- · Blood cultures (ideally before starting antibiotics)
- · Microscopy and culture of respiratory samples (ideally before starting antibiotics)

Selected cases (depending on epidemiology and risk factors): Nasopharyngeal swab for influenza viruses and SARS-CoV-2

Important: a positive respiratory culture may indicate colonization rather than acute infection

# Other Laboratory Tests

Determine disease severity: Blood pH and gases, white blood cell count

Differentiate bacterial and viral (taking into account pretest probability): C-reactive protein

Note: tests depend on availability and clinical severity (e.g. blood gases will only be done in severe cases)

· If sepsis is suspected consider additional laboratory tests (see sepsis infographic)



# **Imaging**

Chest radiograph needed because other conditions have similar clinical features and antibiotics may be avoided if bacterial pneumonia is not suggested

# Important:

- · Chest radiographs can be difficult to interpret and correlate with the clinical presentation; many other conditions mimic infectious infiltrates
- · The radiographic pattern cannot be used to accurately predict the microbial cause



Page 2 of 2



## **Prevention**

#### Key principles:

- Vaccination against pathogens that can commonly cause pneumonia
- · Good hand hygiene
- Maintain mobility
- · Maintain good oral and dental care
- · Maintain nutrition in hospital
- Elevate the head of the bed to reduce the chances of aspirating respiratory secretions into the lungs
- · Avoid intubation or reduce duration as much as possible

# Bundles of care specific to the ICU also usually include:

- Minimizing sedation
- Regularly assessing if the endotracheal tube may be removed; extubate patients as soon as it is safe to do so

# R Treatment



# **Clinical Considerations**

#### Important:

- Consider stopping treatment if HAP is ruled out or an alternative diagnosis can be made
- If not severely ill, consider targeted treatment based on microbiology results

### Empiric antibiotic treatment should be guided by:

 The severity of symptoms (scoring systems exist but are not addressed here), considering local prevalence of resistant pathogens and individual risk factors for resistant pathogens

### In patients with VAP specifically consider:

 Need for double anti-pseudomonal coverage (risk of infection caused by isolates resistant to an antibiotic used for monotherapy)

#### Important:

- Simplify empiric treatment to a more narrowspectrum antibiotic based on culture results or rapid clinical improvement if culture results unavailable
- Step down to oral treatment is based on improvement of symptoms, signs of infection and the ability to take oral antibiotics

# X

# **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

HAP: **7 days**; reassess diagnosis and consider longer treatment if the patient is not clinically stable at day 7

# $m R_{\!\! X}$ HAP (non-VAP)

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated



Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid

- 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose of amoxicillin component q12h
- > 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose of amoxicillin component q8h
- ORAL: 80-90 mg/kg/day of amoxicillin component
- · Oral weight bands:

_	
3-<6 kg	250 mg of amox/dose q12h
6-<10 kg	375 mg of amox/dose q12h
10-<15 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q12h
15-<20 kg	750 mg of amox/dose q12h
≥20 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q8h or 1 g of amox/dose q12h

#### $\Delta mov = amovicillin$

Consider if low-risk of multidrug-resistant infections (e.g. short hospitalization before symptom onset and no prior antibiotic exposure)

Oral liquid must be refrigerated after reconstitution

- OR



Cefotaxime 50 mg/kg/dose q8h IV/IM

- OR



Ceftriaxone 80 mg/kg/dose q24h IV/IM

- OR



Piperacillin+tazobactam 100 mg/kg/dose of piperacillin component q8h IV

Piperacillin+tazobactam offers anti-pseudomonal coverage, which the other options do not (risk of P. aeruginosa higher in patients with recent antibiotic exposure, known previous respiratory colonization and underlying lung diseases)



Intra-abdominal infection • Page 1 of 2



## **Definition**

Acute cholecystitis: Acute inflammation of the gallbladder

• A gallstone obstructing the cystic duct for prolonged periods of time is the most frequent cause

Acute cholangitis: Acute inflammation in the bile duct system

• A gallstone obstructing the common bile duct and malignant obstruction by tumours are the most common causes

#### Classification based on complexity:

- Uncomplicated: No involvement of the peritoneal cavity and no abscess
- Complicated: Involvement of the peritoneal cavity and/or abscess

#### Classification based on severity:

- Mild: Not critically ill with no signs of sepsis or septic shock
- · Severe: Critically ill with signs of sepsis or septic shock



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

Infections are often polymicrobial

#### Racteria

- Enterobacterales (mostly *Escherichia coli*) and other Gramnegative bacilli (including multidrug-resistant strains)
- Streptococcus spp. (e.g. of the S. anginosus group)
- Enterococcus spp.
- · Anaerobes (mostly Bacteroides spp.)

Fungi (consider if recent course of antibiotics):

· Mostly Candida albicans

# <u>C</u> 1

# Diagnosis



#### Clinical Presentation

#### Acute cholecystitis:

 Acute abdominal pain especially in the right upper quadrant with nausea and vomiting; fever (≥ 38.0 °C) may be absent

#### Acute cholangitis:

 Abdominal pain with fever (≥ 38.0 °C) and jaundice +/nausea and vomiting

#### Important:

- Consider peritonitis if there is severe pain, diffuse rebound tenderness upon sudden release of pressure on the abdomen and abdominal muscular tensing
- Hypotension and signs of organ hypoperfusion (e.g. reduced urine output) are potential signs of sepsis/septic shock that need urgent treatment



# **Microbiology Tests**

#### Mild uncomplicated cases:

· Not usually needed

#### Severe cases

- Blood cultures (ideally before starting antibiotics)
- Microscopy and culture of abdominal fluid material and bile (if they can be drained) to adjust empiric antibiotic treatment



# **Other Laboratory Tests**

**Determine disease severity and help identify a bacterial infection:** White blood cell count, C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin

Assess liver function: AST, bilirubin and alkaline phosphatase

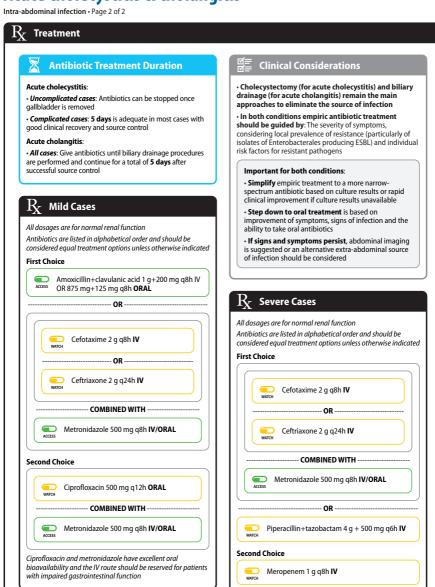
• If sepsis is suspected consider additional laboratory tests (see sepsis infographic)



# **Imaging**

- Abdominal ultrasound to confirm the diagnosis
- Consider doing a CT scan of the abdomen if complications suspected or diagnosis uncertain





Consider meropenem only in complicated cases if there is a high risk of infection with ESBL-producing Enterobacterales



Intra-abdominal infection • Page 1 of 3



## **Definition**

Acute cholecystitis: Acute inflammation of the gallbladder

• A gallstone obstructing the cystic duct for prolonged periods of time is the most frequent cause

Acute cholangitis: Acute inflammation in the bile duct system

• A gallstone obstructing the common bile duct and malignant obstruction by tumours are the most common causes

#### Classification based on complexity:

- · Uncomplicated: No involvement of the peritoneal cavity and no abscess
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#### Classification based on severity:

- Mild: Not critically ill with no signs of sepsis or septic shock
- · Severe: Critically ill with signs of sepsis or septic shock



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

Infections are often polymicrobial

- Enterobacterales (mostly Escherichia coli) and other Gramnegative bacilli (including multidrug-resistant strains)
- · Streptococcus spp. (e.g. of the S. anginosus group)
- Enterococcus spp.
- · Anaerobes (mostly Bacteroides spp.)

Fungi (consider if recent course of antibiotics):

· Mostly Candida albicans

# Diagnosis

### **Clinical Presentation**

#### Acute cholecystitis:

· Acute abdominal pain especially in the right upper quadrant with nausea and vomiting

#### Acute cholangitis:

· Abdominal pain with fever and jaundice +/- nausea and vomiting

#### Important:

- Consider peritonitis if there is severe pain, diffuse rebound tenderness upon sudden release of pressure on the abdomen and abdominal muscular tensing
- · Hypotension and signs of organ hypoperfusion (e.g. reduced urine output) are potential signs of sepsis /septic shock that need urgent treatment

# **Microbiology Tests**

### Mild uncomplicated cases:

Not usually needed

#### Severe cases:

- · Blood cultures (ideally before starting antibiotics)
- · Microscopy and culture of abdominal fluid material and bile (if they can be drained) to adjust empiric antibiotic treatment

# **Other Laboratory Tests**

Determine disease severity and help identify a bacterial infection: White blood cell count, C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin

Assess liver function: AST, bilirubin and alkaline phosphatase

· If sepsis is suspected consider additional laboratory tests (see sepsis infographic)



# Imaging

- · Abdominal ultrasound to confirm the diagnosis
- · Consider doing a CT scan of the abdomen if complications suspected or diagnosis uncertain



Intra-abdominal infection • Page 2 of 3

# Treatment (Section 1 of 2)

# **Clinical Considerations**

- · Cholecystectomy (for acute cholecystitis) and biliary drainage (for acute cholangitis) remain the main approaches to eliminate the source of infection
- · In both conditions empiric antibiotic treatment should be guided by: The severity of symptoms, considering local prevalence of resistance (particularly of isolates of Enterobacterales producing ESBL) and individual risk factors for resistant pathogens

#### Important for both conditions:

- · Simplify empiric treatment to a more narrowspectrum antibiotic based on culture results or rapid clinical improvement if culture results unavailable
- · Step down to oral treatment is based on improvement of symptoms, signs of infection and the ability to take oral antibiotics
- · If signs and symptoms persist, abdominal imaging is suggested or an alternative extra-abdominal source of infection should be considered



# **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

#### Acute cholecystitis:

- · Uncomplicated cases: Antibiotics can be stopped once gallbladder is removed
- · Complicated cases: 5 days is adequate in most cases with good clinical recovery and source control

#### Acute cholangitis:

· All cases: Give antibiotics until biliary drainage procedures are performed and continue for a total of 5 days after successful source control



## **Mild Cases**

See the following page for treatment recommendations

# $olimits \mathcal{R}_{\!\scriptscriptstyle F}$ Severe Cases

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated

#### First Choice



#### Ampicillin IV

- 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose q12h
- > 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose q8h

#### COMBINED WITH



# Gentamicin IV

- · Neonates: 5 mg/kg q24h
- · Children: 7.5 ma/ka a24h

#### COMBINED WITH



#### Metronidazole IV/ORAL

- Neonates: 7.5 mg/kg/dose g12h (for IV) loading dose: 15 mg/kg)
- · Children: 7.5 mg/kg/dose q8h
- · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	30 mg q8h
6-<10 kg	50 mg q8h
10-<15 kg	100 mg q8h
15-<20 kg	150 mg q8h
20-<30 kg	200 mg q8h
≥30 kg	500 mg q8h

#### OR



Piperacillin+tazobactam 100 mg/kg/dose of piperacillin component q8h IV

## Second Choice



Meropenem 20 mg/kg/dose q8h IV

Consider meropenem only in complicated cases if there is a high risk of infection with ESBL-producing Enterobacterales



# Intra-abdominal infection • Page 3 of 3 Treatment (Section 2 of 2) Mild Cases All dosages are for normal renal function Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated First Choice Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid IV: · 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose of amoxicillin component a12h · > 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose of amoxicillin component q8h ORAL: 80-90 mg/kg/day of amoxicillin component · Oral weight bands: 3-<6 ka 250 mg of amox/dose g12h 375 mg of amox/dose g12h 6-<10 kg 10-<15 kg 500 mg of amox/dose q12h 15-<20 kg 750 mg of amox/dose q12h ≥20 kg 500 mg of amox/dose q8h or 1 g of amox/dose g12h Amox = amoxicillin Oral liquid must be refrigerated after reconstitution -- OR -Ampicillin IV • 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose q12h · > 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose q8h COMBINED WITH Gentamicin IV · Neonates: 5 mg/kg q24h · Children: 7.5 mg/kg q24h COMBINED WITH Metronidazole IV/ORAL · Neonates: 7.5 mg/kg/dose q12h (for IV loading dose: 15 mg/kg) · Children: 7.5 mg/kg/dose g8h · Oral weight bands: 3-<6 ka 30 mg q8h 6-<10 kg 50 mg q8h 10-<15 ka 100 mg q8h

15-<20 kg

20-<30 kg

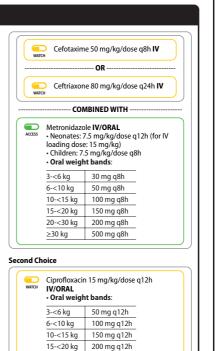
≥30 kg

150 mg q8h

200 mg q8h

500 mg q8h

ΩR



# Metronidazole IV/ORAL

20-<30 kg

Neonates: 7.5 mg/kg/dose q12h (for IV loading dose: 15 mg/kg)
Children: 7.5 mg/kg/dose q8h

300 mg q12h

500 mg q12h

• Oral weight bands:

30 mg q8h
50 mg q8h
100 mg q8h
150 mg q8h
200 mg q8h
500 mg q8h

Ciprofloxacin and metronidazole have excellent oral bioavailability and the IV route should be reserved for patients with impaired gastrointestinal function



# **Pyogenic liver abscess**

Intra-abdominal infection • Page 1 of 2



## Definition

A collection of pus within the liver

#### Classification based on severity:

- · Mild: Not critically ill with no signs of sepsis or septic shock
- Severe: Critically ill with signs of sepsis or septic shock



# Diagnosis



# **Clinical Presentation**

Fever ( $\geq$  38.0 °C) and abdominal pain (mostly localized in the right upper abdominal quadrant) +/- vomiting, nausea, anorexia, malaise and jaundice



# **Microbiology Tests**

- · Blood cultures (ideally before starting antibiotics)
- Microscopy and culture of abscess fluid material (if this can be drained) to adjust empiric antibiotic treatment
- · Tests for Entamoeba histolytica:
- Antigen or nucleic acid amplification tests of abscess aspirate material
- Serology (however in endemic settings, serology can remain positive for months/years after resolution of infection)



## **Other Laboratory Tests**

Determine disease severity and help identify a bacterial infection: White blood cell count, C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin

Assess liver function: AST, bilirubin and alkaline

• If sepsis is suspected consider additional laboratory tests (see sepsis infographic)



## **Imaging**

- · Abdominal ultrasound to confirm the diagnosis
- Consider a CT scan of the abdomen especially if complications are suspected or diagnosis is uncertain

# **₩**

# **Most Likely Pathogens**

Infections are often polymicrobial

#### Bacteria:

- Enterobacterales (mostly Escherichia coli, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Enterobacter spp.) including multidrug-resistant strains
- Burkholderia pseudomallei (mostly Southeast Asia and northern
- Australia)
- · Staphylococcus spp.
- · Streptococcus spp. (e.g. of the S. anginosus group)
- Enterococcus spp.
- · Anaerobes (mostly Bacteroides spp.)

#### Funai:

 Mostly Candida albicans (not a cause of "pyogenic" abscess but consider in immunocompromised patients or recent course of antibiotics)

Parasites (consider in endemic settings):

• Entamoeba histolytica (not a cause of "pyogenic" abscess but consider in the differential diagnosis)

# $R_{\!X}$

# Treatment (Section 1 of 2)



# **Clinical Considerations**

- Drainage of the abscess remains the main approach to eliminate the source of infection (especially for large abscesses >5 cm with higher risk of rupture)
- Drainage is also important to identify the causative pathogen and its resistance profile
- Mild: Targeted antibiotic treatment preferred (risk of infection due to Enterobacterales producing ESBL or carbapenemases)
- Severe: Empiric treatment considering local prevalence of resistance (particularly of isolates of Enterobacterales producing ESBL or carbapenemases) and individual risk factors for resistant pathogens

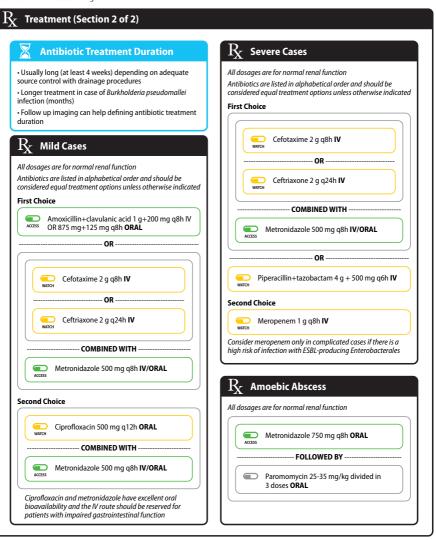
#### Important:

- Simplify empiric treatment to a more narrowspectrum antibiotic based on culture results or rapid clinical improvement if culture results unavailable
- Step down to oral treatment is based on improvement of symptoms, signs of infection and the ability to take oral antibiotics
- If signs and symptoms persist, abdominal imaging is suggested, or an alternative extra-abdominal source of infection should be considered



# **Pyogenic liver abscess**

Intra-abdominal infection • Page 2 of 2





# **Pyogenic liver abscess**

Intra-abdominal infection • Page 1 of 3



### Definition

A collection of pus within the liver

#### Classification based on severity:

- · Mild: Not critically ill with no signs of sepsis or septic shock
- · Severe: Critically ill with signs of sepsis or septic shock



# Diagnosis



# **Clinical Presentation**

Fever (≥ 38.0 °C) and abdominal pain (mostly localized in the right upper abdominal quadrant) +/- vomiting, nausea, anorexia, malaise and jaundice



# **Microbiology Tests**

- · Blood cultures (ideally before starting antibiotics)
- · Microscopy and culture of abscess fluid material (if this can be drained) to adjust empiric antibiotic treatment
- · Tests for Entamoeba histolytica:
- Antigen or nucleic acid amplification tests of abscess aspirate material
- Serology (however in endemic settings, serology can remain positive for months/years after resolution of infection)



### **Other Laboratory Tests**

Determine disease severity and help identify a bacterial infection: White blood cell count, C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin

Assess liver function: AST, bilirubin and alkaline

 If sepsis is suspected consider additional laboratory tests (see sepsis infographic)



### **Imaging**

- · Abdominal ultrasound to confirm the diagnosis
- · Consider a CT scan of the abdomen especially if complications are suspected or diagnosis is uncertain

## **Most Likely Pathogens**

Infections are often polymicrobial

#### Bacteria:

- Enterobacterales (mostly Escherichia coli, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Enterobacter spp.) including multidrug-resistant strains
- · Burkholderia pseudomallei (mostly Southeast Asia and northern
- Australia)
- · Staphylococcus spp.
- · Streptococcus spp. (e.g. of the S. anginosus group)
- Enterococcus spp.
- Anaerobes (mostly Bacteroides spp.)

· Mostly Candida albicans (not a cause of "pyogenic" abscess but consider in immunocompromised patients or recent course of

Parasites (consider in endemic settings):

• Entamoeba histolytica (not a cause of "pyogenic" abscess but consider in the differential diagnosis)

## Treatment (Section 1 of 3)



# **Clinical Considerations**

- Drainage of the abscess remains the main approach to eliminate the source of infection (especially for large abscesses >5 cm with higher risk of rupture)
- Drainage is also important to identify the causative pathogen and its resistance profile
- · Mild: Targeted antibiotic treatment preferred (risk of infection due to Enterobacterales producing ESBL or carbapenemases)
- · Severe: Empiric treatment considering local prevalence of resistance (particularly of isolates of Enterobacterales producing ESBL or carbapenemases) and individual risk factors for resistant pathogens

#### Important

- · Simplify empiric treatment to a more narrowspectrum antibiotic based on culture results or rapid clinical improvement if culture results unavailable
- · Step down to oral treatment is based on improvement of symptoms, signs of infection and the ability to take oral antibiotics
- · If signs and symptoms persist, abdominal imaging is suggested, or an alternative extra-abdominal source of infection should be considered



# **Pyogenic liver abscess**

Intra-abdominal infection • Page 2 of 3





# **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

- · Usually long (at least 4 weeks) depending on adequate source control with drainage procedures
- · Longer treatment in case of Burkholderia pseudomallei infection (months)
- Follow up imaging can help defining antibiotic treatment duration



## **Amoebic Abscess**

All dosages are for normal renal function



Metronidazole 10-15 mg/kg/dose q8h ORAL

# $m R_{\!\scriptscriptstyle C}$ Mild Cases

See the following page for treatment recommendations

# $m R_{\!\scriptscriptstyle C}$ Severe Cases

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated

### First Choice



## Ampicillin IV

- 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose q12h
  - > 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose q8h

#### - COMBINED WITH



# Gentamicin IV

- · Neonates: 5 mg/kg q24h
- · Children: 7.5 mg/kg q24h

#### COMBINED WITH



#### Metronidazole IV/ORAL

- · Neonates: 7.5 mg/kg/dose q12h (for IV loading dose: 15 mg/kg)
  • Children: 7.5 mg/kg/dose q8h
- · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	30 mg q8h
6-<10 kg	50 mg q8h
10-<15 kg	100 mg q8h
15-<20 kg	150 mg q8h
20-<30 kg	200 mg q8h
≥30 kg	500 mg q8h

#### OR



Piperacillin+tazobactam 100 mg/kg/dose of piperacillin component q8h IV

### **Second Choice**



Meropenem 20 mg/kg/dose q8h IV

Consider meropenem only in complicated cases if there is a high risk of infection with ESBL-producing Enterobacterales



# **Pyogenic liver abscess**



# **Mild Cases**

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated

#### First Choice

# ACCESS

Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid

- IV:
- · 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose of amoxicillin component q12h
- +> 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose of amoxicillin component q8h

ORAL: 80-90 mg/kg/day of amoxicillin component

· Oral weight bands

3-<6 kg	250 mg of amox/dose q12h
6-<10 kg	375 mg of amox/dose q12h
10-<15 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q12h
15-<20 kg	750 mg of amox/dose q12h
≥20 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q8h or

#### Amox = amoxicillin

Oral liquid must be refrigerated after reconstitution

#### -- OR

- Ampicillin IV
  - 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose q12h
  - · > 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose q8h

### **COMBINED WITH-**

- Gentamicin IV
  - · Neonates: 5 mg/kg q24h
  - · Children: 7.5 mg/kg q24h

# COMBINED WITH

### Metronidazole IV/ORAL

- · Neonates: 7.5 mg/kg/dose q12h (for IV loading dose: 15 mg/kg)
- · Children: 7.5 mg/kg/dose g8h
- · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	30 mg q8h
6-<10 kg	50 mg q8h
10-<15 kg	100 mg q8h
15-<20 kg	150 mg q8h
20-<30 kg	200 mg q8h
≥30 kg	500 mg q8h

OR

Cefotaxime 50 mg/kg/dose q8h IV

#### OR-



Ceftriaxone 80 mg/kg/dose q24h IV

#### COMBINED WITH



- Metronidazole IV/ORAL
  - · Neonates: 7.5 mg/kg/dose q12h (for IV loading dose: 15 mg/kg)
  - · Children: 7.5 mg/kg/dose g8h
  - · Oral weight bands:

•	
3-<6 kg	30 mg q8h
6-<10 kg	50 mg q8h
10-<15 kg	100 mg q8h
15-<20 kg	150 mg q8h
20-<30 kg	200 mg q8h
≥30 kg	500 mg q8h

#### Second Choice



Ciprofloxacin 15 mg/kg/dose g12h IV/ORAL

· Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	50 mg q12h
6-<10 kg	100 mg q12h
10-<15 kg	150 mg q12h
15-<20 kg	200 mg q12h
20-<30 kg	300 mg q12h
≥30 kg	500 mg q12h

## COMBINED WITH



- Metronidazole IV/ORAL
  - · Neonates: 7.5 mg/kg/dose g12h (for IV loading dose: 15 mg/kg)
  - · Children: 7.5 mg/kg/dose q8h
  - · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	30 mg q8h
6-<10 kg	50 mg q8h
10-<15 kg	100 mg q8h
15-<20 kg	150 mg q8h
20-<30 kg	200 mg q8h
≥30 kg	500 mg q8h

Ciprofloxacin and metronidazole have excellent oral bioavailability and the IV route should be reserved for patients with impaired gastrointestinal function



Intra-abdominal infection • Page 1 of 2



### Definition

Acute inflammation of the appendix sometimes followed by ischemia and perforation

#### Classification based on complexity:

- · Uncomplicated (>70% of cases): No involvement of the peritoneal cavity and no abscess
- · Complicated: Involvement of the peritoneal cavity and/or presence of an abscess

#### Classification based on severity:

- · Mild: Not critically ill with no signs of sepsis or septic shock
- · Severe: Critically ill with signs of sepsis or septic shock



## **Most Likely Pathogens**

- · Enterobacterales (mostly Escherichia coli including multidrugresistant strains)
- · Streptococcus spp. (e.g. of the S. anginosus group)
- Enterococcus spp.
- Anaerobes (mostly Bacteroides spp.)

Fungi (consider if recent course of antibiotics):

· Mostly Candida albicans

Parasites (consider in endemic settings):

· Enterobius vermicularis (pinworm) can contribute by causing obstruction of the appendix



# **Diagnosis**



### Clinical Presentation

Acute abdominal pain (usually located in the right lower quadrant or migrating from the periumbilical area to the right lower quadrant), with nausea and vomiting; fever (≥ 38.0 °C) may be absent

#### Important:

- Consider peritonitis if there is severe pain, diffuse rebound tenderness upon sudden release of pressure on the abdomen and abdominal muscular tensing
- · Hypotension and signs of organ hypoperfusion (e.g. reduced urine output) are potential signs of sepsis /septic shock that need urgent treatment



### **Imaging**

- · Abdominal ultrasound to confirm the diagnosis
- Consider doing a CT scan of the abdomen if complications suspected or diagnosis uncertain



### **Microbiology Tests**

#### Mild uncomplicated cases:

· Not usually needed

#### Severe cases:

- · Blood cultures (ideally before starting antibiotics)
- · Microscopy and culture of abscess fluid material (taken at the time of surgery) is not routinely recommended, but may be considered in specific cases to adjust empiric antibiotic treatment



# Other Laboratory Tests

#### Identify an alternative cause of abdominal pain:

- · Urinalysis (dipstick or microscopy) to exclude an infection
- of the urinary tract
- · Pregnancy test in women: to exclude an ectopic pregnancy

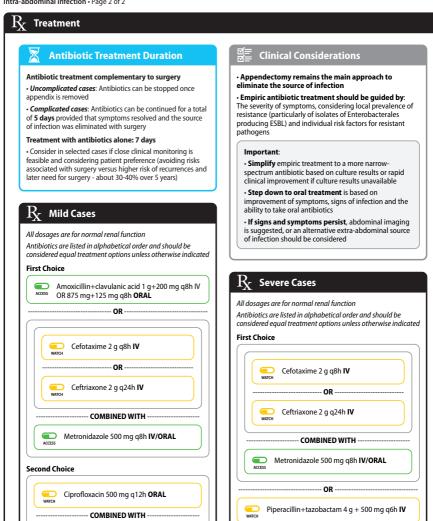
## Determine disease severity and help identify a

bacterial infection: White blood cell count, C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin

If sepsis is suspected consider additional laboratory tests (see sepsis infographic)



Intra-abdominal infection • Page 2 of 2



Metronidazole 500 mg q8h IV/ORAL

Metronidazole has excellent oral bioavailability and the IV route should be reserved for patients with impaired

gastrointestinal function

Second Choice

Meropenem 1 g q8h IV

Consider meropenem only in complicated cases if there is a high risk of infection with ESBL-producing Enterobacterales



Intra-abdominal infection • Page 1 of 3



### Definition

Acute inflammation of the appendix sometimes followed by ischemia and perforation

#### Classification based on complexity:

- · Uncomplicated (>70% of cases): No involvement of the peritoneal cavity and no abscess
- · Complicated: Involvement of the peritoneal cavity and/or

#### Classification based on severity:

- · Mild: Not critically ill with no signs of sepsis or septic shock
- · Severe: Critically ill with signs of sepsis or septic shock



## **Most Likely Pathogens**

- · Enterobacterales (mostly Escherichia coli including multidrugresistant strains)
- · Streptococcus spp. (e.g. of the S. anginosus group)
- Enterococcus spp.
- Anaerobes (mostly Bacteroides spp.)

Fungi (consider if recent course of antibiotics):

· Mostly Candida albicans

Parasites (consider in endemic settings):

· Enterobius vermicularis (pinworm) can contribute by causing obstruction of the appendix



# Diagnosis



### Clinical Presentation

Acute abdominal pain (usually located in the right lower quadrant or migrating from the periumbilical area to the right lower quadrant), with nausea and vomiting; fever (≥ 38.0 °C) may be absent

#### Important:

- Consider peritonitis if there is severe pain, diffuse rebound tenderness upon sudden release of pressure on the abdomen and abdominal muscular tensing
- · Hypotension and signs of organ hypoperfusion (e.g. reduced urine output) are potential signs of sepsis /septic shock that need urgent treatment



### **Imaging**

- · Abdominal ultrasound if available is helpful to confirm the diagnosis
- · Consider doing a CT scan of the abdomen if complications suspected or diagnosis uncertain



### **Microbiology Tests**

#### Mild uncomplicated cases:

· Not usually needed

#### Severe cases:

- · Blood cultures (ideally before starting antibiotics)
- · Microscopy and culture of abscess fluid material (taken at the time of surgery) is not routinely recommended, but may be considered in specific cases to adjust empiric antibiotic treatment



# Other Laboratory Tests

#### Identify an alternative cause of abdominal pain:

- · Urinalysis (dipstick or microscopy) to exclude an infection of the urinary tract
- · Consider pregnancy test where appropriate to exclude an ectopic pregnancy

#### Determine disease severity and help identify a

bacterial infection: White blood cell count, C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin

If sepsis is suspected consider additional laboratory tests (see sepsis infographic)



Intra-abdominal infection • Page 2 of 3

# Treatment (Section 1 of 2)

# **Clinical Considerations**

- · Appendectomy remains the main approach to eliminate the source of infection
- · Treatment with antibiotics alone is not recommended in children by WHO

## · Empiric antibiotic treatment should be guided by:

The severity of symptoms, considering local prevalence of resistance (particularly of isolates of Enterobacterales producing ESBL) and individual risk factors for resistant pathogens

#### Important:

- · Simplify empiric treatment to a more narrowspectrum antibiotic based on culture results or rapid clinical improvement if culture results unavailable
- · Step down to oral treatment is based on improvement of symptoms, signs of infection and the ability to take oral antibiotics
- If signs and symptoms persist, abdominal imaging is suggested, or an alternative extra-abdominal source of infection should be considered

## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

- · Uncomplicated cases: Antibiotics can be stopped once surgery has been performed and child is well
- Complicated cases: Antibiotics can be continued for a total of 5 days provided that symptoms resolved and the source of infection was eliminated with surgery

# Mild Cases

See the following page for treatment recommendations

# $m R_{ au}$ Severe Cases

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated

#### First Choice



#### Ampicillin IV

• 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose q12h

• > 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose

#### COMBINED WITH

#### Gentamicin IV

- · Neonates: 5 mg/kg g24h
- Children: 7.5 mg/kg q24h

#### - COMBINED WITH



#### Metronidazole IV/ORAL

- · Neonates: 7.5 mg/kg/dose q12h (for IV loading dose: 15 mg/kg)
  - · Children: 7.5 mg/kg/dose q8h
  - · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	30 mg q8h
6-<10 kg	50 mg q8h
10-<15 kg	100 mg q8h
15-<20 kg	150 mg q8h
20-<30 kg	200 mg q8h
≥30 kg	500 mg q8h



Piperacillin+tazobactam 100 mg/kg/dose of piperacillin component q8h IV

#### Second Choice



Meropenem 20 mg/kg/dose q8h IV

Consider meropenem only in complicated cases if there is a high risk of infection with ESBL-producing Enterobacterales



# Intra-abdominal infection • Page 3 of 3

# **Mild Cases**

All dosages are for normal renal function

Treatment (Section 2 of 2)

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated

#### First Choice

Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid

IV:

- · 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose of amoxicillin component q12h
- +> 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose of amoxicillin component q8h

ORAL: 80-90 mg/kg/day of amoxicillin component

· Oral weight bands

3-<6 kg	250 mg of amox/dose q12h
6-<10 kg	375 mg of amox/dose q12h
10-<15 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q12h
15-<20 kg	750 mg of amox/dose q12h
≥20 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q8h or 1 g of amox/dose q12h

#### Amox = amoxicillin

Oral liquid must be refrigerated after reconstitution

#### --- OR -

# Ampicillin IV

- 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose q12h
- · > 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose q8h

### **COMBINED WITH-**

### Gentamicin IV

- · Neonates: 5 mg/kg q24h
- · Children: 7.5 mg/kg q24h

#### Metronidazole IV/ORAL

· Neonates: 7.5 mg/kg/dose q12h (for IV loading dose: 15 mg/kg)

COMBINED WITH

- · Children: 7.5 mg/kg/dose g8h
- · Oral weight bands:

-	
3-<6 kg	30 mg q8h
6-<10 kg	50 mg q8h
10-<15 kg	100 mg q8h
15-<20 kg	150 mg q8h
20-<30 kg	200 mg q8h
≥30 kg	500 mg q8h

OR

Cefotaxime 50 mg/kg/dose g8h IV

#### OR-



Ceftriaxone 80 mg/kg/dose q24h IV

## COMBINED WITH

Metronidazole IV/ORAL

- · Neonates: 7.5 mg/kg/dose q12h (for IV loading dose: 15 mg/kg)
- · Children: 7.5 mg/kg/dose g8h
- · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	30 mg q8h
6-<10 kg	50 mg q8h
10-<15 kg	100 mg q8h
15-<20 kg	150 mg q8h
20-<30 kg	200 mg q8h
≥30 kg	500 mg q8h

# Second Choice



Ciprofloxacin 15 mg/kg/dose g12h IV/ORAL

· Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	50 mg q12h
6-<10 kg	100 mg q12h
10-<15 kg	150 mg q12h
15-<20 kg	200 mg q12h
20-<30 kg	300 mg q12h
≥30 kg	500 mg q12h

## COMBINED WITH

- Metronidazole IV/ORAL
  - · Neonates: 7.5 mg/kg/dose g12h (for IV loading dose: 15 mg/kg)
  - Children: 7.5 mg/kg/dose q8h
  - · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	30 mg q8h
6-<10 kg	50 mg q8h
10-<15 kg	100 mg q8h
15-<20 kg	150 mg q8h
20-<30 kg	200 mg q8h
>30 kg	500 mg g8h

Ciprofloxacin and metronidazole have excellent oral bioavailability and the IV route should be reserved for patients with impaired gastrointestinal function



# **Acute diverticulitis**

Intra-abdominal infection • Page 1 of 2



#### **Definition**

Acute inflammation of diverticula (sac-like protrusions of the wall of the colon) that can cause severe abdominal pain

#### Classification based on complexity:

- *Uncomplicated*: No involvement of peritoneal cavity and no abscess
- Complicated: Involvement of the peritoneal cavity and/or abscess

#### Classification based on severity:

- · Mild: Not critically ill with no signs of sepsis or septic shock
- Severe: Critically ill with signs of sepsis or septic shock



# Diagnosis



### **Clinical Presentation**

- Acute pain in the left or right lower abdominal quadrants with chills, nausea and vomiting; fever (≥ 38.0 °C) may be absent
- Left diverticulitis is more common in Europe and North America, right diverticulitis in Asia

#### Important:

- Consider peritonitis if severe pain, diffuse rebound tenderness upon sudden release of pressure on the abdomen and abdominal muscular tensing
- Hypotension and signs of organ hypoperfusion (e.g. reduced urine output) are potential signs of sepsis /septic shock that need urgent treatment



# Microbiology Tests

Mild cases: Not usually needed

#### Severe cases:

- Blood cultures (ideally before starting antibiotics)
- Microscopy and culture of abscess fluid material (if this can be drained) to adjust empiric antibiotic treatment



#### **Other Laboratory Tests**

- Determine disease severity and help identify a bacterial infection: White blood cell count, C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin
- If sepsis is suspected consider additional laboratory tests (see sepsis infographic) (see sepsis infographic)



### **Imaging**

Abdominal ultrasound or CT of the abdomen (depending on availability) to confirm the diagnosis

# **®**

## **Most Likely Pathogens**

#### Bacteria:

- Enterobacterales (mostly *Escherichia coli* including multidrugresistant strains)
- · Streptococcus spp. (e.g. of the S. anginosus group)
- Enterococcus spp.
- Anaerobes (mostly Bacteroides spp.)
- Fungi (consider if recent course of antibiotics):
- Mostly Candida albicans
- Parasites (consider in endemic settings):
- Enterobius vermicularis (pinworm)



### Treatment (Section 1 of 2)



### Clinical Considerations

- Uncomplicated cases in immunocompetent patients: antibiotics not needed if there are no systemic signs of infection; if these cases do not resolve spontaneously after 2-3 days, consider antibiotics
- Uncomplicated cases in severely immunocompromised patients: treat with antibiotics alone (if close follow up possible)
- Complicated cases: treat with antibiotics and surgical source control (e.g. drainage of large abscesses > 5 cm or colonic resection)

#### Empiric antibiotic treatment should be guided by:

The severity of symptoms, considering local prevalence of resistance (particularly of isolates of Enterobacterales producing ESBL) and individual risk factors for resistant pathogens

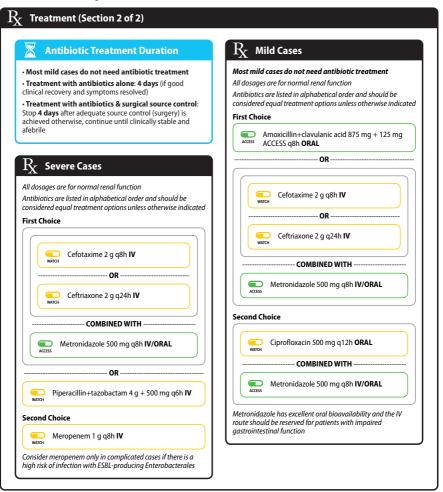
### Important:

- Simplify empiric treatment to a more narrowspectrum antibiotic based on culture results or rapid clinical improvement if culture results unavailable
- Step down to oral treatment is based on improvement of symptoms, signs of infection and the ability to take oral antibiotics
- If signs and symptoms persist, abdominal imaging is suggested, or an alternative extra-abdominal source of infection should be considered



# **Acute diverticulitis**

Intra-abdominal infection • Page 2 of 2





# **Clostridioides difficile infection (CDI)**

Intra-abdominal infection



### Definition

Infection of the colon caused by the bacterium C. difficile that occurs mostly in patients with current/recent antibiotic use and with regular exposure to healthcare settings



## Diagnosis



### Clinical Presentation

Usually diarrhea (≥3 unformed/liquid stools in 24 hrs or more than normal for individual) with no other plausible cause +/- abdominal pain, cramping and fever

Severe cases (e.g. pseudomembranous colitis):

- · Severe abdominal pain, high fever, organ dysfunction
- Toxic megacolon presents with signs of acute surgical abdomen and/or sepsis (diarrhea is often absent)



# **Microbiology Tests**

- Consider testing symptomatic patients with no other plausible reason for diarrhea especially if recent or current exposure to antibiotics
- · Currently no single test to diagnose CDI is completely reliable and the best approach remains controversial

### Two commonly used approaches:

- 1. Start with highly sensitive test to detect C. difficile, if positive follow with a test to confirm toxin production
- If toxin test negative: Consider C. difficile colonization
- 2. Perform two tests simultaneously, one to detect the presence of C. difficile and one to detect toxin production
- Concordant results can reliably confirm (both tests positive) or exclude (both tests negative) infection
- If results conflict and patient is symptomatic, treatment should be based on the pre-test probability of C. difficile infection

Important: in case of confirmed CDI, do not repeat testing during the same episode and do not test to confirm the resolution of the infection at the end of treatment



### Other Laboratory Tests

Mild cases: Not usually needed

Severe cases:

· White blood cell count

· Creatinine and electrolytes



# **Imaging**

Usually not needed unless a complication is suspected; in these cases, consider abdominal CT

# **Pathogen**

#### C. difficile

- Gram-positive spore-forming bacterium widely present in the environment that can be acquired through ingestion of spores
- · Infection can be caused by strains producing toxins when the intestinal mucosa of the colon is inflamed and disrupted

• C. difficile toxigenic strain with a particular virulence that caused outbreaks in recent years especially in North America



### **Treatment**

## **Clinical Considerations**

- · Discontinue any other antibiotics except those treating C. difficile infection as soon as possible and adopt infection control measures to prevent transmission
- · Always recommend rehydration in patients with diarrhea; anti-diarrheal drugs not routinely necessary
- · Diarrhea may resolve slowly over days, but clinical deterioration of a patient on appropriate treatment should precipitate escalation of treatment and a surgical referral



### **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

10 days

# **Antibiotic Treatment**

Refers to a first episode, not recurrences (within 8 weeks of previous episode)

All dosages are for normal renal function

# First Choice



Metronidazole 500 mg q8h ORAL

#### Second Choice



Vancomycin 125 mg q6h ORAL

In severe cases: Oral vancomycin is preferred; vancomycin dose can be increased to 500 mg q6h and can be given in combination with IV metronidazole



# **Clostridioides difficile** infection (CDI)

Intra-abdominal infection • Page 1 of 2



### Definition

Infection of the colon caused by the bacterium *C. difficile* that occurs mostly in patients with current/recent antibiotic use and with regular exposure to healthcare settings



## **Pathogen**

#### C. difficile

- Gram-positive spore-forming bacterium widely present in the environment that can be acquired through ingestion of spores
- Infection can be caused by toxigenic strains when the intestinal mucosa of the colon is inflamed and disrupted

#### NAP1/027

• C. difficile toxigenic strain with a particular virulence that caused outbreaks in recent years especially in North America



## Diagnosis



### **Clinical Presentation**

Usually diarrhea (≥3 unformed/liquid stools in 24 hrs or more than normal for individual) with no other plausible cause +/- abdominal pain, cramping and fever

Severe cases (e.g. pseudomembranous colitis)

- Severe abdominal pain, high fever, organ dysfunction • Toxic megacolon presents with signs of acute surgical abdomen and/or sepsis (diarrhea is often absent)
- Clinical disease is rare in young children (esp. <2 years); they are often asymptomatic carriers



## **Other Laboratory Tests**

#### Mild cases:

· Not usually needed

#### Severe cases:

- · White blood cell count
- · Creatinine and electrolytes



### **Imaging**

Usually not needed unless a complication is suspected; in these cases, consider abdominal CT

# <u>C</u>

## Microbiology Tests

- Consider testing symptomatic patients with no other plausible reason for diarrhea especially if recent or current exposure to antibiotics
- Testing <1 year of age is not recommended due to high prevalence of colonization in this age group
- Currently no single test to diagnose CDI is completely reliable and the best approach remains controversial

#### Two commonly used approaches:

- 1. Start with highly sensitive test to detect *C. difficile*, if positive follow with a test to confirm toxin production
- If toxin test negative: Consider C. difficile colonization
- 2. Perform two tests simultaneously, one to detect the presence of *C. difficile* and one to detect toxin production
- Concordant results can reliably confirm (both tests
- positive) or exclude (both tests negative) infection
- if results conflict and patient is symptomatic, treatment should be based on the pre-test probability of *C. difficile* infection

**Important**: in case of confirmed CDI, do not repeat testing during the same episode and do not test to confirm the resolution of the infection at the end of treatment



# **Clostridioides difficile** infection (CDI)

Intra-abdominal infection • Page 2 of 2





# **Clinical Considerations**

- Discontinue any other antibiotics except those treating *C. difficile* infection as soon as possible and adopt infection control measures to prevent transmission
- Always recommend rehydration in patients with diarrhea; anti-diarrheal drugs not routinely necessary
- Diarrhea may resolve slowly over days, but clinical deterioration of a patient on appropriate treatment should precipitate escalation of treatment and a surgical referral



### **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

10 days

# 

First episode, not recurrences (within 8 weeks of previous episode)

All dosages are for normal renal function

#### First Choice



#### Metronidazole ORAL

- Neonates: 7.5 mg/kg/dose q12h
- Children: 7.5 mg/kg/dose q8h
- Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	30 mg q8h
6-<10 kg	50 mg q8h
10-<15 kg	100 mg q8h
15-<20 kg	150 mg q8h
20-<30 kg	200 mg q8h
≥30 kg	500 mg q8h

#### Second Choice



Vancomycin 5-10 mg/kg/dose q6h ORAL

**In severe cases**: Oral vancomycin is preferable to metronidazole



Urinary tract infection • Page 1 of 2

This chapter focuses on community-acquired pyelonephritis in patients with no catheter



### Definition

Infection of the kidneys (pyelonephritis) in which microorganisms ascend the urinary tract via the urethra, bladder, ureters or reach the kidneys through the bloodstream

### Classification based on complexity:

- Uncomplicated: Urinary tract infections (UTI) in individuals with no risk factors for complicated UTI
- Complicated: UTI in individuals with structural anomalies of the urinary tract (e.g. kidney stones, anatomical anomalies) or who are immunocompromised and in pregnant women are generally considered complicated (or at risk of complications). UTI in patients with urinary catheters or stents are also considered complicated (not discussed here)



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

#### Bacteria:

#### · Most common

- Enterobacterales (mostly *Escherichia coli* including multidrug resistant strains such as those producing ESBL and carbapenemases)

#### More rarely:

- Enterococcus spp.
- Streptococcus agalactiae (group B Streptococcus)
- Staphylococcus aureus (rare in uncomplicated UTI, usually in patients with urinary catheters, can be associated with bacteremia)
- -Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Acinetobacter baumannii (including multidrug-resistant strains especially in patients with recent antibiotic exposure or instrumentation of the urinary tract, rare in uncomplicated UTI)



## Diagnosis



## Clinical Presentation

- Flank pain, costovertebral angle tenderness, nausea and vomiting, fever and signs of systemic illness +/- symptoms of cystitis
- Severity varies from mild disease (most cases) that can be managed with oral treatment (no nausea/ vomiting, lowgrade fever) to severe cases requiring intravenous treatment and hospital admission



### **Other Laboratory Tests**

#### All cases (if upper UTI is suspected clinically):

• Urinalysis (dipstick or microscopy) to detect bacteriuria and/or indirect signs of infection (positive leucocyte esterase and nitrites)

### Additionally in severe cases:

- White blood cell count, C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin
- If sepsis is suspected consider additional laboratory tests (see sepsis infographic)

# <u>C</u>

# Microbiology Tests

### All cases (if upper UTI is suspected clinically):

- $\bullet \ Urine \ culture: I deally \ before \ starting \ antibiotic \ treatment$
- The test is considered positive when bacteria are above a certain minimum cut-off that can vary between laboratories
- A positive urine culture is not always a sign of urinary tract infection or an indication for antibiotic treatment (and urine can also become contaminated during sampling)

# Additionally in severe cases:

· Blood cultures: Ideally before starting antibiotic treatment

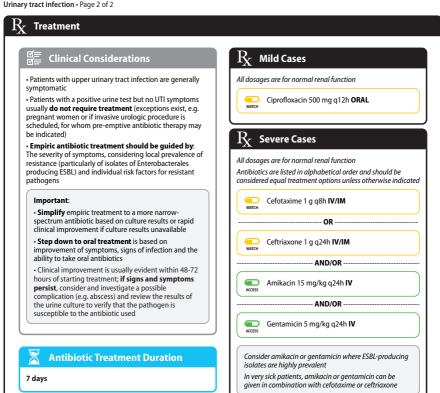


# Imaging

Routine imaging is not necessary but can be considered if urine flow is blocked or an abscess is suspected



Urinary tract infection • Page 2 of 2





Urinary tract infection • Page 1 of 2



### Definition

Infection of the kidneys (pyelonephritis) in which microorganisms ascend the urinary tract via the urethra, bladder, ureters or reach the kidneys through the bloodstream

#### Classification based on complexity:

- Uncomplicated: Urinary tract infections (UTI) in children with no risk factors for complicated UTI
- Complicated: More common in girls, infants and children with structural malformations of the urinary tract (e.g. vesicoureteral reflux or other congenital anomalies)



## **Most Likely Pathogens**

#### Bacteria:

#### Most common

- Enterobacterales (mostly Escherichia coli including multidrug resistant strains such as those producing ESBL and carbapenemases)
- More rarely:
- Enterococcus spp.
- Other Gram-negative bacilli (e.g. Klebsiella spp.)
- Staphylococcus aureus (rare in uncomplicated UTIs, usually in patients with urinary catheters)
- Group B Streptococcus (Streptococcus agalactiae)



# Diagnosis



## **Clinical Presentation**

- Fever is most common symptom, with irritability, vomiting and diarrhoea
- In older children (e.g. over 2 years of age) abdominal pain, urgency, frequency and dysuria are more common, along with flank pain/tenderness and increased wetting
- Severity varies from mild disease (most cases) that can be managed with oral treatment (no nausea/vomiting, lowgrade fever) to severe cases requiring intravenous treatment and hospital admission



# **Other Laboratory Tests**

#### All cases (if upper UTI is suspected clinically):

 Urinalysis (dipstick or microscopy) to detect bacteriuria and/or indirect signs of infection (positive leucocyte esterase and nitrites)

#### Additionally in severe cases:

- White blood cell count, C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin
- If sepsis is suspected consider additional laboratory tests (see sepsis infographic)

# 6

## **Microbiology Tests**

#### All cases (if upper UTI is suspected clinically):

- Urine culture: Ideally before starting antibiotic treatment
- The test is considered positive when bacteria are above a certain minimum cut-off that can vary between laboratories
- A positive urine culture is not always a sign of urinary tract infection or an indication for antibiotic treatment (and urine can also become contaminated during sampling)

#### Additionally in severe cases:

· Blood cultures: Ideally before starting antibiotic treatment



#### Imaging

Ultrasound is helpful if available





# **Treatment**

## **Clinical Considerations**

- · In young children with mild cases it is often difficult to clearly distinguish between lower and upper UTI, therefore oral options recommended for lower UTI can be used initially (if no need for IV treatment) or as step down treatment (see Lower Urinary Tract for antibiotic options)
- · Empiric antibiotic treatment should be guided by: The severity of symptoms, considering local prevalence of resistance (particularly of isolates of Enterobacterales producing ESBL) and individual risk factors for resistant pathogens

#### Important:

- · Simplify empiric treatment to a more narrowspectrum antibiotic based on culture results or rapid clinical improvement if culture results unavailable
- · Step down to oral treatment is based on improvement of symptoms, signs of infection and the ability to take oral antibiotics
- · Clinical improvement is usually evident within 48-72 hours of starting treatment; if signs and symptoms persist, consider and investigate a possible complication (e.g. abscess) and review the results of the urine culture to verify that the pathogen is susceptible to the antibiotic used



### Mild Cases

All dosages are for normal renal function



Ciprofloxacin 15 mg/kg/dose q12h IV/ORAL · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	50 mg q12h
6-<10 kg	100 mg q12h
10-<15 kg	150 mg q12h
15-<20 kg	200 mg q12h
20-<30 kg	300 mg q12h
≥30 kg	500 mg q12h



### **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

7 days

# $\mathbb{R}$ Severe Cases

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated



Cefotaxime 50 mg/kg/dose q8h IV/IM

OR

Ceftriaxone 80 mg/kg/dose q24h IV/IM

- AND/OR

Amikacin 15 mg/kg q24h IV

AND/OR

Gentamicin IV

· Neonates: 5 mg/kg/dose q24h

· Children: 7.5 mg/kg/dose g24h

Consider amikacin or gentamicin where ESBL-producing isolates are highly prevalent

In very sick patients, amikacin or gentamicin can be given in combination with cefotaxime or ceftriaxone

Ciprofloxacin has excellent oral bioavailability and the IV route should be reserved for patients with impaired gastrointestinal



Bone and joint infection • Page 1 of 2

This guidance does not cover prosthetic-joint infections in detail



## Definition

An infection of the bone characterized by inflammation and bone destruction

#### Classification based on:

- Mechanism of dissemination in the body: Through the bloodstream (less common in adults), local spread or direct
- · Duration of symptoms: Acute (days to weeks), chronic (months to years with presence of dead bone fragments)

## Consequences of classification for management:

- · Differences in the causative pathogens:
- Local spread: more variability in possible causative nathogens
- Spread through the bloodstream: more common with certain pathogens (e.g. S. aureus)
- · Necessity for surgery (e.g. dead bone, usually present in chronic infections, needs removal for antibiotic treatment to be successful)

# **Most Likely Pathogens**

#### Bacteria (most cases):

- · Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)
- · Staphylococcus spp. other than S. aureus
- Streptococcus spp. (mostly in patients with splenic dysfunction (S. pneumoniae))

#### Additionally in immunocompromised patients:

- · Candida spp.
- · Cryptococcus spp.
- Histoplasma spp.
- Mycobacterium tuberculosis
- Pseudomonas aeruainosa

# Consider in specific situations:

- · Acinetobacter baumannii (open fractures)
- · Bartonella spp. (history of cat bite wounds)
- · Brucella spp. (exposure to infected animals or ingestion of contaminated food, mostly dairy products)
- · Enterobacterales and anaerobes (pressure ulcers, diabetic foot infections, open fractures)
- Invasive non-typhoidal Salmonella spp. (sickle cell disease)



# Diagnosis



### **Clinical Presentation**

- Gradual onset of localized pain with redness, swelling, and warmth of the affected area +/- fever and other signs of systemic infection
- · If vertebral spine, hip and pelvis involved, pain is usually the main symptom
- · Suspect in case of defective healing of a fractured bone
- · Osteomyelitis can occur with/without septic arthritis
- Tuberculous osteomyelitis: consider when illness is chronic (less ill, less marked local signs), pus drains from the infected bone to the surface of the skin or patient has other signs of tuberculosis



## **Other Laboratory Tests**

#### To differentiate between bacterial and reactive viral infections

· White blood cell count

#### To detect inflammation:

- · C-reactive protein (CRP) and/or procalcitonin
- · Erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR could complement CRP especially during follow up)

#### To help exclude other bone diseases:

- Calcium, phosphate and alkaline phosphatase tests
- These tests are usually normal in osteomyelitis but abnormal in other bone diseases



### **Microbiology Tests**

#### All microbiology tests ideally before starting antibiotics

- Blood cultures
- · Microscopy and culture of bone biopsy material
- · Microscopy and culture of deep samples of tissue/bone collected during debridement to adjust empiric antibiotic treatment
  - It is important to determine the causative pathogen to adequately target antibiotic treatment because the number of potential pathogens is large and antibiotic resistant pathogens (e.g. MRSA) are not infrequent
  - · Samples should also be tested for special pathogens (e.g. mycobacteria, fungi, *Brucella* spp.) based on clinical/epidemiological features



### Imaging

- · X-ray of the affected bone
- Normal X-ray on admission does not rule out acute osteomyelitis but can help exclude alternative diagnosis
- · CT or MRI could also be considered if available
- MRI has a high sensitivity/specificity to detect bone changes (especially in early phase)



Bone and joint infection • Page 2 of 2

# **Treatment**

## **Clinical Considerations**

- Surgical treatment not required in most cases
- Surgical debridement of the bone can be considered in some selected cases to reduce the risk of complications
- · Prosthetic-joint infections: Surgical approach depends on the location of the prosthesis, characteristics of the patient and local practices

#### Antibiotic treatment:

- The intravenous route is preferred at least in the first week of treatment
- Targeted antibiotic treatment based on microbiology results always preferred (many potential causative pathogens and high levels of resistance)
- If empiric treatment is required consider most likely pathogens including local prevalence and individual risk factors for MRSA
- · Adjust therapy once microbiology results available

#### Important:

- · Simplify empiric treatment to a more narrowspectrum antibiotic based on culture results or rapid clinical improvement if culture results unavailable
- · Step down to oral treatment is based on improvement of symptoms, signs of infection and the ability to take oral antibiotics



### **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

#### 4 to 6 weeks

Based on:

- · Presence/absence of dead bone or foreign bodies
- · Causative organism and its resistance profile
- · Ability of the antibiotic to penetrate into bone tissues
- · Imaging studies are usually not useful to determine duration

# **Antibiotic Treatment**

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated

#### First Choice

Cloxacillin 2 g q6h IV

If cloxacillin is unavailable, any other IV antistaphylococcal penicillin could be used. A higher dose (e.g. 12 g/day) could be considered given the concerns with bone penetration

#### Second Choice

Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 1 g + 200 mg q8h IV

OR

Cefazolin 2 g g8h IV

Cefotaxime 2 g q8h IV

OR

OR

Ceftriaxone 2 g q24h IV

Ceftriaxone or cefotaxime are the preferred options if invasive non-typhoidal Salmonella or Enterobacterales infection is suspected

OR

Clindamycin 600 mg q8h IV/ORAL

Acceptable option for community-acquired-MRSA if MRSA is susceptible or in settings where MRSA maintains high levels of susceptibility to clindamycin, otherwise consider vancomycin



Bone and joint infection • Page 1 of 2



### **Definition**

An infection of the bone characterized by inflammation and bone destruction

#### Classification based on:

- Mechanism of dissemination in the body: Through the bloodstream (less common in adults), local spread or direct inoculation
- Duration of symptoms: Acute (days to weeks), chronic (months to years with presence of dead bone fragments)

### Consequences of classification for management:

- · Differences in the causative pathogens:
- Local spread: more variability in possible causative pathogens
- Spread through the bloodstream: more common with certain pathogens (e.g. *S. aureus*)
- Necessity for surgery (e.g. dead bone, usually present in chronic infections, needs removal for antibiotic treatment to be successful)



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

#### Bacteria (most cases):

- Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)
- Streptococcus spp. (mostly Group A Streptococcus)
- Kingella kingae (young children, usually with milder clinical disease)
- Haemophilus influenzae type b (young children not vaccinated against Hib)
- Invasive non-typhoidal *Salmonella* spp. (in children with sickle cell disease)
- · Acinetobacter baumannii (open fractures)

### Additional bacteria in immunocompromised children:

- · Enterobacterales (open fractures)
- · Pseudomonas aeruginosa



### Diagnosis



# **Clinical Presentation**

- Gradual onset of localized pain with redness, swelling, and warmth of the affected area +/- fever and other signs of systemic infection
- If vertebral spine, hip and pelvis involved, pain is usually the main symptom
- Suspect in case of defective healing of a fractured bone
- Osteomyelitis can occur with/without septic arthritis
- Tuberculous osteomyelitis: consider when illness is chronic (less ill, less marked local signs), pus drains from the infected bone to the surface of the skin or patient has other signs of tuberculosis



### **Other Laboratory Tests**

# To differentiate between bacterial and reactive viral infections:

White blood cell count

#### To detect inflammation:

- C-reactive protein (CRP)
- Erythrocyte sedimentation rate (could complement CRP especially during follow up)



# Microbiology Tests

#### All microbiology tests ideally before starting antibiotics

- Blood cultures
- · Microscopy and culture of bone biopsy material
- Microscopy and culture of deep samples of tissue/bone collected during debridement to adjust empiric antibiotic treatment
  - It is **important** to determine the causative pathogen to adequately target antibiotic treatment because the number of potential pathogens is large and antibitic resistant pathogens (e.g. MRSA) are not infrequent
  - Samples should also be tested for special pathogens (e.g. mycobacteria, fungi, *Brucella* spp.) based on clinical/epidemiological features



### Imaging

- · X-ray of the affected bone
- Normal X-ray on admission does not rule out acute osteomyelitis but can help exclude alternative diagnosis
- CT or MRI could also be considered if available
   MRI has a high sensitivity/specificity to detect bone changes (especially in early phase)



Bone and joint infection • Page 2 of 2

# Treatment



### **Clinical Considerations**

#### Surgical treatment not required in most cases

#### **Antibiotic Treatment**

- · The intravenous route is preferred at least in the first few days of treatment
- In children empiric treatment is common practice and S. aureus remains the most common pathogen
- In neonates, S. aureus is also the most common pathogen but empiric treatment should also cover Enterobacterales (very rare in older children)
- For Enterobacterales use:
- · Cefotaxime or
- · Ceftriaxone (not in infants with hyperbilirubinemia)

#### Important:

- · Simplify empiric treatment to a more narrowspectrum antibiotic based on culture results or rapid clinical improvement if culture results unavailable
- · Step down to oral treatment is based on improvement of symptoms, signs of infection and the ability to take oral antibiotics



## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Around 3 weeks in children with uncomplicated infections

- · Clinical recovery
- · Causative organism and its resistance profile

Imaging studies are usually not useful to determine duration

# R- Antibiotic Treatment

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated

#### First Choice



- · Neonates: 25-50 mg/kg/dose q12h
- · Children: 25 mg/kg/dose q6h
- ORAL: 15 mg/kg/dose q6h
- · Oral weight bands

3-<6 kg	62.5 mg q6h
6-<10 kg	125 mg q6h
10-<15 kg	250 mg q6h
15-<20 kg	375 mg q6h
≥20 kg	500 mg q6h

If cloxacillin is unavailable, any other IV antistaphylococcal penicillin could be used. For oral administration, dicloxacillin and flucloxacillin are preferred options within the class as they have better oral bioavailability

#### Second Choice



Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid

- · 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose of amoxicillin
- component q12h • > 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose of amoxicillin component q8h
- ORAL: 80-90 mg/kg/day of amoxicillin component
- · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	250 mg of amox/dose q12h
6-<10 kg	375 mg of amox/dose q12h
10-<15 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q12h
15-<20 kg	750 mg of amox/dose q12h
≥20 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q8h or
	1 g of amox/dose q12h

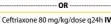
Amox = amoxicillin

Oral liquid must be refrigerated after reconstitution

- OR Cefazolin 25 mg/kg/dose q12h IV

OR-

Cefotaxime 50 mg/kg/dose q8h IV



Ceftriaxone or cefotaxime are the preferred options if invasive non-typhoidal Salmonella or Enterobacterales infection is suspected

OR-



Clindamycin IV

- · Neonates: 5 mg/kg/dose q8h
- · Children: 10 mg/kg/dose q8h

Acceptable option for community-acquired-MRSA if MRSA is susceptible or in settings where MRSA maintains high levels of susceptibility to clindamycin, otherwise consider vancomycin



Bone and joint infection • Page 1 of 2

This guidance does not cover prosthetic-joint infections in detail



## Definition

An infection of one or several joints, usually of bacterial origin

#### Gonococcal arthritis:

- · Rare complication of gonococcal infection (predominantly affects women)
- · Characterized by dissemination of the infection via the bloodstream

#### Classification based on:

- · Causative pathogen: Gonococcal or non-gonococcal
- · Type of affected joint: Large or small joint
- · Mechanism of dissemination in the body:
- Spread through the bloodstream (more common)
- Local spread or direct inoculation



### **Most Likely Pathogens**

#### Bacteria (most cases):

- · Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)
- · Staphylococcus spp. other than S. aureus
- · Streptococcus spp.

#### Additionally in immunocompromised patients:

- · Candida spp.
- Cryptococcus spp.
- · Histoplasma spp. Mvcobacterium tuberculosis
- Pseudomonas aeruainosa

#### Consider in specific situations:

- Acinetobacter baumannii (open skin wounds with exposed joint)
- Anaerobes (penetrating injuries)
- · Bartonella spp. (history of cat bite wounds)
- · Brucella spp. (exposure to infected animals or ingestion of
- contaminated food, mostly dairy products)
- · Enterobacterales (pressure ulcers, diabetic foot infections, and open skin wounds with exposed joint)
- · Neisseria gonorrhoeae (if gonococcal infection)



# Diagnosis



### **Clinical Presentation**

- · Acute onset (usually a few days, but up to 2 weeks) of joint pain and reduced range of motion with redness, swelling, warmth of the joint (may be less evident in "deep" joints) · Usually, a single joint is affected (often knee)
- · Polyarticular infection is more common in patients with
- underlying rheumatoid arthritis • Other signs of systemic infection are usually present
- · Septic arthritis can occur with/without osteomyelitis

#### Gonococcal arthritis:

- Typical signs and symptoms of septic arthritis (usually affecting knees and ankles) + skin manifestations (rash, small papules)
- Often no signs/symptoms of cervicitis/urethritis

Important: if left untreated, septic arthritis can rapidly lead to destruction of the cartilage; it therefore needs to be rapidly diagnosed and treated



## **Other Laboratory Tests**

#### To differentiate between bacterial and reactive viral infections:

White blood cell count (WBC)

#### To detect inflammation:

- · C-reactive protein (CRP)
- Erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR could complement CRP especially during follow up)

#### Synovial fluid examination:

- •WBC and microscopy for crystals
- •WBC usually >20 000 cells/ $\mu$ L (> 20 x 10 $^{9}$ /L) with >90% neutrophils

# **Microbiology Tests**

#### All microbiology tests ideally before starting antibiotics

- Blood cultures
- · Microscopy and culture of synovial fluid - Culture is usually negative in gonococcal arthritis
- · Microscopy and culture of deep samples of tissue collected during debridement in prosthetic joint implant to adjust empiric antibiotic treatment
- Nucleic acid amplification test of urogenital specimens and urine for Neisseria gonorrhoeae infection
  - It is important to determine the causative pathogen to adequately target antibiotic treatment because the number of potential pathogens is large and antibiotic resistant pathogens (e.g. MRSA) are not infrequent
  - · Samples should also be tested for special pathogens (e.g. mycobacteria, fungi, Brucella spp., Neisseria gonorrhoeae) based on clinical/epidemiological features



## Imaging

- · Ultrasound of the affected joint to detect joint effusion and synovial swelling (due to increased intra-articular fluid)
- · Consider MRI if available, especially if concomitant osteomyelitis is suspected (more sensitive/specific to detect bone changes)



Bone and joint infection • Page 2 of 2

# Treatment

# **Clinical Considerations**

- · Prompt surgical drainage of purulent material and lavage of the joint is a key part of the management of septic arthritis (antibiotic treatment alone is usually not sufficient) and can reduce risk of complications
- · Immobilization of the joint is not necessary except for pain
- · Prosthetic-joint infections: Surgical approach depends on the location of the prosthesis, characteristics of the patient and local practices

#### Antibiotic treatment:

- The intravenous route is preferred at least in the first week
- Targeted antibiotic treatment based on microbiology results always preferred (many potential causative pathogens and high levels of resistance)
- If empiric treatment is required consider most likely pathogens including local prevalence and individual risk factors for MRSA or N. gonorrhoeae based on individual risk
- · Adjust therapy once microbiology results available

#### Important

- · Simplify empiric treatment to a more narrowspectrum antibiotic based on culture results or rapid clinical improvement if culture results unavailable
- · Step down to oral treatment is based on improvement of symptoms, signs of infection and the ability to take oral antibiotics



#### **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

- · 4 to 6 weeks
- 2 weeks in case of gonococcal infection

- · Presence/absence/removal of foreign bodies
- · Causative organism and its resistance profile
- Presence/absence of osteomyelitis

# **Antibiotic Treatment**

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated

#### First Choice

Cloxacillin 2 g q6h IV

If cloxacillin is unavailable, any other IV antistaphylococcal penicillin could be used. A higher dose (e.g. 12 g/day) could be considered given the concerns with bone penetration

#### Second Choice

Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 1 g + 200 mg q8h IV

OR

Cefazolin 2 g g8h IV

OR

Cefotaxime 2 g q8h IV

OR

Ceftriaxone 2 g q24h IV

Ceftriaxone or cefotaxime are the preferred options if invasive non-typhoidal Salmonella or Enterobacterales infection is suspected

OR

Clindamycin 600 mg q8h IV/ORAL

Acceptable option for community-acquired-MRSA if MRSA is susceptible or in settings where MRSA maintains high levels of susceptibility to clindamycin, otherwise consider vancomycin



Bone and joint infection • Page 1 of 2



### **Definition**

An infection of one or several joints, usually of bacterial origin

#### Classification based on:

- · Type of affected joint: Large or small joint
- · Mechanism of dissemination in the body:
- Spread through the bloodstream (more common)
- Local spread or direct inoculation



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

#### Bacteria (most cases):

- · Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)
- Streptococcus spp. (mostly Group A Streptococcus)
- · Kingella kingae (young children, usually with milder clinical
- Haemophilus influenzae type b (young children not vaccinated against Hib)
- · Invasive non-typhoidal Salmonella spp. (in children with sickle cell disease)



### Diagnosis



## **Clinical Presentation**

- · Acute onset (usually a few days, but up to 2 weeks) of joint pain and reduced range of motion with redness, swelling. warmth of the joint (may be less evident in "deep" joints)
- Usually, a single joint is affected (often knee)
- Other signs of systemic infection are usually present
- Septic arthritis can occur alone or with osteomyelitis

Important: if left untreated, septic arthritis can rapidly lead to destruction of the cartilage (especially in young children); it therefore needs to be rapidly diagnosed and treated



#### Other Laboratory Tests

#### To differentiate between bacterial and reactive viral infections.

· White blood cell count (WBC)

### To detect inflammation:

- C-reactive protein (CRP)
- · Erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR could complement CRP especially during follow up)

#### Synovial fluid examination:

- · WBC and microscopy for crystals
- •WBC usually >20 000 cells/µL (> 20 x 109/L) with >90% neutrophils



# **Microbiology Tests**

#### All microbiology tests ideally before starting antibiotics

- Blood cultures
- · Microscopy and culture of synovial fluid
- Microscopy and culture of deep samples of tissue collected during debridement in case of prosthetic joint implant to adjust empiric antibiotic treatment
  - It is important to determine the causative pathogen to adequately target antibiotic treatment because the number of potential pathogens is large and antibiotic resistant pathogens (e.g. MRSA) are not infrequent
- · Samples should also be tested for special pathogens (e.g. mycobacteria, fungi, Brucella spp.) based on clinical/epidemiological features



# Imaging

- · Ultrasound of the affected joint to detect joint effusion and synovial swelling (due to increased intra-articular fluid)
- · Consider MRI if available, especially if concomitant osteomyelitis is suspected (more sensitive/specific to detect bone changes)



Bone and joint infection • Page 2 of 2

# Treatment

## **Clinical Considerations**

- · Prompt surgical drainage of purulent material and lavage of the joint can reduce risk of complications
- · Immobilization of the joint is not necessary except for pain
- Prosthetic-joint infections: Surgical approach depends on the location of the prosthesis, characteristics of the patient and local practices

#### Antibiotic treatment:

- The intravenous route is preferred at least in the first few days of treatment
- · In children empiric treatment is common practice
- · In neonates, empiric treatment should also cover Enterobacterales (very rare in older children)
- For Enterobacterales use:
- Cefotaxime or
- · Ceftriaxone (not in infants with hyperbilirubinemia)

#### Important:

- · Simplify empiric treatment to a more narrowspectrum antibiotic based on culture results or rapid clinical improvement if culture results unavailable
- · Step down to oral treatment is based on improvement of symptoms, signs of infection and the ability to take oral antibiotics
- · Early oral step down in the first week may be used in uncomplicated patients

# **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

## About 3 weeks

Based on:

- · Presence/absence/removal of foreign bodies
- · Causative organism and its resistance profile
- · Presence/absence of osteomyelitis

# $m R_{r}$ Antibiotic Treatment

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated

#### First Choice

# Cloxacillin IV

- · Neonates: 25-50 mg/kg/dose q12h
- · Children: 25 mg/kg/dose q6h
- ORAL: 15 mg/kg/dose q6h

Oral Weight Danas.	
3-<6 kg	62.5 mg q6h
6-<10 kg	125 mg q6h
10-<15 kg	250 mg q6h
15-<20 kg	375 mg q6h
≥20 kg	500 mg q6h

If cloxacillin is unavailable, any other IV antistaphylococcal penicillin could be used. For oral administration, dicloxacillin and flucloxacillin are preferred options within the class as they have better oral bioavailability

#### Second Choice



Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid

- · 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose of amoxicillin
- component q12h • > 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose of amoxicillin component q8h
- ORAL: 80-90 mg/kg/day of amoxicillin component
- · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	250 mg of amox/dose q12h
6-<10 kg	375 mg of amox/dose q12h
10-<15 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q12h
15-<20 kg	750 mg of amox/dose q12h
≥20 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q8h or
	1 g of amox/dose q12h

Amox = amoxicillin

Oral liquid must be refrigerated after reconstitution - OR

Cefazolin 25 mg/kg/dose q12h IV

OR

Cefotaxime 50 mg/kg/dose q8h IV

OR Ceftriaxone 80 mg/kg/dose q24h IV

Ceftriaxone or cefotaxime are the preferred options if invasive non-typhoidal Salmonella or Enterobacterales infection is suspected

OR



Clindamycin IV/ORAL

- · Neonates: 5 mg/kg/dose q8h
- · Children: 10 mg/kg/dose q8h

Acceptable option for community-acquired-MRSA if MRSA is susceptible or in settings where MRSA maintains high levels of susceptibility to clindamycin, otherwise consider vancomycin



Skin and soft tissue infection • Page 1 of 2



### **Definition**

Life-threatening necrotizing infection of the deep soft tissues affecting the muscular fascia; caused mostly by bacteria and characterized by acute/fulminant necrosis with tissue destruction and systemic signs of toxicity

#### Classification based on:

- Causative pathoaen:
- Type 1/polymicrobial
- Type 2/monomicrobial
- Presence or absence of gas in tissues
- For example, presence of gas is common in polymic robial infections
- · Involved site:
- Leg
- Head and neck
- Perineum (Fournier gangrene)
- · Risk of poor outcome:
- High versus moderate risk



## **Most Likely Pathogens**

#### Monomicrobial / Type 2:

### · Most cases:

- Streptococcus pyogenes (group A Streptococcus)
- Streptococcus agalactiae (group B Streptococcus)
- Streptococcus dysgalactiae (mostly in elderly and chronically ill patients)

#### · Less frequently:

- Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)
- · Specific environmental exposures:
- Aeromonas hydrophila (freshwater)
- Vibrio vulnificus (seawater)

#### Polymicrobial / Type 1:

- Anaerobes (e.g. Bacteroides spp., Clostridium perfringens, Peptostreptococcus spp. or mouth anaerobes when head/neck involved)
- Enterobacterales
- · Pseudomonas spp.
- Streptococcus spp.
- · Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)

### **Diagnosis**

#### **Clinical Presentation**

· Acute onset of localized pain out of proportion to physical findings accompanied by rapid onset of systemic signs

- · Signs and symptoms of skin and soft tissue infections (redness, warmth, swelling) usually present when portal of entry is the skin but severe pain is the main symptom; rapid progression of redness, ecchymosis and bullae is also suggestive
- · Definitive diagnosis requires direct visualization of necrotic tissue in the muscular fascia through surgicalexploration

#### Fournier gangrene:

· Severe pain accompanied by signs of necrosis in the perineal area; rapid progression of the infection to the abdominal wall and gluteal muscles is possible

## **Microbiology Tests**

· Blood cultures (ideally before starting antibiotics)

· Microscopy and culture of deep samples of tissue collected at debridement to adjust empiric antibiotic treatment

## Other Laboratory Tests

Determine disease severity and help identify a bacterial infection: White blood cell count, C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin

· If sepsis is suspected consider additional laboratory tests (see sepsis infographic)

#### Initial evaluation for suspected necrotizing fasciitis:

- Complete blood count
- Creatinine
- Electrolytes
- Glucose

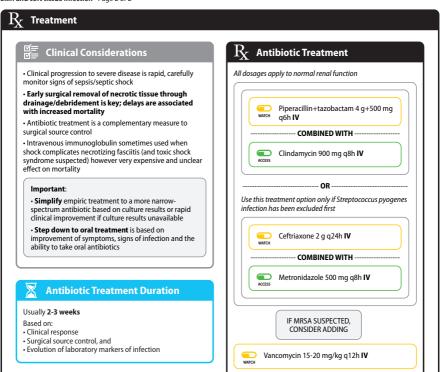
# Imaging

- Ultrasound may be helpful to evaluate the extent of the affected tissue and gas and fluid along the muscular fascia
- Consider CT scan of the affected area

Imaging should not delay surgical exploration/inspection since surgery is the best way to diagnose/treat this infection



Skin and soft tissue infection • Page 2 of 2





Skin and soft tissue infection • Page 1 of 2



### **Definition**

Life-threatening necrotizing infection of the deep soft tissues, specifically affecting the muscular fascia; caused mostly by bacteria and characterized by acute/fulminant necrosis with tissue destruction and systemic signs of toxicity

#### Classification based on:

- Causative pathoaen:
- Type 1/polymicrobial
- Type 2/monomicrobial
- Presence or absence of gas in tissues
- For example, presence of gas is common in polymic robial infections
- Involved site:
- Leg
- Head and neck
- Perineum (Fournier gangrene)
- · Risk of poor outcome:
- High versus moderate risk



### **Most Likely Pathogens**

#### Monomicrobial / Type 2:

#### Most cases:

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#### · Less frequently:

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- · Specific environmental exposures:
- Aeromonas hydrophila (freshwater)
- Vibrio vulnificus (seawater)

#### Polymicrobial / Type 1:

- Anaerobes (e.g. Bacteroides spp., Clostridium perfringens, Peptostreptococcus spp. or mouth anaerobes when head/neck involved)
- Enterobacterales
- · Pseudomonas spp.
- Streptococcus spp.
- · Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA)

### **Diagnosis**

#### **Clinical Presentation**

· Very rare, may occur as a complication of varicella/chicken pox (or associated with a compromised immune system)

- · Most elements described for adults also apply to children, but certain specificities exist:
- Areas affected: torso (neonates and infants); extremities and face (older children)
- Early signs and symptoms: fever ≥ 38.0 °C, redness/skin discolouration, localized swelling, marked tenderness and pain of the affected area



### **Microbiology Tests**

- · Blood cultures (ideally before starting antibiotics)
- · Microscopy and culture of deep samples of tissue collected at debridement to adjust empiric antibiotic treatment



## **Other Laboratory Tests**

Determine disease severity and help identify a bacterial infection: White blood cell count, C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin

 If sepsis is suspected consider additional laboratory tests (see sepsis infographic)

#### Initial evaluation for suspected necrotizing fasciitis:

- Complete blood count
- Creatinine
- Electrolytes
- Glucose



### Imaging

Imaging should not delay surgical exploration/inspection since surgery is the best way to diagnose/treat this infection

- · Ultrasound may be helpful to evaluate the extent of the
- affected tissue and gas and fluid along the muscular fascia
- · Consider CT scan of the affected area



Skin and soft tissue infection • Page 2 of 2



# **Treatment**

## **Clinical Considerations**

- · Clinical progression to severe disease is rapid, carefully monitor signs of sepsis/septic shock
- · Early surgical removal of necrotic tissue through drainage/debridement is key; delays associated with increased mortality
- · Antibiotic treatment is a complementary measure to surgical source control
- Intravenous immunoglobulin sometimes used when shock complicates necrotizing fasciitis (and toxic shock syndrome suspected) however very expensive and unclear effect on mortality

#### Important:

- · Simplify empiric treatment to a more narrowspectrum antibiotic based on culture results or rapid clinical improvement if culture results unavailable
- · Step down to oral treatment is based on improvement of symptoms, signs of infection and the ability to take oral antibiotics



#### **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

#### Usually 2-3 weeks

### Based on:

- · Clinical response
- · Surgical source control, and
- · Evolution of laboratory markers of infection

# **Antibiotic Treatment**

All dosages apply to normal renal function

dose of piperacillin component q8h IV

Clindamycin IV

· Neonates: 5 mg/kg/dose q8h

· Children: 10 mg/kg/dose q8h

COMBINED WITH

Piperacillin+tazobactam 100 mg/kg/

#### OR

Use this treatment option only if Streptococcus pyogenes infection has been excluded first

Ceftriaxone 80 mg/kg/dose g24h IV

#### COMBINED WITH

# Metronidazole IV/ORAL

- · Neonates: 7.5 mg/kg/dose q12h (for IV starting with a loading dose of 15 mg/kg)
- · Children: 7.5 mg/kg/dose q8h
- · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	30 mg q8h
6-<10 kg	50 mg q8h
10-<15 kg	100 mg q8h
15-<20 kg	150 mg q8h
20-<30 kg	200 mg q8h
≥30 kg	500 mg q8h

IF MRSA SUSPECTED, **CONSIDER ADDING** 



Vancomycin IV

- · Neonates: 15 mg/kg/dose q12h
- · Children: 15 mg/kg/dose q8h



# **Pyomyositis**

Skin and soft tissue infection



### **Definition**

An infection of a skeletal muscle caused by bacteria usually accompanied by abscess formation



### Diagnosis



### Clinical Presentation

- Acute onset of localized muscle pain with cramping usually in the lower limbs/gluteal muscles with fever ≥ 38.0 °C +/- swelling and induration of the affected area
- Other signs of systemic infection are usually present (e.g. tachycardia, leukocytosis)
- · Abscess can form within days/weeks
- · Signs of severe clinical progression (e.g. signs of sepsis/septic shock) should always be carefully monitored
- · Complications due to bacteremia can occur (e.g. septic emboli, septic arthritis, endocarditis)



### **Microbiology Tests**

- · Blood cultures (ideally before starting antibiotics)
- · Microscopy and culture of abscess fluid material (if this can be drained) to adjust empiric antibiotic treatment



## Other Laboratory Tests

Determine disease severity and help identify a bacterial infection: White blood cell count, C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin



## **Imaging**

Initial X-ray is important to localize the site and extent of the infection and/or to exclude alternative diagnosis

- · Ultrasound is helpful to detect the presence of abscess (and to guide its drainage)
- · If available, also consider MRI or CT-scan because of their higher sensitivity to identify muscle swelling (i.e. inflammation) and the presence of purulent material



### **Most Likely Pathogens**

- · Staphylococcus aureus (>90%, including MRSA\*)
- \*Some strains can produce the Panton-Valentine leukocidin, a toxin that can cause a more severe disease. Consider especially in case of recurrent skin infections (decolonization measures can be considered to prevent recurrence and
- · Streptococcus spp. (mostly Streptococcus pyogenes)
- Escherichia coli (sometimes, especially in oncology patients)

# **Treatment**



# Clinical Considerations

· Drainage of the abscess remains the main approach to eliminate the source of infection

- · Drainage is also important to obtain material for culture and identify the causative pathogen and its resistance profile
- · Mild: Targeted antibiotic treatment preferred after having obtained culture results
- · Severe or impossible to obtain a clinical sample for microbiological examination: Empiric treatment considering most likely pathogens including local prevalence and individual risk factors for MRSA

#### Important:

- · Simplify empiric treatment to a more narrowspectrum antibiotic based on culture results or rapid clinical improvement if culture results unavailable
- · Step down to oral treatment is based on improvement of symptoms, signs of infection and the ability to take oral antibiotics



### **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

#### Treat for 2-3 weeks

- · 2 weeks in otherwise healthy patients and adequate source control
- · 3 weeks if source control is not optimal or underlying

## R Antibiotic Treatment

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated

Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 1 g+200 mg g8h IV OR 875 mg+125 mg q8h ORAL

OR



Cefalexin 500 mg q8h ORAL



Cloxacillin 2 g g6h IV OR 500 mg g6h ORAL

If cloxacillin is unavailable, any other IV antistaphylococcal penicillin could be used. For oral administration, dicloxacillin and flucloxacillin are preferred options within the class as they have better oral bioavailability



# **Pyomyositis**

Skin and soft tissue infection • Page 1 of 2



### **Definition**

An infection of a skeletal muscle caused by bacteria usually accompanied by abscess formation



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

- Staphylococcus aureus (>90%, including MRSA\*)
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- · Streptococcus spp. (mostly Streptococcus pyogenes)
- · Escherichia coli (sometimes, especially in oncology patients)

# Diagnosis

### **Clinical Presentation**

- · Acute onset of localized muscle pain with cramping usually in the lower limbs/gluteal muscles with fever ≥ 38.0 °C +/- swelling and induration of the affected area
- · Other signs of systemic infection are usually present (e.g. tachycardia, leukocytosis)
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- · Signs of severe clinical progression (e.g. signs of sepsis/septic shock) should always be carefully monitored
- · Complications due to bacteremia can occur (e.g. septic emboli, septic arthritis, endocarditis)



### **Microbiology Tests**

- · Blood cultures (ideally before starting antibiotics)
- Microscopy and culture of abscess fluid material (if this can be drained) to adjust empiric antibiotic treatment



## Other Laboratory Tests

Determine disease severity and help identify a bacterial infection: White blood cell count, C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin



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Initial X-ray is important to localize the site and extent of the infection and/or to exclude alternative diagnosis

- · Ultrasound is helpful to detect the presence of abscess (and to guide its drainage)
- If available, also consider MRI or CT-scan because of their higher sensitivity to identify muscle swelling (i.e. inflammation) and the presence of purulent material



# **Pyomyositis**

Skin and soft tissue infection • Page 2 of 2

# **Treatment**

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### **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

#### Treat for 2-3 weeks

- 2 weeks in otherwise healthy patients and adequate source control
- 3 weeks if source control is not optimal or underlying diseases

# **Antibiotic Treatment**

All dosages are for normal renal function

Antibiotics are listed in alphabetical order and should be considered equal treatment options unless otherwise indicated



#### Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid IV٠

- 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose of amoxicillin component q12h
- > 1st week of life: 50 mg/kg/dose of amoxicillin component q8h
- ORAL: 80-90 mg/kg/day of amoxicillin component
- · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	250 mg of amox/dose q12h
6-<10 kg	375 mg of amox/dose q12h
10-<15 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q12h
15-<20 kg	750 mg of amox/dose q12h
≥20 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q8h or 1 g of amox/dose q12h

Amox = amoxicillin

Oral liquid must be refrigerated after reconstitution

#### -- OR

# Cefalexin 25 mg/kg/dose q12h ORAL

#### · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	125 mg q12h
6-<10 kg	250 mg q12h
10-<15 kg	375 mg q12h
15-<20 kg	500 mg q12h
20-<30 kg	625 mg q12h
≥30 kg	500 mg q8h

#### OR



#### Cloxacillin IV

• Neonates: 25-50 mg/kg/dose q12h

- · Children: 25 mg/kg/dose q6h
- · ORAL: 15 mg/kg/dose q6h
- · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	62.5 mg q6h
6-<10 kg	125 mg q6h
10-<15 kg	250 mg q6h
15-<20 kg	375 mg q6h
≥20 kg	500 mg q6h

If cloxacillin is unavailable, any other IV antistaphylococcal penicillin could be used. For oral administration, dicloxacillin and flucloxacillin are preferred options within the class as they have better oral bioavailability



Page 1 of 2

This quidance covers suspected bacterial infections in neutropenic patients (including neutropenic sepsis) but not antiviral or antifungal treatment nor antibiotic prophylaxis for patients with afebrile neutropenia or prophylaxis with granulocyte colonystimulating factors



### Definition

- · A severe syndrome that can occur in patients with neoplastic diseases receiving cytotoxic myelosuppressive chemotherapy
- Two elements need to be considered:
- Fever: Body temperature ≥ 38.0 °C
- Neutropenia: Temporary reduction of the absolute neutrophil count (ANC) <1000 cells/μL (<1.0 x 109/L)

#### Severity-

- Severe neutropenia: ANC <500 cells/µL (<0.5 x 109/L)
- Profound neutropenia: ANC <100 cells/uL (<0.1 x 10<sup>9</sup>/L)

#### Categorized by risk of developing severe infections (requiring or prolonging hospitalization):

- . Low risk: ≤7 days of severe neutropenia and no ongoing comorbidities (beside cancer) or renal or hepatic disfunction
- · High risk: >7 days of severe neutropenia and ongoing comorbidities (béside cancer) or renal or hepatic disfunction

Note: these are ways to classify neutropenia and narrow down the differential diagnosis

#### Characterized according to identification of causative pathogen and source of infection:

- 1. Microbiologically proven infection (causative pathogen identified)
- 2. Clinical source of infection diagnosed but no pathogen identified (e.g. pharyngitis)
- 3. Unexplained fever (no pathogen identified and no clear source of infection) (most common scenario)
- 4. Non-infectious fever (e.g. drug-induced)



### **Most Likely Pathogens**

Mostly bacteria that colonize patient's own skin and bowel including multidrug-resistant organisms

### Gram-positive bacteria:

- · Staphylococcus spp. (including MRSA)
- · Streptococcus spp.
- Enterococcus spp. (including vancomycin-resistant Enterococci)

#### Gram-negative bacteria:

 Enterobacterales and Pseudomonas aeruginosa (including ESBL and carbapenemase-producing strains)

#### Other pathogens:

- Anaerobes
- Consider fungi (mostly Candida albicans and Aspergillus spp.) and viruses (e.g. cytomegalovirus, human herpesvirus 6) if longer duration of neutropenia

## Diagnosis

#### **Clinical Presentation**

- · Presentation is highly variable depending on the underlying infection
- · Fever is usually present but because patients with neutropenia fail to produce effective inflammatory responses, they can sometimes present with few clinical findings and no fever despite infection
- · Clinical progression to severe disease or death can be very rapid (over a few hours); signs of sepsis/septic shock should always be carefully monitored



# **Microbiology Tests**

Important: microbiology tests to consider in the initial assessment depend on the most likely source of infection and should ideally be taken before starting antibiotic treatment

#### Always obtain:

- Blood cultures
- Urine culture

## In selected cases, consider:

- Sputum microscopy and culture Nasopharyngeal swab for nucleic acid test for influenza
- and other respiratory viruses (including SARS-CoV-2)
- Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) microscopy and bacterial culture
- Stool culture
- · C. difficile testing
- Tests to diagnose invasive fungal infections and other viral etiologies (especially in high-risk patients)



# **Other Laboratory Tests**

**Important**: tests to consider in the initial assessment depend on the most likely source of infection

Complete blood count, bilirubin, creatinine, electrolytes, blood pH and gases, whole blood lactate, C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin

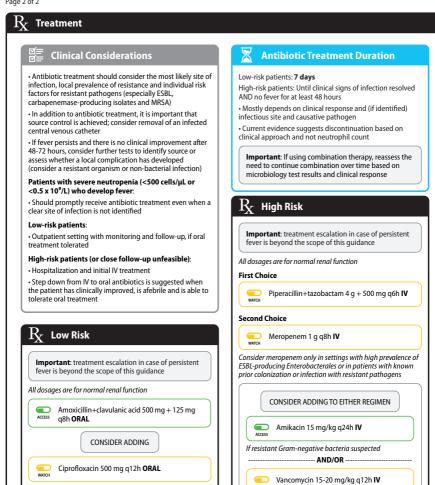


### Imaging

- · Consider imaging in initial assessment to identify the source of infection (depending on clinical presentation)
- · Consider additional imaging to expand diagnostic workup or to exclude a complicated infection if no clinical improvement after a few days of treatment



Page 2 of 2



If MRSA suspected



Page 1 of 2

This guidance covers suspected bacterial infections in neutropenic patients (including neutropenic sepsis) but not antiviral or antients meatment nor antibiotic prophylaxis for patients with afebrile neutropenia or prophylaxis with granulocyte colonystimulating factors

# ?

### Definition

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#### Other pathogens:

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- Consider fungi (mostly *Candida albicans* and *Aspergillus* spp.) and viruses (e.g. cytomegalovirus, human herpesvirus 6) if longer duration of neutropenia

# 2

### Diagnosis

### Q

#### Clinical Presentation

- Presentation is highly variable depending on the underlying infection
- Fever is usually present but symptoms and signs are masked and a child can present with no fever and few signs despite infection
- Clinical progression to severe disease or death can be very rapid (over a few hours); signs of sepsis/septic shock should always be carefully monitored



### **Microbiology Tests**

Important: microbiology tests to consider in the initial assessment depend on the most likely source of infection and should ideally be taken before starting antibiotic treatment

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- Urine culture

# In selected cases, consider:

- Sputum microscopy and culture
  Nasopharyngeal swab for nucleic acid test for influenza
- and other respiratory viruses (including SARS-CoV-2)
- Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) microscopy and bacterial culture
   Stool culture
- Stool culture
- · C. difficile testing
- Tests to diagnose invasive fungal infections and other viral etiologies (especially in high-risk patients)

# ann.

# **Other Laboratory Tests**

**Important**: tests to consider in the initial assessment depend on the most likely source of infection

• Complete blood count, bilirubin, creatinine, electrolytes, blood pH and gases, whole blood lactate, C-reactive protein and/or procalcitonin



### **Imaging**

 $\bullet$  Consider imaging in initial assessment to identify the source of infection (depending on clinical presentation)

 Consider additional imaging - CT chest and abdominal ultrasound to expand diagnostic work-up or to exclude a complicated infection if no clinical improvement after a few days of treatment



Page 2 of 2

# **Treatment**

### **Clinical Considerations**

- · Antibiotic treatment should consider the most likely site of infection, local prevalence of resistance and individual risk factors for resistant pathogens (especially ESBL, carbapenemase-producing isolates and MRSA)
- In addition to antibiotic treatment, it is important that source control is achieved: consider removal of an infected Central Venous Catheter
- · If fever persists and there is no clinical improvement after 48-72 hours, consider further tests to identify source or assess whether a local complication has developed (consider a resistant organism or non-bacterial infection)

#### Patients with severe neutropenia (<500 cells/µL or <0.5 x 109/L) who develop fever:

· Should promptly receive antibiotic treatment even when a clear site of infection is not identified

· Outpatient setting with monitoring and follow-up, if oral treatment tolerated

## High-risk patients (or close follow-up unfeasible):

- · Hospitalization and initial IV treatment
- Step down from IV to oral antibiotics is suggested when the patient has clinically improved, is afebrile and is able to tolerate oral treatment

# Low Risk

All dosages are for normal renal function



Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 80-90 mg/kg/day of amoxicillin component ORAL · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	250 mg of amox/dose q12h
6-<10 kg	375 mg of amox/dose q12h
10-<15 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q12h
15-<20 kg	750 mg of amox/dose q12h
≥20 kg	500 mg of amox/dose q8h or 1 g of amox/dose q12h

#### Amox = amoxicillin

Oral liquid must be refrigerated after reconstitution

CONSIDER ADDING



Ciprofloxacin 15 mg/kg/dose g12h ORAL · Oral weight bands:

3-<6 kg	50 mg q12h
6-<10 kg	100 mg q12h
10-<15 kg	150 mg q12h
15-<20 kg	200 mg q12h
20-<30 kg	300 mg q12h
≥30 kg	500 mg q12h

## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Low-risk patients: 7 days

High-risk patients: Until clinical signs of infection resolved AND no fever for at least 48 hours

- · Mostly depends on clinical response and (if identified) infectious site and causative pathogen
- Current evidence suggests discontinuation based on
- clinical approach and not neutrophil count

Important: If using combination therapy, reassess the need to continue combination over time based on microbiology test results and clinical response

# **High Risk**

All dosages are for normal renal function

#### First Choice



Piperacillin+tazobactam 100 mg/kg/dose of piperacillin component q8h IV

#### Second Choice



Meropenem 20 mg/kg/dose g8h IV

Consider meropenem only in settings with high prevalence of ESBL-producing Enterobacterales or in patients with known prior colonization or infection with resistant pathogens

#### CONSIDER ADDING TO EITHER REGIMEN



Amikacin 15 mg/kg q24h IV

If resistant Gram-negative bacteria suspected

#### --- AND/OR -

Vancomycin IV

- · Neonates: 15 mg/kg/dose q12h
  - · Children: 15 mg/kg/dose q8h

If MRSA suspected



Page 1 of 2

Antibiotic prophylaxis prior to dental surgeries is not addressed



# Definition

Prevention of infectious complications by administering an effective antibiotic before exposure to contamination during surgery

#### Types of surgical procedures:

- Clean: Respiratory, alimentary, genital or urinary tracts are not entered during surgery
- Clean-contaminated: Respiratory, alimentary, genital or urinary tracts are entered under controlled conditions and without unusual contamination
- **Contaminated**: Significant interruptions in sterile technique or gross spillage from the gastrointestinal tract

WHO guidelines for the prevention of surgical site infections: https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/277399



# **Most Likely Pathogens**

Depends on the anatomical site of the procedure; often bacteria belonging to the human microbiota

# $P_{\mathbf{X}}$

# Antibiotic Prophylaxis Before Surgical Procedures (Section 1 of 2)



# **Clinical Considerations**

- Choice of antibiotic prophylaxis depends on the type and anatomical site of surgical procedure
- Patients colonized with multidrug-resistant Gramnegative bacteria: Lack of high-quality evidence to support expanding the spectrum of antibiotic prophylaxis; decisions usually made on a case-by-case basis
- Patients colonized with MRSA who will have a skin incision: Consider adding vancomycin to the routinely recommended surgical regimen



# **Timing of Antibiotic Prophylaxis**

#### 120 minutes or less before starting surgery

Single dose before surgery. Do not continue the antibiotic after the surgical procedure to prevent infection. Consider an additional dose only for prolonged procedures or if major blood loss.



# **Bowel Surgery**

Includes appendectomy, small intestine and colorectal surgical procedures

All dosages are for normal renal function

#### First Choice



Cefazolin 2 g single dose IV

#### - COMBINED WITH



Metronidazole 500 mg single dose IV

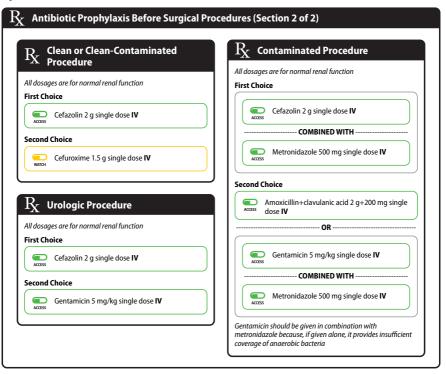
#### Second Choice



Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 2 g+200 mg single



Page 2 of





Page 1 of 2

Antibiotic prophylaxis prior to dental surgeries is not addressed



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Prevention of infectious complications by administering an effective antibiotic before exposure to contamination during surgery

#### Types of surgical procedures:

- Clean: Respiratory, alimentary, genital or urinary tracts are not entered
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Depends on the anatomical site of the procedure; often bacteria belonging to the human microbiota

# $R_{\!\!\mathbf{X}}$

# Antibiotic Prophylaxis Before Surgical Procedures (Section 1 of 2)



# **Clinical Considerations**

- Choice of antibiotic prophylaxis depends on the type and anatomical site of surgical procedure
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# **Timing of Antibiotic Prophylaxis**

#### 120 minutes or less before starting surgery

Single dose before surgery. Do not continue the antibiotic after the surgical procedure to prevent infection. Consider an additional dose only for prolonged procedures or if major blood loss.



# **Bowel Surgery**

Includes appendectomy, small intestine and colorectal surgical procedures

All dosages are for normal renal function

#### First Choice



Cefazolin 50 mg/kg single dose IV

#### - COMBINED WITH



Metronidazole 7.5 mg/kg single dose IV

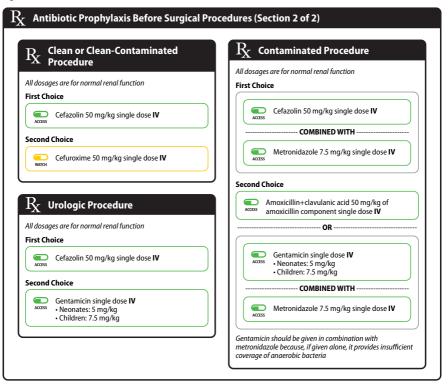
#### Second Choice

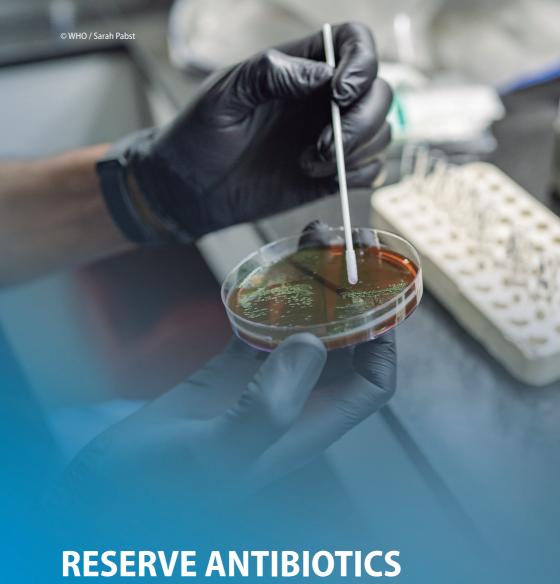


Amoxicillin+clavulanic acid 50 mg/kg of amoxicillin component single dose IV



Page 2 of







# Cefiderocol

### Pharmacology

- · Siderophore cephalosporin
- · Mechanism of action: Inhibition of bacterial enzymes responsible for cell-wall synthesis



# **Indications for Use**



# **Targeted Treatment**

- · Severe infections caused by laboratory-confirmed carbapenem-resistant Enterobacterales and/or P. aeruginosa (particularly infections caused by MBL-producing pathogens)
  - Caution needed with A. baumannii infections because of higher mortality than best available alternative therapy described in a clinical trial
  - (https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/33058795/)



# **Empiric Use**

- · Only in very selected cases of seriously ill patients (e.g. sepsis/septic shock):
- who have not responded to carbapenems if other causes of treatment failure have been excluded first and there is strong suspicion that the infection is caused by a carbapenem-resistant pathogen (especially in settings with a high prevalence of MBL-producing pathogens)
- who have previously been treated for infections caused by carbapenem-resistant pathogens susceptible to
- who are known to be colonized with carbapenemresistant pathogens susceptible to cefiderocol



# **Important Considerations**

- · Efficacy demonstrated in clinical trials for empiric use for complicated UTI, VAP/HAP, BSI and sepsis in adults
- · Very limited evidence for other infections and use in children



### **Formulations**

· Powder for intravenous infusion: 1 g/vial

# **Spectrum of Activity**

#### · Active against:

- Aerobic Gram-negative bacteria including many carbapenem resistant Enterobacterales, Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Acinetobacter baumannii
- · Carbapenemases: KPC, OXA-48 and MBLs
- ESBL and AmpC B-lactamases

#### Not active against:

- Gram-positive bacteria and anaerobes
- Emerging resistance to cefiderocol in Enterobacterales,
- A. baumanii and P. aeruginosa:
- The proportion of isolates resistant to cefiderocol is low but data is very limited



Well tolerated with side effects similar to other beta-lactams (mostly gastrointestinal)



#### Dose



#### **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

- · Treatment duration varies according to indication and should be as short as possible
- Usually between 7-14 days



### **Adults**

Dosage is for normal renal function; dose adjustment required in case of renal impairment



Cefiderocol 2 g q8h IV



## **Children or Neonates**

No data for children or neonates



# Ceftazidime+avibactam

# Pharmacology

· Combination of a third-generation cephalosporin (ceftazidime) and a novel non-β-lactam β-lactamase inhibitor (avibactam)

#### · Mechanism of action:

- Ceftazidime inhibits bacterial enzymes responsible for cell wall synthesis
- Avibactam inactivates certain serine β-lactamases, protecting ceftazidime from degradation



### Indications for Use



# **Targeted Treatment**

· Severe infections caused by laboratory-confirmed carbapenem-resistant Enterobacterales or P. aeruginosa (not A. baumannii) susceptible to ceftazidime+avibactam (CAZ-AVI)



## **Empiric Use**

- · Only in very select cases of seriously ill patients (e.g. patients with sepsis/septic shock):
- who have not responded to carbapenems if other causes of treatment failure have been excluded first and there is strong suspicion that the infection is caused by a carbapenem-resistant pathogen
- who have previously been treated for infections caused by carbapenem-resistant pathogens susceptible to CAZ-AVI
- who are known to be colonized with carbapenemresistant pathogens susceptible to CAZ-AVI



### **Important Considerations**

- · When used to treat complicated intra-abdominal infections CAZ-AVI should be given with metronidazole due to its unpredictable activity against anaerobes
- · Since it is not active against MBLs, it is important to know the local epidemiology of the most prevalent genotypes for aerobic Gram-negative bacteria



#### **Formulations**

• Powder for intravenous infusion: 2 g + 500 mg in vial



## **Toxicity**

- · Side effects are similar to those previously reported for ceftazidime alone
- The most frequent are diarrhoea, nausea and vomiting

# Spectrum of Activity

#### · Active against:

- Aerobic Gram-negative bacteria including ceftazidimeresistant and many carbapenem-resistant Enterobacterales and Pseudomonas aeruginosa
- Carbapenemases: KPC and OXA-48
- ESBL and AmpC B-lactamases

#### Variable activity against:

- Streptococcus spp.
- Staphylococcus spp. - Anaerobes
- Not active against:
- MBL-producing Gram-negative bacteria (inactive against NDM, VIM, IMP carbapenemases unless co-prescribed with aztreonam)
- Enterococcus spp.
- Acinetobacter spp.
- · Emerging resistance to CAZ-AVI in Enterobacterales and Pseudomonas aeruginosa:
  - The proportion of isolates resistant to CAZ-AVI is low (higher for P. aeruginosa) with geographical variability



## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

- Treatment duration varies according to indication and should be as short as possible
- · Usually between 7-14 days



# **Adults**

Dosage is for normal renal function; dose adjustment required in case of renal impairment



Ceftazidime+avibactam 2.5 g (2 g ceftazidime

+ 500 mg avibactam) q8h IV

# Children

Dosage is for normal renal function; dose adjustment required in case of renal impairment



Ceftazidime+avibactam 62.5 mg/kg/dose q8h IV (50 mg/kg/dose ceftazidime + 12.5 mg/kg/dose avibactam)

Max: 2 g ceftazidime + 500 mg avibactam per dose



# **Fosfomycin**

This infographic only addresses the IV formulation of fosfomycin. Oral formulations are not currently included in the EML/EMLc



# Pharmacology

- · Belongs to the phosphonic acid class of antibiotics
- · Mechanism of action: Inhibition of bacterial enzymes responsible for cell-wall synthesis



# **Indications for Use**



# **Targeted Treatment**

- · Severe infections caused by laboratory-confirmed carbapenem-resistant Enterobacterales or Pseudomonas aeruginosa susceptible to fosfomycin
- Salvage therapy for otherwise untreatable infections caused by MRSA and vancomycin-resistant Enterococcus (VRE) susceptible to fosfomycin



# **Empiric Use**

- · Only in very select cases of seriously ill patients (e.g. sepsis/septic shock):
- who have not responded to carbapenems if other causes of treatment failure have been excluded and there is strong suspicion that the infection is caused by a carbapenem-resistant pathogen
- who have previously been treated for infections caused by carbapenem-resistant pathogens susceptible to
- who are known to be colonized with carbapenemresistant pathogens susceptible to fosfomycin



# **Important Considerations**

- · Usually given in combination with other antibiotics due to concerns about the rapid emergence of resistance when used alone
- · Very limited data from clinical trials about efficacy and safety (children and adults)



### **Formulations**

· Powder for intravenous infusion: 2 g/vial or 4 g/vial (as sodium)



# Spectrum of Activity

#### · Active against:

- ESBL and AmpC β-lactamases-producing Enterobacterales
- Gram-positive bacteria including MRSA, VRE and S. epidermidis
- · Variable activity against:
- Pseudomonas aeruainosa
- Aerobic Gram-negative bacteria including many carbapenemresistant Enterobacterales
  - Carbapenemases: KPC, OXA-48 and metallo-β-lactamases (MBL)
- · Not active against:
- Acinetobacter baumannii
- Emerging resistance to fosfomycin in Enterobacterales:
- Rare in clinical practice even though it can rapidly develop in vitro



# **Toxicity**

- · Generally well tolerated
- · Consider risk of:
- Sodium overload in patients with heart failure (related to the sodium salt formulation)
- Hypokalaemia (need to monitor potassium levels regularly)





# **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

- Treatment duration varies according to indication and should be as short as possible
- · Usually between 7-14 days



# Adults

Dosage is for normal renal function; dose adjustment required in case of renal impairment



Fosfomycin 6 g g8h IV

• Total daily dose may vary: range 12-24 g depending on indication and renal function



#### Children

Dosage is for normal renal function



Fosfomycin 200-400 mg/kg/day divided

q8-12h IV



# Linezolid

# $\mathrm{R}_{\!\scriptscriptstyle K}$ Pharmacology

- · Synthetic antibiotic of the oxazolidinone class
- Mechanism of action: Inhibition of bacterial protein synthesis

# 89

# **Spectrum of Activity**

#### · Active against:

- Gram-positive bacteria including MRSA, VRE and penicillin
- non-susceptible pneumococci
- Mycobacterium tuberculosis including extensively drugresistant strains

#### · Not active against:

- Gram-negative bacteria
- Anaerobes
- Emerging resistance to linezolid in MRSA, VRSA, VRE: Reported but remains low



## Indications for Use



# Targeted Treatment

- · MRSA infections in selected situations:
- Severe renal impairment
- Hypersensitivity to vancomycin
- Need to use oral treatment and other cheaper oral options are unavailable or not indicated
- VRSA or VRE infections
- Mycobacterial infections, including extensively drugresistant *M. tuberculosis* (second-line option)



## **Empiric Use**

 Only in very selected cases of seriously ill patients with invasive infections who are known to be colonized with VRE or VRSA



# **Important Considerations**

The high oral bioavailability of linezolid allows initiation with oral treatment as an alternative to intravenous treatment

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# **Formulations**

- · Solution for intravenous infusion: 2 mg/mL in 300 mL bag
- Oral formulations:
- Tablet: 400 mg; 600 mg
- Tablet (dispersible): 150 mg
- Powder for oral liquid: 100 mg/5 mL



#### Toxicit

- · Generally well tolerated, risks increase with prolonged use
- (>4 weeks)
- · Consider risk of:
- Myelosuppression (mostly thrombocytopenia)
- · Monitor complete blood cell count every week
- Severe optic neuropathy and peripheral neuropathy (both rare)





## **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

Treatment duration varies according to indication and should be as short as possible (increased risk of side effects if used for >4 weeks)



#### **Adults**

Dosage is for normal renal function; no need to adjust the dose in case of renal impairment



Linezolid 600 mg q12h IV/ORAL



# Children

Dosage is for normal renal function; no need to adjust the dose in case of renal impairment



Linezolid 10 mg/kg/dose q8h IV/ORAL



# **Neonates**

Dosage is for normal renal function; no need to adjust the dose in case of renal impairment



#### Linezolid IV/ORAL

- 1st week of life: 10 mg/kg/dose q12h
- ·>1st week of life: 10 mg/kg/dose q8h



# Meropenem+vaborbactam

# Pharmacology

· Combination of a carbapenem (meropenem) and a novel nonβ-lactam β-lactamase inhibitor (vaborbactam)

#### · Mechanism of action:

- Meropenem inhibits bacterial enzymes responsible for cell wall synthesis
- Vaborbactam inactivates certain serine β-lactamases, thus protecting meropenem from degradation



### Indications for Use



### **Targeted Treatment**

· Severe infections caused by laboratory-confirmed KPCproducing Enterobacterales, including bacteria resistant to ceftazidime+avibactam but susceptible to meropenem+vaborbactam



# **Empiric Use**

- Only in very selected cases of seriously ill patients (e.g. sepsis/septic shock):
- who have not responded to carbapenems if other causes of treatment failure have been excluded and there is strong suspicion that the infection is caused by a carbapenem-resistant pathogen
- who have previously been treated for infections caused by carbapenem-resistant pathogens susceptible to meropenem+vaborbactam
- who are known to be colonized with carbapenemresistant pathogens susceptible to meropenem+vaborbactam



## **Important Considerations**

 Since it is not active against metallo-β-lactamases (Ambler class B) or class D carbapenemases (such as OXA-48), it is important to know the local epidemiology of the most prevalent genotypic variants for aerobic Gram-negative bacteria



# **Formulations**

• Powder for intravenous infusion: 1 g + 1 g in vial

# Spectrum of Activity

#### · Active against:

- Aerobic Gram-negative bacteria including many carbapenem
  - resistant Enterobacterales
  - KPC carbapenemases
- · ESBL and AmpC β-lactamases - Aerobic Gram-positive bacteria
- Anaerobes

#### Variable activity against:

- Acinetobacter baumannii - Pseudomonas aeruainosa
- · Not active against:
- Gram-negative bacteria producing metallo-β-lactamases (NDM, VIM, IMP) or Ambler class D carbapenemases (such as
- · Emerging resistance to meropenem+vaborbactam in Enterobacterales
- Very rare in clinical practice



# **Toxicity**

- · Generally well tolerated
- Side effects similar to meropenem alone



# **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

- · Treatment duration varies according to indication and should be as short as possible
- Usually between 7-14 days



### **Adults**

Dosage is for normal renal function; dose adjustment required in case of renal impairment



Meropenem+vaborbactam 4 g (2 g meropenem + 2 g vaborbactam) q8h IV



## **Children or Neonates**

Currently not licensed for use in children or neonates



# **Plazomicin**

## Pharmacology

- · New semisynthetic aminoglycoside
- Mechanism of action: Inhibition of bacterial protein synthesis



# **Indications for Use**



# **Targeted Treatment**

- · Severe infections caused by laboratory-confirmed carbapenem-resistant Enterobacterales susceptible to plazomicin (not P. aeruginosa or A. baumannii)
- · Infections caused by Gram-negative bacteria resistant to other aminoglycosides if non-Reserve antibiotic options cannot be used



### **Empiric Use**

- · Only in very selected cases of seriously ill patients (e.g. sepsis/septic shock caused by urinary tract infections if used as monotherapy - for other infections aminoglycosides are usually used in combination with other antibiotics):
- who have not responded to carbapenems if other causes of treatment failure have been excluded first and there is strong suspicion that the infection is caused by a carbapenem-resistant pathogen
- who have previously been treated for infections caused by carbapenem-resistant pathogens susceptible to plazomicin
- who are known to be colonized with carbapenemresistant pathogens susceptible to plazomicin



### **Important Considerations**

- Efficacy demonstrated in clinical trials only for complicated urinary tract infections in adults
- · Very limited evidence for other infections and use in children



### **Formulations**

• Intravenous injection: 500 mg/10 mL

# **Spectrum of Activity**

#### · Active against:

- Aerobic Gram-negative bacteria including many carbapenemresistant Enterobacterales
  - Carbapenemases: KPC and OXA-48
  - ESBL and AmpC β-lactamases
  - Bacteria producing aminoglycoside-modifying enzymes

#### · Variable activity against:

- Strains producing metallo-β-lactamases
- Not active against:
- Acinetobacter baumannii
- Pseudomonas aeruginosa
- Emerging resistance to plazomicin in Enterobacterales: Very limited data



# Toxicity

- · Side effects similar to other aminoglycosides
- · The most frequent are:
- Kidney damage (monitor creatinine levels regularly)
- Hearing loss and vestibular toxicity





### Antibiotic Treatment Duration

- · Treatment duration varies according to indication and should be as short as possible
- Usually between 7-14 days



#### **Adults**

Weight-based once-daily dosing is used; dosage is for normal renal function



Plazomicin 15 mg/kg q24h IV



### **Children or Neonates**

No data for children or neonates



# Polymyxin B and colistin (polymyxin E)

Page 1 of 2

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# Pharmacology

- Polymyxin B and colistin are polypeptides belonging to the polymyxin class of antibiotics
- Polymyxin B and colistin have very similar chemical structures, however:
- Polymyxin B is administered directly as the active antibiotic
- Colistin is administered as inactive prodrug (colistimethate sodium)
- Mechanism of action: Polymyxin B and colistin act by disrupting the bacterial cell membrane, leading to cell lysis



### **Spectrum of Activity**

- Polymyxin B and colistin have the same antibacterial spectrum
- Active against:
- Aerobic Gram-negative bacteria (including many multidrugresistant isolates)
- Not active against:
- · Anaerobes
- · Gram-positive bacteria
- · Gram-negative cocci (e.g. Neisseria spp.)
- Emerging resistance to polymyxins in Enterobacterales, Acinetobacter baumannii and Pseudomonas aeruginosa:
  - Resistance can be due to chromosomal mutations leading to changes in the bacterial membrane that impair the ability of polymyxin B and colistin to bind to their target
- Transmissible resistance due to mobilized colistin resistance (mcr) genes is also being increasingly described



## **Toxicity**

- Polymyxin B and colistin can cause kidney damage (colistin > polymyxin B) and, more rarely, neurotoxicity (e.g. paresthesia)
- Side effects are reversible in most cases and are associated with the cumulative dose and duration of therapy

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### **Indications for Use**



# **Targeted Treatment**

 Severe infections caused by laboratory-confirmed carbapenem-resistant Gram-negative bacteria susceptible to polymyxins (including infections caused by carbapenemaseproducing strains susceptible to polymyxins)

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## **Empiric Use**

- Only in very selected cases of seriously ill patients (e.g. patients with sepsis/septic shock):
  - who have not responded to carbapenems if other causes of treatment failure have been excluded first and there is a strong suspicion that the infection is caused by a carbapenem-resistant pathogen
  - who have previously been treated for infections caused by carbapenem-resistant pathogens susceptible to polymyxins
- who are known to be colonized with carbapenemresistant pathogens susceptible to polymyxins



## **Important Considerations**

- If both are available, polymyxin B is usually preferred to colistin (important: except for urinary tract infections) because it has better pharmacokinetic characteristics and less potential to cause kidney damage
- Usually given as part of combination therapy depending on the type of infection even though currently there is no evidence from randomized clinical trials that combination therapy is superior to collistin monotherapy for short-term clinical success at least for infections caused by extensively drug-resistant Acinetobacter spp.



# Polymyxin B and colistin (polymyxin E)

Page 2 of 2



### **Formulations**

- Powder for intravenous infusion: 50 mg (500 000 IU) in vial
- · Powder for intravenous infusion: 1 million IU (as colistimethate sodium) in vial (equivalent to 34 mg colistin hase activity)

**Clinical Considerations** 

· Polymyxin B doses can be expressed in:

• 1 mg of polymyxin B corresponds to 10 000 IU

• 34 mg of colistin base activity corresponds to: - 1 million IU of colistimethate sodium

· Colistin (polymyxin E) doses can be expressed in:

- International Units (IU) of colistimethate sodium (CMS)

· When using polymyxins, it is crucial to start therapy with a

loading dose (to achieve more rapidly effective plasma concentrations) followed by maintenance dose after

· For colistin (but not for polymyxin B), dose adjustments are necessary in cases of renal impairment

be given in different units on labels

- International Units (IU)

- mg of colistimethate sodium - mg of colistin base activity (CBA)

- 80 mg of colistimethate sodium

· Great care must be taken to avoid dosing errors with

polymyxin B and colistin; errors can arise because doses can





### **Antibiotic Treatment Duration**

- · Treatment duration varies according to indication and should be as short as possible
- Usually between 7-14 days

#### Children

#### All dosages are for normal renal function

Few data are available for dosing in children; doses approved by regulatory agencies may be suboptimal for many children due to interpatient variability

### Polymyxin B



#### Polymyxin B IV

- Loading dose: 2.5 mg/kg (25 000 IU/kg)
  - Maintenance dose
  - Children <2 years: 0.75-2.25 mg/kg/dose
  - (7 500-22 500 IU/kg/dose) g12h
  - Children ≥2 years: 1.5 mg/kg/dose (15 000 IU/kg/dose) q12h

#### Colistin



#### Colistin IV

- · Loading dose: insufficient data
- (18 750-37 500 IU/kg/dose CMS) q6h
- 1.25-2.5 mg/kg/dose CBA



- 0.625-1.25 mg/kg/dose CBA
- (37 500-75 000 IU/kg/dose CMS) q12h



#### **Adults**

All dosages are for normal renal function

# Polymyxin B



Polymyxin B IV

- Loading dose: 2.5 mg/kg (25 000 IU/kg)
- · Maintenance dose: 1.5 mg/kg/dose
- (15 000 IU/kg/dose) q12h

#### Colistin



Colistin IV

- · Loading dose: 300 mg CBA (9 million IU CMS) Maintenance dose: 150 mg CBA
- (4.5 million IU CMS) q12h



# **Neonates**

All dosages are for normal renal function

# Polymyxin B



Polymyxin B IV

- Loading dose: 2.5 mg/kg (25 000 IU/kg)
- Maintenance dose: 0.75-2.25 mg/kg/dose
- (7 500-22 500 IU/kg/dose) g12h

#### Colistin



Colistin IV

- · Loading dose: insufficient data
- 0.625-1.25 mg/kg/dose CBA
- (18 750-37 500 IU/kg/dose CMS) q6h

- 1.25-2.5 mg/kg/dose CBA
- (37 500-75 000 IU/kg/dose CMS) g12h



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