

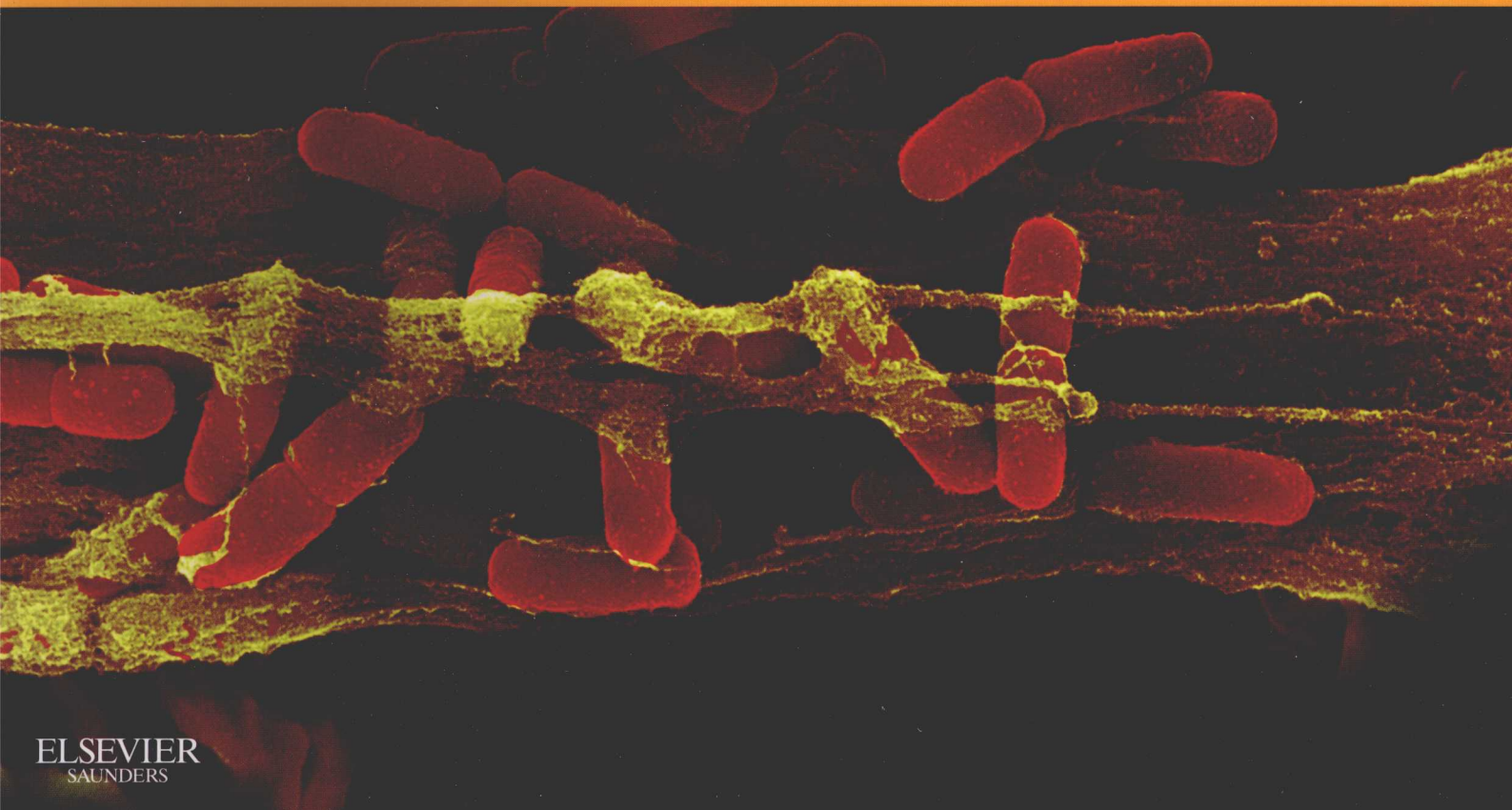
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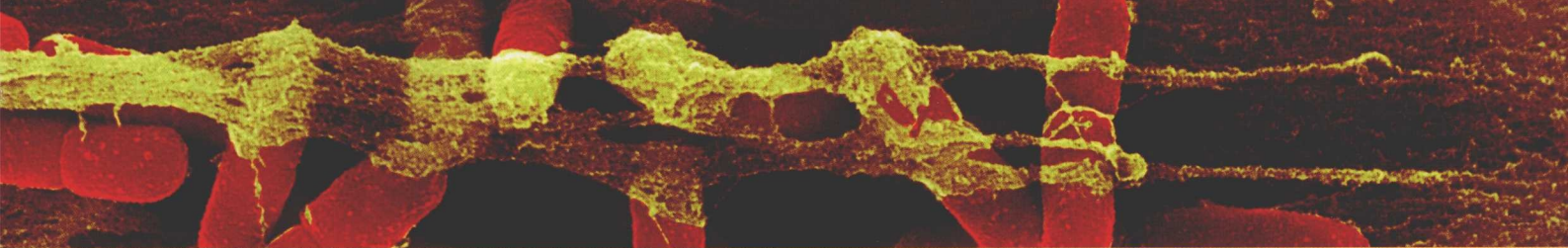
Richard V. Goering • Hazel M. Dockrell
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Mims' Medical Microbiology

Fifth Edition



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Mims' Medical Microbiology

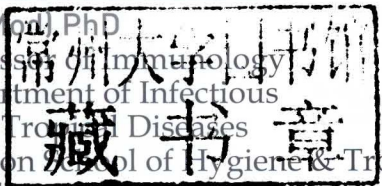
Fifth Edition

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COVER IMAGE

The micrograph on the cover shows *Shigella flexneri* bound to Neutrophil Extracellular Traps (NETs), a structure formed by neutrophil granulocytes that captures and kills pathogens.
Courtesy of Dr. Volker Brinkmann, Max Planck-Institut für Infektionsbiologie, Berlin.

Preface

Medical Microbiology fifth edition continues the successful past approach of employing the dual viewpoints of basic science and system-based clinical application to present the conflict between infectious disease and host response. The title remains Mims' Medical Microbiology, recognizing the founding contribution of Cedric Mims to this work. Derek Wakelin, who played such a major part in earlier editions, has relinquished his role as a main author and we gratefully acknowledge his contribution.

This edition continues descriptive illustrations of 'Conflicts' in the introductory chapters as well as chapter-specific 'Lessons in Microbiology' and 'Key Facts' summaries. Discussion of microbial genomics, detection and diagnosis of infection, antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy, immune defence, tables, figures and the Pathogen Parade (now online-only) have all been updated. Chapter 32, Epidemiology and Control of Infectious Diseases, represents a total revision of text previously entitled Strategies

for Control. Bibliographic references continue to include current Internet-based resources. Online access to interactive extras is provided via Elsevier's STUDENT CONSULT website (www.studentconsult.com) including chapter-specific questions and answers, mostly in USMLE format.

The contribution of molecular approaches to our understanding of pathogen-host response interaction has never been greater than it is today. The challenge is to incorporate this wealth of information into a logical and unified approach to the subject that is readable, exciting, and informative. We believe that is what the student will find in this new edition of Medical Microbiology.

*Richard V Goering, Hazel M Dockrell, Mark Zuckerman,
Peter L Chiodini, Ivan M Roitt 2012*



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A contemporary approach to microbiology

INTRODUCTION

Microbes and parasites

The conventional distinction between 'microbes' and 'parasites' is essentially arbitrary

Microbiology is sometimes defined as the biology of microscopic organisms, its subject being the 'microbes'. Traditionally, clinical microbiology has been concerned with those organisms responsible for the major infectious diseases of humans and whose size makes them invisible to the naked eye. Thus, it is not surprising that the organisms included have reflected those causing diseases that have been (or continue to be) of greatest importance in those countries where the scientific and clinical discipline of microbiology developed, notably Europe and the USA. The term 'microbes' has usually been applied in a restricted fashion, primarily to viruses and bacteria. Fungi and protozoan parasites are included as relatively minor contributors, but in general they have been treated as the subjects of other disciplines (mycology and parasitology).

Although there can be no argument that viruses and bacteria are, globally, the most important pathogens, the conventional distinction between these as 'microbes' and the other infectious agents (fungi, protozoan, worm and arthropod parasites) is essentially arbitrary, not least because the criterion of microscopic visibility cannot be applied rigidly (Fig. Intro.1). Perhaps we should remember that the first 'microbe' to be associated with a specific clinical condition was a parasitic worm – the nematode *Trichinella spiralis* – whose larval stages are just visible to the naked eye (though microscopy is needed for certain identification). *T. spiralis* was first identified in 1835 and causally related to the disease trichinellosis in the 1860s. Equally, viruses and bacteria comprise only just over half of all human pathogen species (Table Intro.1).

THE CONTEXT FOR CONTEMPORARY MEDICAL MICROBIOLOGY

Many microbiology texts deal with infectious organisms as agents of disease in isolation, isolated both from other infectious organisms and from the biologic context in which they live and in which disease is caused. It is certainly convenient to list and deal with organisms group by group, to summarize the diseases they cause, and to review the forms of control available, but this approach produces a static picture of what is a dynamic relationship between the organism and its host.

Host response is the outcome of the complex interplay between host and parasite

Host response can be discussed in terms of pathologic signs and symptoms and in terms of immune control, but it is better treated as the outcome of the complex interplay between two organisms – host and parasite; without this dimension a distorted view of infectious disease results. It simply is not true that 'microbe+host=disease', and clinicians are well aware of this. Understanding why it is that most host-microbe contacts do not result in disease, and what changes so that disease does arise, is as important as the identification of infectious organisms and a knowledge of the ways in which they can be controlled.

We therefore continue to believe that our approach to microbiology, both in terms of the organisms that might usefully be considered within a textbook and also in terms of the contexts in which they and the diseases they cause are discussed, provides a more informative and more interesting picture of these dynamic interrelationships. There are many reasons for having reached this conclusion, the most important being the following:

- A comprehensive understanding now exists at the molecular level of the biology of infectious agents and of the host-parasite interactions that lead to infection and disease. It is important for students to be aware of this understanding so that they can grasp the connections between infection and disease within both individuals and communities and be able to use this knowledge in novel and changing clinical situations.
- It is now realized that the host's response to infection is a coordinated and subtle interplay involving the mechanisms of both innate and acquired resistance, and that these mechanisms are expressed regardless of the nature and identity of the pathogen involved. Our present understanding of the ways in which these mechanisms are stimulated and the ways in which they act is very sophisticated. We can now see that infection is a conflict between two organisms, with the outcome (resistance or disease) being critically dependent upon molecular interactions. Again, it is essential to understand the basis of this host-pathogen interplay if the processes of disease and disease control are to be interpreted correctly.

Emerging or re-emerging diseases continue to pose new microbiologic problems

Three other factors have helped to mould our opinion that a broader view of microbiology is needed to provide a firm basis for clinical and scientific practice:

- There is an increasing prevalence of a wide variety of opportunistic infections in patients who are hospitalized

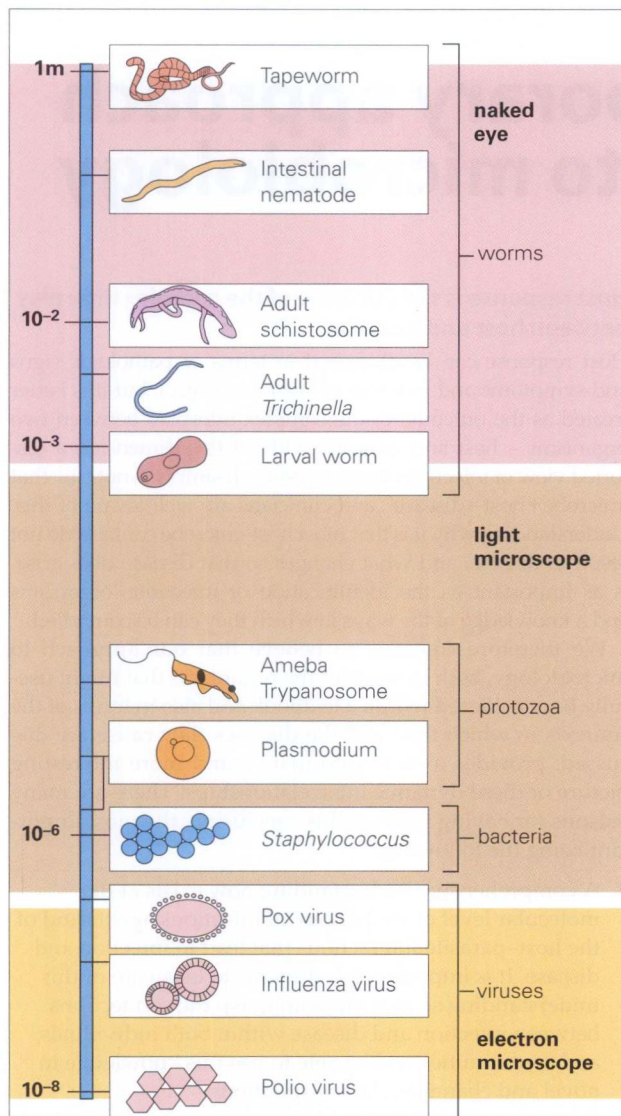


Figure Intro.1 Relative sizes of the organisms covered in this book.

Table Intro.1 Distribution of 1407 human pathogen species among the major groups of organisms (excluding arthropods)

Group	% of total
Viruses and prions	14–15
Bacteria	38–41
Fungi	22–23
Protozoa	4–5
Helminths	20

Data from average of multiple studies summarized by Smith, K.F. and Guegan, J-F, (2010) Changing geographic distributions of human pathogens. *Ann. Rev. Ecol. Evol.* 41:231–250.

or immunosuppressed. Immunosuppressive therapies are now more common, as are diseases in which the immune system is compromised – notably, of course, AIDS.

- Newly emerging disease agents continue to be identified, and old diseases, previously thought to be under control, re-emerge as causes of concern. Of the

1407 species identified as pathogenic for humans, 183 are regarded as emerging or re-emerging pathogens, almost half being viruses, some of animal origin (see Table Intro.1).

- Tropical infections are now of much greater interest. Clinicians see many tourists who have been exposed to the quite different spectrum of infectious agents found in tropical countries (at least 80 million people travel from resource-rich to resource-poor countries each year), and practicing microbiologists may be called upon to identify and advise on these organisms. There is also greater awareness of the health problems of the resource-poor world.

Thus, a broader view of microbiology is necessary; one that builds on the approaches of the past, but addresses the problems of the present and of the future.

MICROBIOLOGY PAST, PRESENT AND FUTURE

The demonstration in the nineteenth century that diseases were caused by infectious agents founded the discipline of microbiology. Although these early discoveries involved tropical parasitic infections as well as the bacterial infections common in Europe and the USA, microbiologists increasingly focused on the latter, later extending their interests to the newly discovered viral infections. The development of antimicrobial agents and vaccines revolutionized treatment of these diseases and raised hopes for the eventual elimination of many of the diseases that had plagued the human race for centuries. Those in the resource-rich world learned not to fear infectious disease and believed such infections would disappear in their lifetime. To an extent, this was realized; through vaccination, many familiar childhood diseases became uncommon, and those of bacterial origin were easily controlled by antibiotics. Encouraged by the eradication of smallpox during the 1970s, and the success of polio vaccines, the United Nations in 1978 announced programmes to obtain 'Health for All' by 2000. However, this optimistic picture has had to be re-evaluated.

Infectious diseases are still killers in the resource-rich world

Globally, infectious diseases cause more than 20% of all deaths and kill an increasing number in both the resource-rich and the resource-poor world. In the USA (and the picture is similar in Europe):

- deaths from HIV peaked at 50 000 in 1995, but still exceed 15 000 each year
- influenza with underlying respiratory and circulatory issues results in 15 000 deaths each year and affects millions
- some 3 to 4 million people carry hepatitis C virus, and ca. 12 000 develop life-threatening chronic liver disease
- drug-resistant tuberculosis (TB) is a major cause of concern, as are food-borne infections and healthcare-associated infections.

Infectious diseases are a major problem in the resource-poor world, particularly in children

The burden of infectious disease in the resource-poor world is increasing at an alarming rate, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa and SE Asia. Although sub-Saharan

Africa has only about 10% of the world's population, it has 67% of AIDS infections and a majority of all AIDS-related deaths, the highest HIV-TB co-infection rates and most of the global malaria burden. TB and HIV-AIDS are of increasing importance in SE Asia and the Pacific, where drug-resistant malaria is also common. Children younger than 5 years are most at risk from infectious diseases. Of the 8.1 million deaths in this age group recorded by WHO for the year 2009, at least half were due to infection such as acute respiratory infection and diarrheal diseases. The overwhelming majority of these infection-related deaths occurred in Africa, SE Asia and the Eastern Mediterranean. It is obvious that the prevalence and importance of infectious diseases in the resource-poor world are directly linked to poverty. The infectious diseases of most importance globally are shown in Table Intro.2.

Infections continue to emerge or re-emerge

On a world-wide basis, between 1940 and 2004, 335 infectious diseases emerged in the human population for the first time. Since the 1970s, some familiar diseases, including TB, malaria, hepatitis, cholera and dengue, have re-emerged as major infections and more recently a number of new infectious agents have been identified (Table Intro.3), of which HIV is the most important. For many new diseases, there is no effective treatment. The economic cost of these diseases

is enormous. For example, the total lifetime cost, including loss of productivity, for Americans diagnosed with AIDS is estimated to be greater than US\$30 billion and in high-prevalence countries malaria consumes approximately 40% of public health spending. Successful eradication could therefore save very large sums, for example, an estimated US\$20 billion from eradicating smallpox.

Modern lifestyles and technical developments facilitate transmission of disease

The reasons for the resurgence of infectious diseases are multiple. They include:

- New patterns of travel and trade (especially food commodities), new agricultural practices, altered sexual behaviour, medical interventions and overuse of antibiotics.
- The evolution of multi-drug resistant bacteria, such as MRSA, and their frequency in both healthcare and community settings have become major problems. The issue of antimicrobial resistance is compounded in resource-poor countries by inability or unwillingness to complete programmes of treatment, as seems to have happened with TB, and by the use of counterfeit drugs with, at best, partial action. The WHO estimates that globally 10% of antimicrobials (25% in resource-poor countries) are counterfeit, and a survey of seven African countries revealed that 20% to 90% of antimalarial drugs were substandard. In 2006, the WHO launched a new initiative to combat the lucrative business of counterfeit medical products including antibiotics and vaccines
- Breakdown of economic, social and political systems especially in the resource-poor world has weakened medical services and increased the effects of poverty and malnutrition.
- The dramatic increase in air travel over the last few decades has facilitated the spread of infection and increased the threat of new pandemics. The Spanish influenza pandemic in 1918 spread along railway and sea links. Modern air travel moves larger numbers of people more rapidly and more extensively and makes it possible for microbes to cross geographical barriers. The potential for spread of the SARS virus from Asia to Europe and North America provided a salutary reminder of these dangers.

Table Intro.2 Major infectious disease-related deaths worldwide*

Cause	Estimated number of deaths (millions)	Percent of total deaths
Lower respiratory tract infections	4.18	7.1
Diarrheal diseases	2.16	3.7
HIV/AIDS	2.04	2.5
Tuberculosis	1.46	2.5

*Data from WHO (2008).

Table Intro.3 Emerging diseases – examples of new infectious agents identified since the 1970s

Decade	Organisms
1980–1989	HTLV-1, HTLV-2, human herpes virus 6, HIV, hepatitis C, <i>E. coli</i> 0157, <i>Borrelia burgdorferi</i> , <i>Helicobacter</i> , toxin-producing <i>Staph. aureus</i>
1990–1999	Hanta virus, human herpes virus 8, hepatitis E-G, vCJD, Hendra virus, Nipah virus, <i>Vibrio cholerae</i> 0139, <i>Cryptosporidium</i> , <i>Cyclospora</i>
2000–present day	SARS associated coronavirus, epizootic avian influenza H5N1, HTLV-3, HTLV-4, xenotropic MuLV-related virus

HTLV, human T-cell lymphotropic virus; HIV, human immunodeficiency virus; vCJD, variant Creutzfeldt–Jakob disease; SARS, severe acute respiratory syndrome.

What of the future?

Predictions based on data from the United Nations and the World Health Organization give a choice of optimistic, stable or pessimistic scenarios. Optimistically, the aging population, coupled with socioeconomic and medical advances, should see a fall in the problems posed by infectious disease, and a decrease in deaths from these causes from 34% of the global total in 1990 to 15% in 2020; HIV and TB would, however, still be responsible for a majority of deaths from infection. In 2009, 1.7 million people died of TB, 24% of whom were HIV positive, and 22% of the 1.8 million deaths in HIV-positive individuals were due to TB. The pessimistic view is that population growth in resource-poor countries, especially in urban populations, the increasing gap between rich and poor countries, and continuing changes in lifestyle will result in surges of infectious disease. Even in resource-rich countries, increasing drug resistance and a slowing of

developments in new antimicrobials and vaccines will create problems in control. Added to these are three additional factors. These are:

- the emergence of new human infections such as a novel strain of influenza virus, or a new infection of wildlife origin
- climate change, with increased temperatures and altered rainfall adding to the incidence of vector-borne infection
- the threat of bioterrorism, with the possible deliberate spread of viral and bacterial infections.

The deliberate spread of anthrax through the US mail system in 2002 raised the frightening possibility that previously rare but potentially deadly infections might be deliberately spread to human populations with no acquired immunity or no history of vaccination. The range of organisms that could be used in this way includes exotic viruses (e.g. those causing haemorrhagic fevers and encephalitis), genetically modified organisms, or organisms such as smallpox, thought now to be extinct.

One thing is certain: whether optimistic or pessimistic scenarios prove true, microbiology will remain a critical medical discipline for the foreseeable future.

THE APPROACH ADOPTED IN THIS BOOK

The factors outlined above indicate the need for a text with a dual function:

1. It should provide an inclusive treatment of the organisms responsible for infectious disease.
2. The purely clinical/laboratory approach to microbiology should be replaced with an approach that will stress the biologic context in which clinical/laboratory studies are to be undertaken.

The approach we have adopted in this book is to look at microbiology from the viewpoint of the conflicts inherent in all host–pathogen relationships. We first describe the

adversaries: the infectious organisms on the one hand, and the innate and adaptive defence mechanisms of the host on the other. The outcome of the conflicts between the two is then amplified and discussed system by system. Rather than taking each organism or each disease manifestation in turn, we look at the major environments available for infectious organisms in the human body, such as the respiratory system, the gut, the urinary tract, the blood and the central nervous system. The organisms that invade and establish in each of these are examined in terms of the pathologic responses they provoke. Finally, we look at how the conflicts we have described can be controlled or eliminated, both at the level of the individual patient and at the level of the community. We hope that such an approach will provide readers with a dynamic view of host–pathogen interactions and allow them to develop a more creative understanding of infection and disease.



KEY FACTS

- Our approach is to provide a comprehensive account of the organisms that cause infectious disease in humans, from the viruses to the worms, and to cover the biologic bases of infection, disease, host–pathogen interactions, disease control and epidemiology.
- The diseases caused by microbial pathogens will be placed in the context of the conflict that exists between them and the innate and adaptive defences of their hosts.
- Infections will be described and discussed in terms of the major body systems, treating these as environments in which microbes can establish themselves, flourish and give rise to pathologic changes.

Contents

<i>Preface</i>	<i>v</i>
<i>Acknowledgements</i>	<i>vi</i>
<i>Contributors</i>	<i>vi</i>
<i>Student Consultants</i>	<i>vii</i>
<i>A contemporary approach to microbiology</i>	<i>xi</i>
Microbes and parasites	<i>xi</i>
The context for contemporary medical microbiology	<i>xi</i>
Microbiology past, present and future	<i>xii</i>
The approach adopted in this book	<i>xiv</i>

SECTION 1 THE ADVERSARIES – MICROBES

1. Microbes as parasites	3
The varieties of microbes	3
Living inside or outside cells	4
Systems of classification	5
2. The bacteria	7
Structure	7
Nutrition	9
Growth and division	10
Gene expression	11
Survival under adverse conditions	16
Mobile genetic elements	16
Mutation and gene transfer	20
The genomics of medically important bacteria	23
3. The viruses	27
Infection of host cells	27
Replication	29
Outcome of viral infection	31
Major groups of viruses	33
4. The fungi	37
Major groups of disease-causing fungi	37
5. The protozoa	41
6. The helminths and arthropods	43
The helminths	43
The arthropods	46
7. Prions	49
‘Rogue protein’ pathogenesis	49
Development, transmission and diagnosis of prion diseases	50
Prevention and treatment of prion diseases	51
8. The host–parasite relationship	53
The normal flora	53
Symbiotic associations	56
The characteristics of parasitism	58
The evolution of parasitism	59

SECTION 2 THE ADVERSARIES–HOST DEFENCES

9. The innate defences of the body	67
Defence against entry into the body	67

Defences once the microorganism penetrates the body	68
10. Adaptive responses provide a ‘quantum leap’ in effective defence	83
The role of antibodies	83
The role of T lymphocytes	86
Extracellular attack on large infectious agents	89
Local defences at mucosal surfaces	90
11. The cellular basis of adaptive immune responses	95
B- and T-cell receptors	98
Clonal expansion of lymphocytes	98
The role of memory cells	99
Stimulation of lymphocytes	101
Cytokines	102
Regulatory mechanisms	105
Tolerance mechanisms	106

SECTION 3 THE CONFLICTS

12. Background to the infectious diseases	111
Host–parasite relationships	111
Causes of infectious diseases	115
The biologic response gradient	117
13. Entry, exit and transmission	119
Sites of entry	119
Exit and transmission	125
Types of transmission between humans	127
Transmission from animals	132
14. Immune defences in action	137
Complement	137
Acute phase proteins and pattern recognition receptors	137
Fever	139
Natural killer cells	139
Phagocytosis	139
Cytokines	142
Antibody-mediated immunity	144
Cell-mediated immunity	146
Recovery from infection	149
15. Spread and replication	153
Features of surface and systemic infections	154
Mechanisms of spread through the body	155
Genetic determinants of spread and replication	158
Other factors affecting spread and replication	159
16. Parasite survival strategies and persistent infections	163
Parasite survival strategies	164
Antigenic variation	169
Immunosuppression	170
Persistent infections	173

17. Pathologic consequences of infection	179		
Pathology caused directly by microorganism	179		
Diarrhea	183		
Pathologic activation of natural immune mechanisms	183		
Pathologic consequences of the immune response	187		
Skin rashes	191		
Viruses and cancer	192		
SECTION 4 CLINICAL MANIFESTATION AND DIAGNOSIS OF INFECTIONS BY BODY SYSTEM			
Introduction to Section 4: The clinical manifestations of infection	197		
18. Upper respiratory tract infections	199		
Rhinitis	199		
Pharyngitis and tonsillitis	200		
Parotitis	208		
Otitis and sinusitis	209		
Acute epiglottitis	210		
Oral cavity infections	210		
19. Lower respiratory tract infections	213		
Laryngitis and tracheitis	213		
Diphtheria	213		
Whooping cough	214		
Acute bronchitis	215		
Acute exacerbations of chronic bronchitis	216		
Bronchiolitis	216		
Respiratory syncytial virus infection	216		
Hantavirus pulmonary syndrome (HPS)	217		
Pneumonia	217		
Bacterial pneumonia	218		
Viral pneumonia	221		
Parainfluenza virus infection	221		
Adenovirus infection	223		
Human metapneumovirus	223		
Human bocavirus	223		
Influenza virus infection	223		
Severe acute respiratory syndrome-associated coronavirus infection	228		
Measles	229		
Cytomegalovirus infection	230		
Tuberculosis	230		
Cystic fibrosis	233		
Lung abscess	233		
Fungal infections	234		
Parasitic infections	235		
20. Urinary tract infections	237		
Acquisition and aetiology	237		
Pathogenesis	238		
Clinical features and complications	240		
Laboratory diagnosis	241		
Treatment	242		
Prevention	243		
21. Sexually transmitted infections	245		
STIs and sexual behaviour	245		
Syphilis	245		
Gonorrhoea	249		
Chlamydial infection	251		
Other causes of inguinal lymphadenopathy	253		
		Mycoplasmas and non-gonococcal urethritis	255
		Other causes of vaginitis and urethritis	255
		Genital herpes	256
		Human papillomavirus infection	257
		Human immunodeficiency virus	257
		Opportunist STIs	267
		Arthropod infestations	267
22. Gastrointestinal tract infections	269		
		Diarrheal diseases caused by bacterial or viral infection	270
		Food poisoning	283
		<i>Helicobacter pylori</i> and gastric ulcer disease	284
		Parasites and the gastrointestinal tract	284
		Systemic infection initiated in the gastrointestinal tract	291
23. Obstetric and perinatal infections	303		
		Infections occurring in pregnancy	303
		Congenital infections	303
		Infections occurring around the time of birth	308
24. Central nervous system infections	311		
		Invasion of the central nervous system	311
		The body's response to invasion	311
		Meningitis	313
		Encephalitis	319
		Neurologic diseases of possible viral aetiology	324
		Spongiform encephalopathies caused by scrapie-type agents	324
		CNS disease caused by parasites	324
		Brain abscesses	325
		Tetanus and botulism	326
25. Infections of the eye	329		
		Conjunctivitis	329
		Infection of the deeper layers of the eye	332
26. Infections of the skin, soft tissue, muscle and associated systems	335		
		Bacterial infections of skin, soft tissue and muscle	337
		Mycobacterial diseases of the skin	343
		Fungal infections of the skin	345
		Parasitic infections of the skin	350
		Mucocutaneous lesions caused by viruses	351
		Smallpox	358
		Measles	358
		Rubella	360
		Other infections producing skin lesions	361
		Kawasaki syndrome	361
		Viral infections of muscle	361
		Parasitic infections of muscle	362
		Joint and bone infections	363
		Infections of the haemopoietic system	365
27. Vector-borne infections	367		
		Arbovirus infections	367
		Infections caused by rickettsiae	369
		Borrelia infections	373
		Protozoal infections	375
		Helminth infections	380
28. Multisystem zoonoses	383		
		Arenavirus infections	383
		Haemorrhagic fever with renal syndrome (HFRS)	385

Marburg and Ebola haemorrhagic fevers	385	33. Attacking the enemy: antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy	447
Crimean–Congo haemorrhagic fever, a tick-borne virus	385	Selective toxicity	447
Q fever	386	Discovery and design of antimicrobial agents	447
Anthrax	386	Classification of antibacterial agents	448
Plague	387	Resistance to antibacterial agents	449
<i>Yersinia enterocolitica</i> infection	389	Classes of antibacterial agents	452
Tularemia	389	Inhibitors of cell wall synthesis	452
<i>Pasteurella multocida</i> infection	389	Inhibitors of protein synthesis	458
Leptospirosis	389	Inhibitors of nucleic acid synthesis	465
Rat-bite fever	390	Antimetabolites affecting nucleic acid synthesis	467
Brucellosis	390	Other agents that affect DNA	469
Helminth infections	391	Inhibitors of cytoplasmic membrane function	469
29. Fever of unknown origin	395	Urinary tract antiseptics	470
Definitions of fever of unknown origin	395	Antituberculosis agents	470
Causes of FUO	395	Antibacterial agents in practice	471
Investigation of classic FUO	396	Antibiotic assays	473
Treatment of FUO	399	Antiviral therapy	473
FUO in specific patient groups	399	Antifungal agents	481
Infective endocarditis	400	Antiparasitic agents	483
30. Infections in the compromised host	403	Control by chemotherapy versus vaccination	483
The compromised host	403	Control versus eradication	487
Infections of the host with deficient innate immunity due to physical factors	405	Use and misuse of antimicrobial agents	487
Infections associated with secondary adaptive immunodeficiency	408	34. Protecting the host: vaccination	491
Other important opportunist pathogens	409	vaccination – A four hundred year history	491
		Aims of vaccination	491
		Vaccines can be of different types	493
		35. Passive and non-specific immunotherapy	505
		Passive immunization with antibody	505
		Non-specific cellular immunostimulation	508
		Correction of host immunodeficiency	509
		Probiotics	510
		36. Hospital infection, sterilization and disinfection	511
		Common hospital infections	511
		Important causes of hospital infection	511
		Sources and routes of spread of hospital infection	513
		Host factors and hospital infection	514
		Consequences of hospital infection	515
		Prevention of hospital infection	517
		Investigating healthcare-associated infection	521
		Sterilization and disinfection	526
		Online only – Pathogen parade	
		Bibliography	531
		Index	539

SECTION 5 DIAGNOSIS AND CONTROL

31. Diagnosis of infection and assessment of host defense mechanisms	419
Aims of the clinical microbiology laboratory	419
Specimen processing	419
Non-cultural techniques for the laboratory diagnosis of infection	420
Cultivation (culture) of microorganisms	428
Identification of microorganisms grown in culture	429
Antibody detection methods for the diagnosis of infection	432
Assessment of host defence systems	432
Putting it all together: detection, diagnosis, and epidemiology	436
32. Epidemiology and control of infectious diseases	439
Outcome measurements	439
Types of epidemiological studies	439
Transmission of infectious disease	444
Vaccine efficacy	446

The adversaries – microbes

1.	Microbes as parasites	3
2.	The bacteria	7
3.	The viruses	27
4.	The fungi	37
5.	The protozoa	41
6.	The helminths and arthropods	43
7.	Prions	49
8.	The host–parasite relationship	53

