Current Medical Diagnosis & Treatment 1988

Edited By

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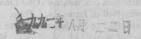
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OUTSTANDING FEATURES

- Reissued annually in Jan/Feb to incorporate current advances.
- · Over 1000 diseases and disorders.
- All aspects of internal medicine plus obstetrics/gynecology, dermatology, ophthalmology, neurology, and other topics of concern to the office practitioner.
- Consistent readable format, permitting efficient use in various practice settings.
- · Selected references.

INTENDED AUDIENCE

House officers and students will find the concise descriptions of diagnostic and therapeutic procedures, with access to the current literature, of daily usefulness in the immediate management of patients.

Internists, family physicians, and other specialists will find CMDT useful as a ready reference and refresher text

Physicians in other specialties, surgeons, and dentists will find the book useful as a basic treatise on internal medicine.

Nurses and other health practitioners will find that the concise format and broad scope of the book facilitate their understanding of diagnostic principles and therapeutic procedures.

ORGANIZATION

CMDT is developed chiefly by organ system. Chapters 1-3 present general information on patient care,

including disease prevention, pain management, special problems of the elderly patient, and fluid/electrolyte therapy. Chapters 4–19 describe diseases and disorders and their treatment. Chapter 20 sets forth the basic concepts of nutrition in modern medical practice. Chapters 21–28 cover infectious diseases and antimicrobial therapy. Chapters 29–33 cover special topics: physical agents, poisoning, genetics, malignant disorders, and immunologic disorders. The appendix provides data on normal values of daily relevance to medical practice as well as sections on MRI, CPR, and the emergency treatment of airway obstruction.

NEW TO THIS EDITION

- · Revised, expanded, and updated section on AIDS.
- Complete revision of chapters on Blood, ENT, and the Heart and Great Vessels.
- Extensive revision of the chapters on Pulmonary Diseases, Nutrition, and Poisoning.
- Drug information and bibliographies updated through July 1987.
- · New section in Appendix on MRI.
- Increased emphasis on costs of medical care and on prevention.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We wish to thank our associate authors for participating once again in the annual effort of updating this important book. Many students and physicians have contributed useful suggestions to this and previous editions, and we are grateful. We continue to solicit comments and recommendations for future editions. Please address correspondence to us at Lange Medical Publications, 2755 Campus Drive, Suite 205, San Mateo, CA 94403.

Steven A. Schroeder Marcus A. Krupp Lawrence M. Tierney, Jr.

January, 1988

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General Care—Symptoms & Disease Prevention

1

Steven A. Schroeder, MD, & Milton J. Chatton, MD

DISEASE PREVENTION

Preventing disease is more important than treating it. Preventive medicine is categorized as primary, secondary, or tertiary. Examples in the case of cancer are giving up or not starting smoking, thereby reducing the incidence of lung carcinoma (primary prevention); routine periodic surveillance by cervical Papanicolaou smear (secondary prevention); and mastectomy to remove localized breast cancer (tertiary prevention). Primary prevention is by far the most effective and economical of all methods of disease control.

INFECTIOUS DISEASES

Immunization remains the best means of preventing many infectious diseases, including tetanus, diphtheria, poliomyelitis, measles, mumps, hepatitis B, yellow fever, influenza, and pneumococcal pneumonia. Recommended immunization schedules for children and adults are set forth in Chapter 21.

Skin testing for tuberculosis and then treating selected skin-positive patients with prophylactic isoniazid reduces the risk of reactivation tuberculosis. Treatment is recommended for high-risk reactors regardless of age. These patients include recent tuberculin converters, postgastrectomy patients, persons taking immunosuppressive drugs, and patients with silicosis. For tuberculin-positive patients without these risk factors, treatment with isoniazid is recommended only for those under the age of 35 in order to minimize the risk of hepatitis. It now appears that prophylaxis for only 6 months (300 mg daily) is as effective as 12 months. BCG vaccine should be reserved for use in selected cases, such as protection of health workers in areas where tuberculosis is endemic.

The impressive 20th century accomplishments in immunization and antibiotic therapy notwithstanding, much of the decline in the incidence and fatality rates of infectious diseases is attributable to public health measures—especially improved sanitation, better nutrition, and greater prosperity.

AIDS is now the major infectious disease problem in the Western world. Until a vaccine or cure is found,

prevention will be the only weapon against this disease. Since sexual contact is the usual mode of transmission, prevention must rely on safe sexual practices. These include abstinence, prudent selection of partners, avoidance of promiscuity, the use of condoms, and the limiting or avoidance of anal and oral sex except with partners known to be uninfected.

CARDIOVASCULAR & CEREBROVASCULAR DISEASES

Impressive declines in age-specific mortality rates from heart disease and stroke have been achieved in all age groups in North America during the past 2 decades. The chief reason for this favorable trend appears to be a reduction in risk factors, especially cigarette smoking, hypercholesterolemia, and hypertension.

Cigarette Smoking

Cigarette smoking remains the most important cause of preventable morbidity and early demise in developed countries. Smokers die 5-8 years earlier than nonsmokers; have twice the risk of fatal heart disease; 10 times the risk of lung cancer; several times the risk of cancers of the mouth, throat, esophagus, pancreas, kidney, bladder, and cervix; a 2- to 3-fold greater incidence of peptic ulcers (which heal less well than in nonsmokers); and about a 2- to 4-fold greater risk of fractures of the hip, wrist, and vertebrae.

The children of parents who smoke have lower birth weights, more frequent respiratory infections, less efficient pulmonary function, and a higher incidence of chronic ear infections than the children of nonsmokers and are more likely to become smokers themselves.

Recently there has been an encouraging national trend in North America away from smoking, so that now less than a third of all Americans smoke. To the clinician, the established smoker is a vexing problem, since many people who stop smoking do so without a doctor's help, leaving the clinician to deal with the recalcitrant heavily addicted smokers who need help but won't accept it.

The clinician should adopt a 3-step smoking cessation strategy with smoking patients: (1) Ask the patient

about smoking and interest in quitting. (2) Motivate the patient to stop smoking. (3) Set a date to stop entirely, and follow up to find out what happens.

Pharmacologic aids have not been effective. Nicotine gum may be useful for some patients, but it is expensive and maintains the addiction. Clinicians should avoid appearing to disapprove of patients who are unable to stop smoking. Concerned exhortation, family or social pressures, or the opportunity presented by an intercurrent illness may eventually enable even the most addicted chronic smoker to give up the habit.

Hypercholesterolemia

A National Institutes of Health Consensus Panel has recently concluded that lowering definitely elevated LDL cholesterol concentrations will reduce the risk from coronary heart disease. It is estimated that each 1% reduction in blood cholesterol yields about a 2% reduction in coronary heart disease. The data in Table 1–1 can be used as a guide to when dietary and other measures to lower blood cholesterol should be instituted. A recent model for assessing the benefits of lowering blood cholesterol levels, however, indicates that the calculated gain in life expectancy is low, especially in patients without other risk factors such as cigarette smoking and hypertension. Surprisingly, treatment of hypercholesterolemia conveys more benefit in women than in men.

Specific methods of therapy, which include diet, weight reduction, exercise, and drugs, are discussed in Chapter 19.

Hypertension

Over 60 million adults in the USA have hypertension. It is well recognized that hypertension is a continuous and not a dichotomous risk factor. In every adult age group, higher values of systolic and diastolic blood pressure carry greater risks of stroke and congestive heart failure. Even so, clinicians must be able to apply specific blood pressure criteria as a means of deciding at what levels treatment should be considered in individual cases. Table 1-2 presents a classification of hypertension based on blood pressures that was developed in 1984 by the United States National High Blood Pressure Coordinating Committee of the National Institutes of Health. During the past 15 years. there have been great improvements in detection and control of hypertension, so that now about 65% of hypertensive patients in the United States are adequately controlled, compared with only 16% in 1972.

Table 1–1. NIH guidelines for treatment of hypercholesterolemia.

| odw to | Age (years) | Moderate Risk (mg/dL) | High Risk (mg/dL) | i iban |
|--------|----------------|--------------------------|----------------------|--------|
| | 20-29 | >200 | >220 | |
| | 30-39 | >220 | >240 | |
| | >40 | >240 | >260 | |

Table 1–2. Classification of blood pressure in individuals aged 18 years or older.

| | Category |
|--|---|
| Diastolic blood pressure (DBP) (mm Hg) <85 | Normal blood pressure |
| 85-89 | High normal blood pressure |
| 90-104 | Mild hypertension |
| 105-114 | Moderate hypertension |
| ≥115 | Severe hypertension |
| Systolic blood pressure (SBP) (mm Hg) when DBP <90 mm Hg <140 | Normal blood pressure |
| 140–159 | Borderline isolated systolic hypertension |
| ≥160 | Isolated systolic hypertension |

A classification of borderline isolated systolic hypertension (SBP 140–159 mm Hg) or isolated systolic hypertension (SBP ≥160 mm Hg) takes precedence over a classification of high normal blood pressure (DBP 85–89 mm Hg) when both occur in the same individual. A classification of high normal blood pressure (DBP 85–89 mm Hg) takes precedence over a classification of normal blood pressure (SBP <140 mm Hg) when both occur in the same person.

A. Indications for Starting Treatment: Before specific therapy is recommended, the diagnosis of hypertension should be confirmed on at least 2 additional office visits. Controversy continues over at just what blood pressure level treatment should be started. All agree that treatment is indicated for sustained diastolic blood pressure readings over 100 mm Hg and not indicated for diastolic pressures under 90 mm Hg. In the case of patients with diastolic readings between 90 and 100 mm Hg and those with isolated high systolic readings, clinicians must decide on an individual basis whether to begin treatment or continue to observe the patient.

B. Treatment: Treatment strategies include nonpharmacologic interventions (most effective for mild hypertension) such as dietary salt and alcohol restriction, weight reduction, exercise programs, and relaxation techniques as well as specific antihypertensive drug therapy as set forth in detail in Chapter 8.

CANCER

Primary Prevention

Cigarette smoking is the most important preventable cause of cancer. Primary prevention of skin cancer consists of restricting exposure to ultraviolet light by wearing appropriate clothing and use of sunscreens. Prevention of occupationally induced cancers involves minimizing exposure to carcinogenic substances such as asbestos, ionizing radiation, and benzene compounds.

Secondary Prevention

Generally recognized and used techniques exist for secondary prevention of cancers of the breast, colon, and cervix through cancer screening procedures (Table 1-3). Screening for other cancers in normal asymptomatic or even high-risk segments of the population is not generally recommended. There is even some controversy about the cost effectiveness, frequency, and age categories flagged for screening in Table 1-3.

ACCIDENTS & VIOLENCE

Accidents remain the most important cause of loss of potential years of life before age 65, followed by cancer, heart disease, and suicide and homicide. De-

Table 1–3. American Cancer Society (1983) guidelines for the early detection of cancer in people without symptoms.

| Test or Procedure | Sex | Age | Frequency |
|--|-------------|---|--|
| Sigmoidoscopy | M&F | Over 50 | Every 3–5 years after 2 negative examinations 1 year apart. |
| Stool guaiac slide test | M&F | Over 50 | Every year. |
| Digital rectal examination | M&F | Over 40 | Every year. |
| Papanicolaou test | F | 20–65; under 20 if sexually active. | At least every 3 years after 2 negative examinations 1 year apart. |
| Pelvic examina- | F | 20-40 | Every 3 years. |
| tion | | Over 40 | Every year. |
| Endometrial tissue sample | F (8) | At menopause; women at high risk. | At menopause. |
| Breast self- examination | F | Over 20 | Every month. |
| Breast physical | F | 20-40 | Every 3 years. |
| examination | | Over 40 | Every year. |
| lammography | F | 35–39 | Baseline. |
| | | 40-49 | Every 1-2 years. |
| | | 50+ | Every year. |
| Chest x-ray | | The second second | Not recommended |
| Sputum cyto- logic exami- nation | (7) (8) (8) | mater services | Not recommended |
| Health counsel- | M&F | Over 20 | Every 3 years. |
| ing and can- cer checkup [†] | TOLDING | Over 40 | Every year. |

^{&#}x27;History of infertility, obesity, failure of ovulation, abnormal uterine bleeding, or estrogen therapy.

spite incontrovertible evidence that seat belt use protects against serious injury and death in motor vehicle accidents, fewer than 30% of all adults use seat belts routinely. As part of routine medical care, physicians should try to educate their patients about seat belts, drinking and driving, and gun safety in the home. Males age 16–35 are at especially high risk for serious injury and death from accidents and violence.

THE PHYSICIAN-PATIENT RELATIONSHIP

One of the most effective therapeutic tools available to the clinician is a confident and trusting relationship with the patient. Good communication is essential to maximize the effects of therapy by ensuring patient compliance, helping patients to understand and choose among therapeutic options, and enabling them to bear the burden of serious illness and death. The old French folk saying, "To cure sometimes, to relieve often, to comfort always" is as apt today as it was 5 centuries ago.

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GENERAL SYMPTOMS

PAIN

Approach to the Patient

Pain is the most common symptom causing patients to seek medical attention. It can provide the clinician with important diagnostic information. Because pain is a highly subjective phenomenon, the patient's description may be difficult to interpret. Information about the timing, nature, location, and radiation is

[†] To include examination for cancers of the thyroid, testicles, prostate, ovaries, lymph nodes, oral region, and skin.

crucial for proper treatment; the same is true for aggravating or alleviating factors.

Many emotional and cultural factors influence the perception of pain. The primary cause (eg, trauma, infection), pathogenesis (eg, inflammation, ischemia), and contributory factors (eg, recent changes in life situation, symbolic attributes of pain) must all be sought for.

Administration of a systemic analgesic is the usual method of pain management, but many other nonpharmacologic methods are useful. Examples include graded physical activity, simple reassurance, support groups, biofeedback training, and transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation.

1. DRUGS FOR SEVERE PAIN

The addicting analgesics—narcotics, opioids—are indicated for severe pain that cannot be relieved with less effective agents. Examples are the pain of severe trauma, myocardial infarction, ureteral stone, and postoperative pain. Table 1–4 lists the addicting analgesics with some of their characteristics.

These drugs have pharmacologic similarities to opium. They are employed principally for the control of severe pain, but they also act to suppress severe cough and gastrointestinal motility. All can produce physical dependence, but to varying degrees and after varying periods of use. The risk of addiction or habituation should not prevent their appropriate use, especially in the management of terminal illness.

A common error in management of pain from can-

cer is to prescribe insufficient doses "prn" rather than adequate doses around-the-clock at stated intervals. In such cases, the major goal of management should be patient comfort.

The "Brompton cocktail," a mixture of heroin or morphine, cocaine, a phenothiazine, alcohol, and chloroform water for oral administration, was widely publicized as an effective analgesic in British hospices. Subsequent studies have shown that morphine alone is just as effective. The effects of all narcotics are reversed by naloxone. Continued use produces tolerance, so that increasing doses are needed to produce the same analgesic effect.

Contraindications

The narcotic drugs are contraindicated in some acute illnesses. In acute abdomen, for example, the pattern of pain may provide important diagnostic clues; and in acute head injuries these drugs interfere with clinical interpretation of neurologic changes.

Adverse Effects

The drugs in this category have the potential adverse effects listed below. Patients with hypothyroidism, adrenal insufficiency, hypopituitarism, reduced blood volume, and severe debility are particularly apt to suffer adverse effects from the addicting analgesics.

- Opioid narcotics should be given with great caution to patients with pulmonary insufficiency, because of dose-dependent respiratory depression.
- (2) Central nervous system effects include sedation, euphoria, nausea, and vomiting. Antidepres-

Table 1-4. Useful narcotic analgesics.*

| | Approximate Equivalent Dose (mg) | Oral:Parenteral Potency Ratio | Duration of Analgesia (hours) | Maximum Efficacy | Addiction/Abuse Liability |
|--------------------------------------|--|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|---------------------|------------------------------|
| Morphine | 10 | Low | 4-5 | High | High |
| Hydromorphone (Dilaudid) | 1.5 | Low | 4-5 | High | High |
| Oxymorphone (Numorphan) | 1.5 | Low | 3-4 | Hìgh | High |
| Methadone (Dolophine) | 10 | High | 4-6 | High | High |
| Meperidine (Demerol) | 60–100 | Low | 2-4 | High | High |
| Codeine | 30-60 [†] | High | 3-4 | Low | Medium |
| Oxycodone [‡] (Percodan) | 4.5 [†] | Medium | ,3-4 | Moderate | Medium |
| Propoxyphene (Darvon) | 60-120 [†] | Oral use only | 4-5 | Very low | Low/medium |
| Pentazocine (Talwin) | 30-50 [†] | Medium | 3-4 | Moderate | Low/medium |

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Available only in tablets containing aspirin (Percodan) or acetaminophen (Percocet).

[†] Analgesic efficacy at this dose not equivalent to 10 mg of morphine. See text for explanation.

sants, antihistamines, phenothiazines, and hypnotics can potentiate these effects.

- (3) Cardiovascular effects of particular importance are hypotension and circulatory collapse, though this is less common than hypoventilation.
- (4) Gastrointestinal effects are chiefly decreased bowel motility and consequent constipation.
- (5) Genitourinary effects include bladder spasm and urinary retention.
- (6) Enhanced sensitivity to the drugs occurs in patients with hepatic insufficiency; biliary spasm may cause severe biliary colic.
 - (7) Allergic manifestations also occur, but rarely.

Frequently Used Addictive Analgesics

- A. Morphine sulfate, 8–15 mg subcutaneously or intramuscularly, is the most effective drug for control of severe pain. The effects last 4–5 hours. In acute anterior myocardial infarction or in acute pulmonary edema due to left ventricular failure, 2–6 mg may be injected slowly intravenously in 5 mL of saline solution.
- B. Morphine congeners give effects equivalent to 10 mg of morphine sulfate but have no specific advantages—eg, hydromorphone or oxymorphone, 2—4 mg of either orally every 4 hours, or 1–3 mg of either subcutaneously every 4 hours.
- C. Meperidine (Demerol), 50–150 mg orally or intramuscularly every 3–4 hours, provides analgesia similar to that achieved with morphine. Its indications and side effects are similar to those of morphine. Some clinicians prefer its use in inferior wall myocardial infarction, as it is less vagotonic.
- **D. Methadone**, 10 mg orally, is most often used for treatment of addiction. Its side effects are similar to those of morphine, but tolerance and physical dependence are slower to develop.
- **E. Codeine** (sulfate or phosphate), 15–65 mg orally or subcutaneously every 4–6 hours, is somewhat less effective than morphine but also less habit-forming. It is often given together with aspirin or acetaminophen for enhanced analgesic effect. Codeine is a powerful cough suppressant in a dose of 15–30 mg orally every 4 hours but is constipating.
- **F. Oxycodone** is given orally and prescribed with another analgesic. The dosage is 5 mg every 4–6 hours in tablets that contain aspirin (Percodan) or acetaminophen (Percocet).
- G. Propoxyphene (Darvon), 65 mg orally every 4-6 hours, has an analgesic effect little better than that of aspirin, but the side effects are minimal. When the drug is combined with aspirin or acetaminophen, the analgesic action is enhanced but is still similar to optimal doses of aspirin. Compared with other drugs in this category, it has a low potential for addiction.
- H. Pentazocine (Talwin), 50 mg orally or 30 mg intramuscularly every 3-4 hours, is one of a group of agonist-antagonist opioids—ie, it can induce withdrawal symptoms in addicts while also having

a morphinelike action. It has moderate analgesic action. Pentazocine offers little advantage, can cause addiction, and is less effective than morphine.

2. DRUGS FOR MODERATE OR MILD PAIN

Most people can manage their minor aches and pains with OTC analgesics available at the drug store or food store. Drugs such as codeine, oxycodone, and pentazocine, listed above as "addictive narcotics," are sometimes used for moderate pain, but salicylates or acetaminophen in higher doses or the highly visible class of NSAIDs are often better for this purpose. (See Table 1–5.)

The activity—both anti-inflammatory and analge-sic—of aspirin and other NSAIDs is mediated through inhibition of the biosynthesis of prostaglandins. All of these drugs to varying degrees inhibit prothrombin synthesis and platelet aggregation and may cause gastric irritation and kidney damage. All NSAIDs are analgesic, antipyretic, and anti-inflammatory in dose-dependent fashion. Their principal uses are in the control of moderate pain of arthritis (rheumatoid, degenerative, etc), other musculoskeletal disorders, menstrual cramps, and other—mainly self-limited—conditions, including moderate postoperative discomfort. Suicide attempts with overdoses of NSAIDs are less serious and less often successful than attempts with aspirin.

Table 1-5 lists the most commonly used NSAIDs along with dosages and pertinent comments.

The ability to tolerate minor degrees of discomfort varies greatly in different individuals. The most widely used agents for these purposes are aspirin and acetaminophen.

Aspirin is the drug of first choice for management of mild to moderate pain and is an effective antipyretic and anti-inflammatory agent. Analgesia is achieved with much lower doses and blood levels than are needed for anti-inflammatory action. Aspirin is available in many forms for oral administration in a single 325-mg unit dose, as well as smaller (eg, 60 mg) and larger (eg, 500 mg) doses. The usual dose is 2 tablets (650 mg) every 4 hours as needed, taken with fluid. Gastrointestinal irritation can be reduced by ingestion with food or with an antacid. Enteric-coated aspirin, which is more expensive (Ecotrin; many others), can be used to avoid gastric irritation, but absorption is delayed.

The main untoward effect of aspirin—especially in large doses or when taken chronically—is gastric irritation and microscopic blood loss from the gut. Rarely, there may be massive gastrointestinal hemorrhage, most commonly in heavy drinkers or patients with a history of peptic ulcer disease.

Aspirin allergy occurs infrequently and may be manifested as rhinorrhea, the growth of nasal polyps, asthma attacks, and—very rarely—anaphylactic shock. The incidence of true aspirin allergy is less than 0.1% in the general population.