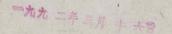
Manual of
Antibiotics
and
Infectious Diseases

JOHN E. CONTE



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Sixth Edition



Manual of Antibiotics and Infectious Diseases

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Sixth Edition



LEA & FEBIGER



Philadelphia

Lea & Febiger 600 Washington Square Philadelphia, PA 19106 -4198 U.S.A. (215) 922-1330

Library of Congress Cataloging in Publication Data

Conte, John E.

Manual of antibiotics and infectious diseases.

Includes bibliographies and index.

1. Antibiotics—Handbooks, manuals, etc.

2. Communicable diseases—Chemotherapy—Handbooks, manuals, etc. 1 Barriere, Steven L. II. Title.

[DNLM: 1. Antibiotics—handbooks. 2. Communicable diseases—drug therapy—handbooks. QV 39 C761m]

RM267.C63 1987 615'.329 87-2988

1SBN 0-8121-1107-9

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PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Print No. 32

Preface

This manual is designed for students, housestaff, practicing physicians, and other health professionals involved in the day-to-day care of patients with infectious diseases. An attempt has been made to incorporate into one book a variety of important source materials that ordinarily can be found in many different locations:

The manual is divided into eight sections:

Section I. Antibiotics

Clinically important information is presented for each antibiotic. In some instances, two or three antibiotics that are similar are discussed together. This section includes the availability and trade names of each drug, its clinical use, administration and dosage, dosage in renal insufficiency, pharmacology, adverse reactions, and drug interactions. Further reading lists are also supplied.

Section II. Empiric Antibiotic Therapy

Recommendations are made for drugs of choice, alternative therapy, appropriate dosages, and routes of administration for various clinical situations in which infection is suspected.

Section III. Therapy of Established Infection

Empiric antibiotic therapy is continued until Gram stains and cultures from the laboratory reveal one or more specific agents. At this point, specific therapy is begun; this section summarizes antibiotic choices, doses, route of administration, and duration of therapy.

Section IV. Antibiotic Susceptibilities

Section V. Prophylactic Antibiotics

This section provides guidelines for the use of prophylactic antibiotics; general principles; American Heart Association recommendations for the prevention of endocarditis during various surgical procedures; American Heart Association recommendations for the prevention of rheumatic fever; tuberculosis; and meningococcal infec-

Section VI. Availability and Clinical Use of Immunobiologic Agents and Antiparasitic Drugs

These agents are available by request from the Immunobiologics, Biologic Products Division, Bureau of Laboratories, of the Center for Disease Control. Guidelines are given for the use of BCG; immune serum globulin and hepatitis B immune globulin; influenza vaccine; pneumococcal vaccine; polio vaccine; rabies immune globulin; tetanus prophylaxis; immunobiologic agents and drugs distributed by the CDC and drogs for the treatment of parasitic infections, including malaria.

Section VII. Sexually Transmitted Diseases-Treatment Guidelines

United States Public Health Service recommendations for the treatment of syphilis and gonorrhea are provided.

San Francisco, California JOHN E. CONTE. JR. Los Angeles, California STEVEN L. BARRIERE

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Acknowledgments

We would like to dedicate this manual to our wives, Michelle and Joan, without whose patience and understanding this manual would not have been possible.

We would like to thank Karen Mah-Hing for her patient secretarial assistance.



Abbreviations

AIDS acquired immunodeficiency syndrome bid twice a day BUN blood urea nitrogen cubic centimeter CC CDC Center for Disease Control CNS central nervous system Cla creatinine clearance C, plasma concentration Cre serum creatinine CSF cerebrospinal fluid dl deciliter(s) FTA-ABS fluorescent treponemal antibody absorption (test) gastrointestinal GI g gram(s) G6PD glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (deficiency) HIV human immunodeficiency virus hir hour(s) (11) intradermal IM intramuscular IT intrathecal international unit(s) IU IV intravenous kg kilogram(s) 1 Liter LD loading dose

xvi - Abbreviations

LP lumbar puncture

M molar

MBC minimum bactericidal concentration

mcg microgram(s)
MD maintenance dose
meq milliequivalent
mg milligram(s)

MIC minimum inhibitory concentration
MI.C minimum lethal concentration

ml milliliter(s)
MU million units
PO by mouth

PPD purified protein derivative (of tuberculin)

qd daily, once a day gid 4 times a day god every other day q2h every 2 hours every 4 hours q4h every 6 hours q6h every 8 hours q8h q12h every 12 hours RBC red blood cell

RPR rapid protein reagin

SIADH syndrome of inappropriate antidiuretic hormone secretion

t½ half-life
TB tuberculosis

TGC third-generation cephalosporin

tid 3 times a day

U unit(s)

UTI urinary tract infection V_D volume of distribution

VDRL Venereal Disease Research Laboratories

Contents

Section I. Antibiotics	eshalemon digital
Acyclovir	
Amantadine	
Amdinocillin	
Amikacin	- to the same of t
Amoxicillin	
Amphotericin B (AmB)	200202191914
Ampicillin	ill will only by
Azlocillin/Mezlocillin/Piperacillin	a delocca out d
Aztreonam	The state of the state of
Capreomycin	2
Carbenicillin	2
Cefacior	
Cefadroxil	
Cefamandole	Tomsultan 2
Cefazolin	2
Cerazonn	
Cefonicid/Ceforanide	2
Cefoperazone	2
Celolaxline	Zining and a zining Zin
Cefotetan	
Ćefoxitim	8
Ceftazidime	
Ceftizoxime	
Ceftriaxone	
Cefuroxime	
Cephalexin/Cephradine	
Cephalothin/Cephapirin	
Chloramphenicol	
Cinoxacin	
Clavulanic Acid	The state of the s
Clindamycin	
Cloxacillin/Dicloxacillin	

Colistin (Colistimethate)/Polymyxin B	. 43
Cycloserine	. 44
Doxycycline	. 45
Erythromycin	
Ethambutol.	
Ethionamide	. 48
Flucytosine (5-Fluorocytosine)	
Gentamicin	. 50
Gtiseofulvin	
Imipenem-Cilastatin	
Isoniazid	
Kanamycin	
Ketoconazole	. 57
Methenamine	. 58
Methicillin	. 59
Methisazone,	. 60
Metronidazole	. 61
Miconazole	62
Minocycline	. 63
Moxalactam	. 64
Nafcillin	
Nalidixic Acid	
Netilmicin	68
Nitrofurantoin	
Oxacillin	
Para-Aminosalicylic Acid (PAS)	
Penicillin G	
Penicillin V (Phenoxymethyl Penicillin)	. 75
Pentamidine	76
Pyrazinamide	.: 77
Pyrimethamine	
Quinolones	79
Rifampin	. 80
Spectinomycln	
Streptomycin :	
Sulfadoxine	83
Sulfisoxazole	
Tetracycline	
Ticarcillin	
Tobramycin	89
Trimethoprim and Sulfamethoxazole (Co-Trimoxazole)	
Vancomycin	
Vidarabine	94
Viomycin,	94

Contents	XI
Table 11-1. Empiric Antibiotic Therapy—Cardiovascular	96
Table II-2. Empiric Antibiotic Therapy—Musculoskeletal	97
Table II-3. Empiric Antibiotic Therapy—CNS Infection	98
Gonorrhea. Table II–4B. Syphilis.	100
Table II–4C. Chancroid and Lymphogranuloma Venereum Table II–4D. Chlamydia Trachomatis Infection Table II–4E. Syndromes Associated with Sexually Transmitted	102
Diseases	103
Table II-6. Empiric Antibiotic Therapy—Urinary Tract	
Table II-7. Empiric Antibiotic Therapy—Respiratory	
Infection Table II–8. Empiric Antibiotic Therapy—Skin Infection	106
ection III. Therapy of Established Infection	109
Table III-1. Infective Endocarditis	110
Table III–2. Musculoskeletal Infection	113
Table III-3. Pediatric Meningitis	115
Table III–3A. Adult Meningitis	117
Table III-4. Acute Bacterial Gastroenteritis	118
Table III-4A. Gastrointestinal Infection	120
Table III-5. Urinary Tract Infection	122
Table III-6. Respiratory Infection	124
Table III–7. Miscellaneous Infections	127
ection IV. Antibiotic Susceptibilities	135
Table IV-1. Minimum Inhibitory Concentration Interpretive	400
Standards (mcg/ml)—Three Categories of Susceptibility	136
Table IV-2. Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations for Suscep-	1.00
tible Organisms (mcg/ml)—Gram-Positive Bacteria	110
Table IV-3. Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations for Suscep-	
Table IV-4. Comparable In-Vitro Activity of New Cephalo-	
sporin Agents Against Major Pathogens	
Table IV-5. Antimicrobial Activity of the Fluoroquinolones	146

Table IV-6. Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations for Suscep-	
tible Organisms (mcg/ml)—Anaerobic Bacteria	148
Table IV-7. Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations for Suscep-	
tible Organisms (mcg/ml)—Miscellaneous Organisms	149
Table IV-8. Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations for Suscep-	
tible Organisms (mcg/ml)—Mycobacteria	150
Table IV-9. Runyon Classification of Atypical Mycobacteria	151
Section V. Prophylactic Antibiotics	153
Surgical Prophylaxis	153
Medical Prophylaxis	153
Guidelines for Isoniazid Prophylaxis of Tuberculous	
Infection	165
Prevention of Rheumatic Fever	172
Guidelines for Meningococcal Prophylaxis	178
B Disease	180
Malaria Chemoprophylaxis (see Section VI-Clinical Use of	
Antiparasitic Drugs)	
Section VI. Availability and Clinical Use of Immunobiologic	
Agents and Antiparasitic Drugs	187
BCG Vaccine	187
Botulism Equine Antitoxin (ABE)	189
Diphtheria Equine Antitoxin	190
Diphtheria, Tetanus, and Pertussis	191
Influenza Vaccine	212
Measles Virus Vaccine	225
Mumps Vaccine	233
Pneumococcal Vaccine	238
Poliomyelițis Vaccines	243
Pabies Prevention	249
Rabies Prevention	261
Varicella-Zoster Immune Globulin (VZIG)	263
Immunobiologic Agents and Drugs Distributed by the Center	05.
for Disease Control	274
Clinical Use of Antiparasitic Drugs	304
Section VII. Sexually Transmitted Diseases—Treatment	
Guidelines	327
Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS)	327
Chancroid (Haemophilus ducreyi) Infection	329
Chlamydia trachomatis Infection	330
Enteric Infections	332

Contents	xiii
Gonococcal Infections	334
Viral Hepatitis	340
Genital Herpes Simplex Virus Infection	340
Lymphogranuloma Venereum: Genital, Inguinal, or	
Anorectal	342
Nongonococcal Urethritis (NGU)	342
Prevention of Ophthalmia Neonatorum	343
Parasitic Skin Infections	343
Acute Pelvic Inflammatory Disease (PID): Endometritis,	
Salpingitis, Parametritis, and/or Peritonitis	345
Syphilis	347
Trichomoniasis	352
Genital and Anal Warts (Condylomata Acuminata)	353
Other Genitourinary Syndromes in Men	355
Other Genitourinary Syndromes in Women	356
Prevention of Special Maternal and Neonatal Infections	358
Special Treatment-Related Discussions	359
ndex	363

Section I

ANTIBIOTICS

The summaries of antibiotics that follow are designed to provide the clinician with an overview of the clinical use of each agent, along with pertinent facts concerning comparative efficacy and toxicity, if similar agents are available. Each section provides information on appropriate dosage and administration in patients with normal and impaired renal function and other important clinical pharmacologic parameters. Sections on adverse reactions and significant drug interactions are provided, and a few references are listed to allow the reader to review each agent in more depth or to investigate more controversial points.

An attempt is made to provide information on all currently useful antibiotics. Older drugs that have fallen into relative disuse are not included. For example, semisynthetic penicillins such as phenethicillin or hetacillin, cephalosporins such as cephaloridine or cephaloglycin, aminoglycosides such as neomycin, or agents such as triacetyloleandomycin have little to no role in current clinical medicine and are either less effective or more toxic than new agents. Our experience and other clinical data document the relative lack of interstitial nephritis secondary to nafcillin. Since methicillin is associated with a significant incidence of nephritis, and since oxacillin may be hepatotoxic, recommendations in the manual are for the use of nafcillin in the treatment of staphylococcal infection. Over the past 5 years there have been an increasing number of reports of infections with methicillin (or nafcillin)-resistant Staphylococcus aureus in US hospitals. In some medical centers, 20 to 50% of all S. aureus isolates and up to two-thirds of S. epidermidis isolates are resistant to methicillin. In these settings, vancomycin is the empiric treatment of choice for serious staphylococcal infections. Although methicillin-resistant S. aureus isolates may appear to be sensitive to other agents by routine disc testing, these antibiotics (e.g., cephalosporins) are either ineffective or unproven in methicillin-resistant S. aureus infection.

Several tetracycline and sulfonamide derivatives are deliberately ex-

cluded, since these analogs offer no advantage over tetracycline or sulfisoxazole in the treatment of infectious diseases. Exceptions are noted in the summaries of each drug. It must be emphasized that although the summaries reflect the majority of opinions on clinical use, they also contain our opinions and interpretation of the available data, as well as our experiences.

Several "third-generation" cephalosporins and "fourth-generation" penicillins have become available for clinical use, and these are included in the summaries. Cinoxacin (a nalidixic-acid analog), acyclovir, ketoconazole, and netilmicin are included as well. Data are also supplied on agents which are investigational at the time of this writing, but which we expect to soon be available.

DEFINITIONS

Serum Concentrations. The values provided are the expected maximal concentrations achieved after administration of the listed dose.

Urinary Concentrations. The values provided are the range of maximal concentrations achievable after administration of the listed dose

in a patient with normal renal function.

Volume of Distribution (V_D). The apparent volume of distribution is that volume of fluid into which the drug appears to distribute through body fluid compartments and by its uptake into tissues. It is a relationship between the total amount of drug in the body and the serum

concentration $\left(\frac{\text{Amount of drug in the body}}{\text{Serum concentration}} = V_D\right)$, and is expressed

as volume (L) or volume per unit weight (L/kg).

Half-Life (1½). When absorption and distribution are complete, the plasma concentrations for most antibiotics decline exponentially; thus drug elimination follows first-order kinetics. The slope of the curve obtained during this phase is equal to the elimination rate constant (k). Half-life is related to the slope k by the equation:

$$t\frac{1}{2} = \frac{\ln 2}{k} = \frac{0.693}{k}$$

The slope of the curve and half-life can be estimated by a plot of drug concentration (log scale) versus time (linear scale) (see Fig. 1-1).

PROTEIN BINDING

The values listed are the average reported for percent of drug bound to plasma proteins. These data are potentially important since highly protein bound drugs are generally not cleared by hemodialysis. Additionally, the protein-bound drug is not antibacterially active and the bound drug is not diffusible.

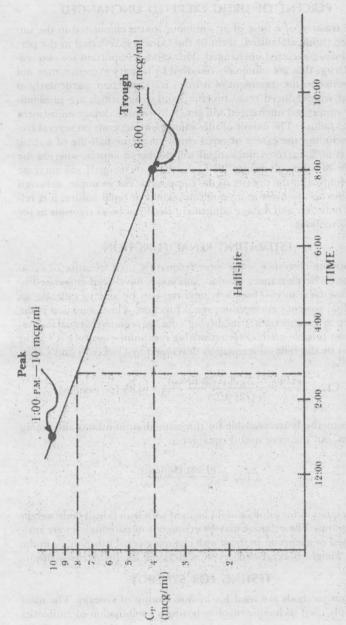


Fig. 1-1. In order to estimate the half-life of a drug, one should (1) draw a straight line connecting the two measured plasma levels at the appropriate time, and then (2) choose two points along the line, the first of which is half the concentration of the second. The time it takes for the C, to decline by half (8 to 4 mcg/ml) is 5% hours.

PERCENT OF DRUG EXCRETED UNCHANGED

The fraction of a dose of an antibiotic that is eliminated in the unchanged (nonmetabolized) form by the kidneys is reflected in the percent of drug excreted unchanged. This value is important for two reasons: Drugs that are minimally removed by urinary excretion may not be effective in the treatment of urinary tract infection, particularly in patients with reduced renal function; and drugs which are predominantly eliminated unchanged will generally require dosage adjustment in renal failure. The extent of this adjustment depends on several factors, including the extent of renal elimination (the half-life of a drug which is 50% excreted unchanged will double in anuria, whereas the half-life of aminoglycosides [95% excreted unchanged] will increase twentyfold), and the toxicity of the compound. For example, although ampicillin accumulates to a significant extent in renal failure, it is relatively nontoxic and dosage adjustment need not be as rigorous as for aminoglycosides.

ESTIMATING RENAL FUNCTION

Creatinine clearance is the most frequently used measure of renal function. The clearances of most antibiotics have been correlated to creatinine clearance. Thus, it is important to be able to estimate an individual patient's endogenous renal function. This estimation is the first step in the approach to modifying a dosage regimen in renal failure. The most reliable method for estimating creatinine clearance (CL_{CR}) in adults is by the following equation developed by Cockcroft and Gault:

$$CL_{CR} = \frac{(140 - \text{Age}) \text{ (Wgt in kg)}}{(72) \text{ (Crs)}} [\times 0.85 \text{ for women}]$$

Various methods are available for this estimation in infants and young children, but the most useful equation is:

$$CL_{c_{B}} = \frac{(0.48) \; Hgt(cm)}{Cr_{s}}$$

The equation for adults should be used with lean (ideal) body weight in kilograms. The estimate may be erroneous in patients who are malnourished or cachectic, in those with changing renal function, or in the elderly. Height is expressed in centimeters for the pediatric equation.

TESTING FOR SYNERGY

Various methods are used for in-vitro testing of synergy. The most commonly used technique involves testing a combination of antibiotics