

Chapter 40: Gastrointestinal Infections

INTRODUCTION

- *Gastrointestinal* (GI) infections are among the more common causes of morbidity and mortality around the world. Most are caused by viruses, and some are caused by bacteria or other organisms. In underdeveloped and developing countries, acute gastroenteritis involving diarrhea is the leading cause of mortality in infants and children younger than 5 years of age. In the United States, there are 179 million episodes of acute gastroenteritis each year, causing nearly 500,000 hospitalizations and over 5000 deaths.
- Viruses are now the leading global cause of infectious diarrhea. Noroviruses, previously known as Norwalk-like viruses, account for greater than 90% of viral gastroenteritis among all age groups, and 50% of outbreaks worldwide.
- Public health measures such as clean water supply and sanitation facilities, as well as quality control of commercial products, are important for the control of most enteric infections. Sanitary food handling and preparation practices significantly decrease the incidence of enteric infections.

REHYDRATION, ANTIMOTILITY, AND PROBIOTIC THERAPY

- The cornerstone of management for all GI infections and enterotoxigenic poisonings is to prevent dehydration by correcting fluid and electrolyte imbalances. In mild, self-limiting acute gastroenteritis, a diet of oral fluids and easily digestible foods is recommended. In patients with severe dehydrating watery diarrhea and dysenteric diarrhea, IV rehydration therapy, antibiotics, and/or antimotility treatments are needed.
- Initial assessment of fluid loss is essential for rehydration. Weight loss is the most reliable means of determining the extent of water loss. Clinical signs such as changes in skin turgor, sunken eyes, dry mucous membranes, decreased tearing, decreased urine output, altered mentation, and changes in vital signs can be helpful in determining approximate deficits (**Table 40-1**).
- The necessary components of **oral rehydration solution** (ORS) include glucose, sodium, **potassium chloride**, and water (**Table 40-2**). ORS should be given in small frequent volumes (5 mL every 2–3 minutes) in a teaspoon or oral syringe.
- Severely dehydrated patients should be resuscitated initially with lactated Ringer's solution or normal intravenous (IV) saline. Guidelines for rehydration therapy based on the degree of dehydration and replacement of ongoing losses are outlined in **Table 40-1**. After rehydration, maintenance fluid is given based on accurate recording of intake and output volumes. ORS should be instituted as soon as it can be tolerated.
- Early refeeding with age-appropriate unrestricted diet is recommended in children and shortens the course of diarrhea. Initially, easily digested foods, such as bananas, applesauce, and cereal may be added as tolerated. Foods high in fiber, sodium, and sugar should be avoided.
- Antimotility drugs such as **diphenoxylate** and **loperamide** offer symptomatic relief in patients with watery diarrhea by reducing the number of stools. Antimotility drugs should be avoided if possible and are not recommended in patients with many toxin-mediated dysenteric diarrheas (ie, enterohemorrhagic *Escherichia coli* [EHEC], pseudomembranous colitis, shigellosis).
- Individual studies have not shown significant benefit from probiotics, and meta-analyses have shown conflicting results. Probiotics should not be recommended for prophylaxis or treatment of initial antibiotic-associated diarrhea.

TABLE 40-1

Clinical Assessment of Degree of Dehydration in Children Based on Percentage of Body Weight Loss^a

Variable	Minimal or No Dehydration (<3% Loss of Body Weight)	Mild-to-Moderate (3%-9% Loss of Body Weight)	Severe (≥10% Loss of Body Weight)
Blood pressure	Normal	Normal	Normal to reduced
Quality of pulses	Normal	Normal or slightly decreased	Weak, thready, or not palpable
Heart rate	Normal	Normal to increased	Increased (bradycardia in severe cases)
Breathing	Normal	Normal to fast	Deep
Mental status	Normal	Normal to listless	Apathetic, lethargic, or comatose
Eyes	Normal	Sunken orbits/decreased tears	Deeply sunken orbits/absent tears
Mouth and tongue	Moist	Dry	Parched
Thirst	Normal	Eager to drink	Drinks poorly; too lethargic to drink
Skin fold	Normal	Recoil in <2 seconds	Recoil in >2 seconds
Extremities	Warm, normal capillary refill	Cool, prolonged capillary refill	Cold, mottled, cyanotic, prolonged capillary refill
Urine output	Normal to decreased	Decreased	Minimal
Hydration therapy	None	ORS 50–100 mL/kg over 3–4 hours	Lactated Ringer's solution or normal saline 20 mL/kg over 15–30 minutes IV until mental status or perfusion improves Followed by 5% dextrose/0.45% sodium chloride IV at higher maintenance rates or ORS 100 mL/kg over 4 hours
Replacement of ongoing losses	For each diarrheal stool or emesis <10 kg body weight: 60–120 mL ORS >10 kg body weight: 120–240 mL ORS	Same as minimal dehydration	If unable to tolerate ORS, administer through nasogastric tube or administer 5% dextrose/0.45% sodium chloride with 20 mEq/L (mmol/L) potassium chloride IV

^aPercentages vary among patients for each dehydration category; hemodynamic and perfusion status is most important; when unsure of category, therapy for more severe category is recommended.

ORS, oral rehydration solution.

TABLE 40-2

Comparison of Common Solutions Used in Oral Rehydration and Maintenance

Product	Na (mEq/L) ^b	K (mEq/L) ^b	Base (mEq/L)	Carbohydrate (mmol/L)	Osmolarity (mOsm/L)
WHO/UNICEF (2002)	75	20	30	75	245
Pedialyte	45	20	30	140	250
Infalyte	50	25	30	70	200
Oralyte	60	20	0	90	260
Rehydralyte	75	20	30	140	250
Cola ^a	2	0	13	700	750
Apple juice ^a	5	32	0	690	730
Chicken broth ^a	250	8	0	0	500
Sports beverage ^a	20	3	3	255	330

^aThese solutions should be avoided in dehydration.

^bConcentration of monovalent ions expressed in mEq/L is numerically equivalent to mmol/L concentration.

BACTERIAL INFECTIONS

- Antibiotic therapy is recommended in severe cases of diarrhea, moderate-to-severe cases of traveler’s diarrhea, most cases of febrile dysenteric diarrhea, and culture-proven bacterial diarrhea. Antibiotics are not essential in the treatment of most mild diarrheas, and empirical therapy for acute GI infections may result in unnecessary antibiotic courses. Antibiotic choices for bacterial infections are given in **Table 40-3**. Antimicrobial therapy is not recommended in EHEC diarrhea as it may increase risk of hemolytic-uremic syndrome.
- Common pathogens responsible for watery diarrhea in the United States are norovirus and enterotoxigenic *Escherichia coli* (ETEC), while those most commonly associated with dysentery diarrhea are *Campylobacter* spp., EHEC, *Salmonella* spp., and *Shigella* spp. ETEC is also the most common cause of traveler’s diarrhea and a common cause of food- and water-associated outbreaks. Cholera is caused by toxigenic *V. cholera*.

TABLE 40-3

Recommendations for Antibiotic Therapy

Pathogen	Children	Adults
Watery Diarrhea		
Enterotoxigenic <i>Escherichia coli</i>	Azithromycin 10 mg/kg/day given orally once daily × 3 days; ceftriaxone 50 mg/kg/day given IV once daily × 3	Ciprofloxacin 750 mg orally once daily × 1–3 days; alternatives: rifaximin 200 mg orally three times daily × 3 days; azithromycin 1000 mg orally × 1 day or 500 mg orally daily × 3 days

	days	
<i>Vibrio cholerae</i> O1	Erythromycin 30 mg/kg/day divided every 8 hours orally × 3 days; azithromycin 10 mg/kg/day given orally once daily × 3 days	Doxycycline 300 mg orally × 1 day Alternatives: azithromycin 500 mg orally once daily × 3 days; ciprofloxacin 750 mg orally once daily × 3 days; ceftriaxone IV
Dysenteric Diarrhea		
<i>Campylobacter</i> species ^a	Azithromycin 10 mg/kg/day given orally once daily × 3–5 days; erythromycin 30 mg/kg/day divided into two to four doses orally × 3–5 days	Azithromycin 500 mg orally once daily × 3 days Alternatives: ciprofloxacin 750 mg orally once daily × 7 days
<i>Salmonella</i> Nontyphoidal ^a	Ceftriaxone 100 mg/kg/day divided IV every 12 hours × 7–10 days; azithromycin 20 mg/kg/day orally once daily × 7 days	Ceftriaxone 2 g IV/IM once; ciprofloxacin 750 mg orally once daily × 7–10 days Alternatives: ampicillin 250–500 mg orally every 6 hours × 7 days; azithromycin 500 mg orally once daily × 7 days; trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole 160/800 mg twice daily × 7 days For immunocompromised patients, duration should be increased to 14 days for both fluoroquinolones and azithromycin
<i>Shigella</i> species ^a	Azithromycin 10 mg/kg/day given orally once daily × 3 days; ceftriaxone 50 mg/kg/day given IV once daily × 3 days	Azithromycin 500 mg orally once daily × 3 days; ceftriaxone 2 g IV/IM once; ciprofloxacin 750 mg orally once daily × 3 days Alternatives: ampicillin 250–500 mg orally every 6 hours × 7 days; trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole 160/800 mg twice daily × 7 days
<i>Yersinia</i> species ^a	Treat as children with shigellosis	Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole 160/800 mg twice daily × 7 days Alternatives: cefotaxime IV or ciprofloxacin 750 mg orally once daily × 7 days
Traveler's Diarrhea		
Prophylaxis ^a		Norfloxacin 400 mg or ciprofloxacin 750 mg orally daily; rifaximin 200 mg one to three times daily up to 2 weeks
Treatment		Ciprofloxacin 750 mg orally × 1 day or 500 mg orally every 12 hours × 3 days; levofloxacin 1000 mg orally × 1 day or 500 mg orally daily × 3 days; rifaximin 200 mg three times daily × 3 days; azithromycin 1000 mg orally × 1 day or 500 mg orally daily × 3 days

^aFor high-risk patients only. See the preceding text for the high-risk patients in each infection.

Traveler's Diarrhea

- Traveler's diarrhea describes the clinical syndrome caused by contaminated food or water that is manifested by malaise, anorexia, and abdominal cramps followed by the sudden onset of diarrhea that incapacitates many travelers.
- The most common pathogens are bacterial in nature and include ETEC, *Shigella*, *Campylobacter*, and *Salmonella*. Viruses are also potential causes.
- Patient education in avoiding high-risk food and beverages should be the best method for minimizing the risk. High-risk foods and beverages include raw or undercooked meat and seafood, moist foods served at room temperature, fruits that cannot be peeled, vegetables, milk from a questionable source, hot sauces on the table, tap water, unsealed bottled water, iced drinks, and food from street vendors.
- Prophylactic antibiotic use is not recommended for most travelers due to the potential side effects of antibiotics, predisposition to other infections such as *Clostridioides difficile* infection or vaginal candidiasis, the increased risk of selection of drug-resistant organisms, cost, lack of data on the safety and efficacy of antibiotics given for more than 2 or 3 weeks, and availability of rapidly effective antibiotics for treatment.
- Prophylactic antibiotics are recommended only in high-risk individuals or in situations in which short-term illness could ruin the purpose of the trip, such as a military mission. A fluoroquinolone is the drug of choice when traveling to most areas of the world. **Azithromycin** can be considered when traveling to South and Southeast Asia.

Treatment

- The goals of treatment of traveler's diarrhea are to avoid dehydration, reduce the severity and duration of symptoms, and prevent interruption to planned activities.
- Fluid and electrolyte replacement should be initiated at the onset of diarrhea.
- Antibiotics used for treatment are found in **Table 40-3**.
- For symptom relief, **loperamide** (preferred because of its quicker onset and longer duration of relief relative to bismuth) may be taken (4 mg orally initially and then 2 mg with each subsequent loose stool to a maximum of 16 mg/day in patients without bloody diarrhea and fever). **Loperamide** should be discontinued if symptoms persist for more than 48 hours.

Clostridioides Difficile

- *C. difficile* is the most commonly recognized cause of infectious diarrhea in healthcare settings with high rates of disease in the elderly and those exposed to antibiotic agents. The antibiotics most commonly associated with *C. difficile* infection (CDI) include fluoroquinolones, **clindamycin**, carbapenems, and third-/fourth-generation cephalosporins.
- Other risk factors for acquisition of *C. difficile* include recent healthcare exposure, chemotherapy, patients undergoing GI surgery or receiving tube feeding, and potentially those receiving acid suppressive medications.
- The spectrum of disease ranges from mild diarrhea to life-threatening toxic. The diarrhea is typically watery and nonbloody, and is often associated with abdominal discomfort, fever, and leukocytosis.
- Diagnosis of CDI is confirmed by identification of *C. difficile* organisms/toxin in stool or pseudomembranous colitis visualized during endoscopy.
- Supportive care of CDI includes fluid and electrolyte replacement therapy, in addition to discontinuation of the offending antimicrobial if possible.

Treatment

- Once determination of disease severity has been made, treatment should be initiated with an antibiotic effective against *C. difficile*. **Metronidazole**, **vancomycin**, and **fidaxomicin** are the most commonly prescribed agents. Initial therapy should also include discontinuation

of the offending agent. The patient should be supported with fluid and electrolyte replacement.

- Classification of CDI severity and recommended treatment for adults is given in **Table 40-4**. In patients with severe/complicated or fulminant CDI the preferred regimen is combination therapy with IV **metronidazole** and **vancomycin**.
- Recurrence of CDI can occur in 25%–35% of patients. If **metronidazole** was used initially, then a standard **vancomycin** course can be utilized for the first recurrence. If **vancomycin** was used initially, then **fidaxomicin** can be used for the first recurrence. Alternatively, a tapered and pulsed dose of **vancomycin** can be used for the first recurrence and is the recommended treatment strategy for second or subsequent recurrences.
- Treatment with fecal microbiota transplant (FMT) has gained popularity among many practitioners. Multiple randomized controlled trials have shown efficacy of FMT with resolution rates of 80%–90% in most studies, yet the specific preparation and route of administration are not well established.

TABLE 40-4

***Clostridioides difficile* Infection Severity and Treatment**

Severity	Markers of Disease Severity	Recommended Treatment
Nonsevere	WBC ≤15,000 cells/mm ³ (15 × 10 ⁹ /L) SCr <1.5 mg/dL (133 μmol/L)	Vancomycin 125 mg orally 4 times daily for 10 days, OR fidaxomicin 200 mg orally twice daily for 10 days, OR metronidazole 500 mg orally every 8 hours for 10 days ^a
Severe	WBC >15,000 cells/mm ³ (15 × 10 ⁹ /L) SCr >1.5 mg/dL (133 μmol/L)	Vancomycin 125 mg orally 4 times daily for 10 days, OR fidaxomicin 200 mg orally twice daily for 10 days
Fulminant	Hypotension or shock Ileus and/or megacolon	Metronidazole 500 mg IV every 8 hours PLUS vancomycin 500 mg every 6 hours via NG or orally (if ileus present use rectally)

^aMetronidazole is an alternative therapy if other agents are unavailable or too costly.

NG, nasogastric; SCr, serum creatinine; WBC, white blood cell.

Viral Infections

- Viruses are now recognized as the leading cause of diarrhea in the world.
- In infants and children rotavirus, a double-stranded, wheel-shaped RNA virus is the most common cause of diarrhea worldwide, and 1 million people die annually from the infection.
- In the United States, routine rotavirus vaccination is recommended for all infants beginning at age 2 months. There are two vaccines, RotaTeq

(RV5) and Rotarix (RV1), available for reducing rotaviral gastroenteritis.

- Characteristics of agents responsible for viral gastroenteritis are given in **Table 40-5**.

TABLE 40-5

Characteristics of Agents Responsible for Acute Viral Gastroenteritis

Virus	Peak Age of Onset	Time of Year	Duration	Mode of Transmission	Common Symptoms
Rotavirus	6 months–2 years	October–April	3–7 days	Fecal–oral, water, food	Nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, fever, abdominal pain, lactose intolerance
Norovirus	All age groups	Peak in winter	2–3 days	Fecal–oral, food, water, environment	Nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, abdominal cramps, myalgia
Astrovirus	<7 years	Winter	1–4 days	Fecal–oral, water, shellfish	Diarrhea, headache, malaise, nausea
Enteric adenovirus	<2 years	Year-round	7–9 days	Fecal–oral	Diarrhea, respiratory symptoms, vomiting, fever
Pestivirus	<2 years	NR	3 days	NR	Mild
Coronavirus-like particles	<2 years	Fall and early winter	7 days	NR	Respiratory disease
Enterovirus	NR	NR	NR	NR	Mild diarrhea, secondary organ damage

NR, not reported.

See Chapter 131, *Gastrointestinal Infections and Enterotoxigenic Poisonings*, authored by Andrew Roecker and Brittany Bates, for a more detailed discussion of this topic.