



Medicine summary file

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L31- Rheumatoid Arthritis

• Definition:

• Autoimmune disease against the whole body (Joints mainly)

Pathogenesis:

- Synovitis \rightarrow **Pannus** \rightarrow **Erosions**
- \circ Pannus \rightarrow T-cells and macrophages
- Synovial fluid \rightarrow Neutrophils

• Clinical features:

- Articular:
 - Symmetrical arthritis of the small joints (DIPJs are spared)
 - Deformities: Spindling, "Z" deformity of the thumb, Swan neck (Hyperextension of PIPJ), Boutonniere (Flexion of PIPJ), ulnar deviation at the MCPJ and radial deviation at the wrist
 - Cervical subaxial subluxation (C1 and C2) (Do X-ray before surgery/intubation)

• Extraarticular:

- Felty syndrome: RA + Splenomegaly + Neutropenia
- Caplan's syndrome: RA + Lung nodules +Pneumoconiosis
- **Scleritis** (cf. SpA)
- Sjogren syndrome
- Mononeuritis multiplex in case of rheumatoid vasculitis
- Anemia of chronic disease (Normocytic normochromic)
- CAD is the most common cause of death
- Amyloidosis: Proteinuria + Edema + Carpal tunnel syndrome

• Diagnosis:

- **Serology: RF** (IgM against Fc portion of IgG) and **Anti-CCP** (More specific) but both are not diagnostic
- CBC (Anemia + Thrombocytosis)
- ESR and CRP (Both will be high)
- X-ray (Erosions, periarticular osteopenia and subluxation)
- RFT and LFT for baseline before giving meds
- Aspiration of joint if you suspect Septic arthritis

Note: **Suspect Septic if: Sudden + Monoarticular**; treat with aspiration and abx (Vanco or fluxo since Staph. Aureus is the most common)

- Treatment: (For all check CBC and LFT)
 - 1stline: NSAIDs (To relieve the pain) + MTX (To prevent progression)
 - **2**ndline: NSAIDs + MTX + Leflunomide
 - 3rdline: NSAIDs + MTX + Leflunomide + HCQ
 - Last resort: Anti-TNF (Check TB and fungal infxn)
 - **N.B.** Use CS only for flare-ups or if NSAIDs are not working
 - Special cases:
 - If pregnant or mild non-erosive disease → HCQ (Check eye)

L32- Scleroderma Spectrum Disease

Definition:

• A group of heterogeneous diseases that has a predominant feature and share other common features. They are rare, difficult to treat and associated with significant morbidity and mortality.

1. Scleroderma spectrum diseases

- characterized by:
 - Skin thickening
 - Vasculopathy
 - Autoantibody

Types of SSc Diffus

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- Diffuse: (Diffuse Cutaneous Scleroderma (DcSSc) I 30% of cases)
 - Associated with more internal organ involvement
 - Has a worse prognosis
 - Anti-topoisomerase / RNA polymerase III antibodies.
- Limited: (Limited Cutaneous Scleroderma (LcSSc) I 70% of cases)

also known as CREST syndrome:

- Calcinosis, Raynaud's phenomenon, Esophageal involvement, Sclerodactyly, Telangiectasia
- Often more indolent (has a longer disease duration before diagnosis)
- Has a higher risk of pulmonary hypertension
- Anti-centromere antibodies.

AutoAntibodies in SSc

- Anti-Scl-70 (topoisomerase) is associated with:
 - Diffuse subset
 - The **development** of ILD
 - Reduced risk of PAH
- \circ $\hfill Anti-centromere is associated with:$
 - limited subset
 - Pulmonary Arterial HTN
 - Digital ulcer
- RNA polymerase III is associated with:
 - Scleroderma Renal Crisis
 - Malignancy associated SSc
 - Mortality.

Involvements in SSc

• Skin:

- Skin is the Largest and Most Important Organ in SSc
- The level of skin involvement predicts severe disease and mortality.
- SKIN INVOLVEMENT ALWAYS STARTS IN THE FINGERS AND TOES (distally) AND EXTENDS PROXIMALLY.
- **Treatment:** To prevent joint contracture and disability in the hands.
 - **Methotrexate:** Avoid it if the patient has interstitial lung disease or renal failure because of its toxic effect.
 - Mycophenolate mofetil
 - Cyclophosphamide
 - Rituximab
 - **Steroids:** High-dose corticosteroids is a **significant risk** factor for **Scleroderma renal crisis** and is best to be avoided in patients with DcSSc.



Involvements in SSc cont.

- 95% and 50% of SSc have RP and DU respectively, but RP tends to occur years before the diagnosis of SSc unlike DU that usually occur in the first 5 years after the development of the non-RP manifestation.
- Treatment in RP:
 - Calcium channel blockers (FIRST-LINE)
 - If the patient is not responding you can give IV prostaglandins or even Phosphodiesterase inhibitors
 - IV iloprost better than nifedipine.
- Treatment in DU:
 - CCB has not role in Digital ulcer
 - **Phosphodiesterase inhibitors & IV prostaglandins: Prevent** new ulcers and **Improve** (fasten) the healing.
 - **Endothelin receptor antagonist:** Only **prevents** new ulcers and **DO NOT** improve the healing.

Lungs: Interstitial lung disease:

- Interstitial Lung Disease is the number ONE cause of mortality in patients with SSc.
- Common in patients with DcSSc who have topoisomerase 1 antibodies (Scl70)
 - High-resolution lung CT is the Gold standard.
- Clinical findings in ILD:
 - Tachypnea Tachycardia Cyanosis Clubbing Reduced chest expansion Fine early inspiratory crackles
- Treated with cyclophosphamide

Lungs: Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension:

- PAH is defined as Pulmonary Arterial Pressure ≥ 25 mmHg with a normal Pulmonary wedge pressure (≤ 15 mmHg.)
- The **First** investigation to order is **echocardiography**.
 - The Gold diagnostic tool is right sided heart catheterization.
- Clinical findings (It is important to look at the lung and heart together)
- Treatment:
 Endo
 - Endothelin Receptor Antagonists: Bosentan, Ambrisentan, Macitentan, Sitaxentan

• **Gastrointestinal System:** is the most common internal organ to be involved (95-99%) which includes:

Mouth, Esophagus (most common), Stomach, Small bowel, Large bowel, Anorectal incontinence

Scleroderma Renal Crisis (SRC)

- Patients with SSc usually have low BP, once you see high BP suspect SRC.
- Precipitating factors include: high dose steroids, cyclosporin & pregnancy.

Best (and only) drug: Angiotensin Converting Enzyme Inhibitors (ACE inhibitors)

• Others:

- Arthritis: similar to RA with erosions and joint destruction
- **Myositis:** manifested by weakness with no pain and high muscle enzymes.
- **Cardiac:** Myocardial fibrosis leading to conduction abnormalities, cardiomyopathy and accelerated coronary artery disease.

2. Sjogren's Syndrome

Definition:

- It is a systemic chronic inflammatory disorder characterized by **lymphocytic infiltrates** in **exocrine organs.** Especially the lacrimal and salivary glands. There is an association with HLA-88/DR3
 - Most individuals with Sjögren's syndrome present with sicca (dryness) symptoms, such as: • Xerophthalmia- (dry eyes)- Xerostomia (dry mouth)- Vaginal dryness- Parotid gland enlargement.

Diagnosis criteria of primary Sjogren's Syndrome:

- At least 4 of the criteria listed below (you MUST have number 1 or number 2)
- The best initial test is Schirmer test
- the most accurate is a minor salivary gland (labial) biopsy.
- Best initial test on blood: SS-A and SS-B. These are also called "Ro" and "La" and are each present in about 65% of patients.
- Positive anti–SSA, This antibody is of particular interest because it can cross the placenta and cause congenital heart block

Extraglandular manifestations of Sjogren's Syndrome:

 Arthritis - Myositis - Pancytopenia - Palpable purpura - Renal tubular acidosis type 1 - Severe unexplained Fatigue - Raynaud phenomenon - Generalized osteoarthritis - Demyelinating disease (Eg. Multiple sclerosis) - interstitial lung disease - Interstitial nephritis - arthralgia

Treatment:

- The best initial therapy is to water the mouth.
- Parasympathomimetics (pilocarpine) will increase the secretion of salivary and lacrimal glands.

Complications:

• SS patients are at risk of developing Non-hodgkin's B cell lymphoma 20 times more than the general population. Malignancy is the most common cause of death.

3. Idiopathic inflammatory Myopathies

Definition:

• Are a group of autoimmune myopathies that are characterized by muscle weakness due to muscle inflammation and damage. they are **Mainly in the proximal muscles** but it can progress to peripheral muscles. and The onset is insidious and progressive.

Organ involvement:

- Pharyngeal muscle involvement can present as dysphagia and can lead to aspiration pneumonia.
- Chest wall weakness can present as dyspnea and lead to type II respiratory failure.
- Can affect the heart and lead to cardiomyopathy

Investigations:

Treatment:

- Steroids (Oral prednisolone is the treatment of choice)
- Methotrexate
- Mycophenolate mofetil
- Azathioprine
- Rituximab
- Intravenous immunoglobulins if the patient has dysphagia or chest wall involvement (Heart, pharyngeal muscle, etc)

Muscle enzymes	CK, LD, AST, ALT, Aldolase. The best initial test is CPK and aldolase	
MRI Muscle	Showing muscle edema	
Muscle biopsy	Showing lymphocytic infiltration (Either CD4 or CD8, based on the subtype). Muscle biopsy is the most accurate test Establishing diagnosis and excluding other causes of myopathies.	
EMG	Myopathic changes. Not very helpful	
Autoantibodies	Jo-1 the most common, occurs in around 40% of patients , Non-Jo-1 antibodies, Anti-SRP, Anti-Mi2	
MOST IMPORTANT: RULE OUT OTHER CAUSES OF MYOPATHIES (Eg, hypothyroidism, hyperthyroidism, diabetes, cushing syndrome, Addison disease, statins ,etc)		

• Positive minor salivary gland biopsy findings showing lymphocytic infiltration.
Positive anti-SSA ³ anti-sjogren syndrome A or anti-SSB anti-sjogren syndrome B antibody results
Oral signs (sialogram, scintigraphy or sialometry findings)
• Ocular signs (Schirmer test) ²
Oral dryness
Ocular dryness

Introduction:

- Low back pain: 0
 - Can be inflammatory or mechanical
 - **IPAIN** criteria for inflammatory

Definition of SpA: 0

- Seronegative spondyloarthropathies
- Associated with HLA-B27

0 Types:

AS, nr-axSpA, IBD related, Juvenile, PsA and ReA

Ankylosing spondylitis: 1.

0 **Definition:**

- Bilateral grade ≥2 Sacroiliitis on X-ray or unilateral grade 3 and 4 sacroiliitis
- N.B. If changes are only seen on MRI then it's nr-axSpA

Clinical features: 0

- ASAS criteria; Low back pain for \geq 3mo and age of onset < 45:
 - Sacroiliitis + ≥ 1 SPPINE-ACHEE OR
 - +ve HLA-B27 + ≥ 2 SPPINE-ACE*E *Acute unilateral anterior uveitis is the most common extra-articular feature, not related to disease activity
 - Kyphosis, loss of lordosis and reduced chest expansion
- **Diagnosis:** 0
 - Best initial: X-Ray (Will show syndesmophytes and bamboo spine)
 - Most accurate: MRI
- **Treatment:** \cap
 - 1st line: NSAIDs
 - 2nd line: TNF-inhibitors or IL-17 inhibitors

Psoriatic arthritis 2.

- **Definition:** 0
 - Usually psoriatic lesions precede the arthritis (cf. AS) and it mainly involves the small joints -(cf. AS)
 - Associated with nail lesions: Pitting, Oncholysis and ridging
 - Associated with **Dactylitis**
- Patterns of arthritis: 0
 - Asymmetrical (after): Oligoarthritis involving mainly small joints
 - Symmetrical (Concurrent): Involves small and large joints. Similar to RA.
 - Ps Spondylitis (after): Looks like AS but psoriatic lesions precede the arthritis
 - **DIP synovitis:** Only DIP joint is involved
 - Arthritis mutilans: Deforming erosive arthritis. Telescoping of skin.
- 0 **Diagnosis:**
 - **Best initial:** X-ray (Will show pencil in cup)
 - Most accurate: MRI
- 0 **Treatment:**
 - 1st line: NSAIDs -
 - 2nd line: MTX
 - 3rd line: Sulfasalazine
 - 4th line: TNF-inhibitors or IL-17 inhibitors

N.B. (If Ps Spondylitis use TNF-inhibitors or IL-17 inhibitors as 2nd line)

Insidious onset Pain at night (with improvement upon getting up) Age at onset <40 years Improvement with exercise No improvement with rest Inflammatory back pain is present if at least 4 out of 5 parameters are fulfilled

- Dactylitis (Sausage digit) Psoriasis
- 3) 4 Inflammatory back pain
- 5) Good response to NSAIDS
- 6) Enthesitis (heel)
- 7) Arthritis
- 8) Crohn's/colitis
- 9) HLA-B27 10)

1)

2)

Uveitis (Eve) Elevated CRP 11)

SpA features SPINE-ACHE Positive family history for SpA

3. Reactive arthritis

• **Definition:**

- **STERILE** arthritis following GI/GU infection (usually after 2 weeks)
- Formerly known as Reiter's syndrome: Can't see, can't pee, can't climb a tree

• Etiology:

- GI: Shigella, Salmonella, C.diff, Campylobacter and Yersinia
- **GU:** Chlamydia

• Clinical features:

- Asymmetrical oligoarthritis and Achilles enthesitis
- Circinate balanitis: Superficial erosions on glans penis
- Keratoderma blennorrhagica: Yellow-brown papules on palms and sole of foot

• Diagnosis: (Usually clinical)

- Tap joint: Sterile with high neutrophils
- Radiology: Similar to PsA

• Treatment:

- 1st line: NSAIDs
- 2nd line: MTX or Sulfasalazine
- **3rd line:** TNF-inhibitors
- Abx against chlamydia: Doxycycline/Azithromycin

N.B. Don't use abx unless an organism has been identified

L34-SLE

Definition:

Chronic, multisystem inflammatory disease characterized by autoantibodies directed against • self-antigens, immune complex formation, and immune dysregulation resulting in damage to essentially any organ.

Pathophysiology: Disturbances in the immune system:

- High ratio of CD4+ to CD8+ T cells.
- Defects in immune cell tolerance leading to: Production of autoantibodies targeting antigens located • in **nuclei**, **cytoplasm**, on cell surfaces, and in plasma proteins
- **Autoantibodies**

Etiology: Specific cause(s) of SLE is unknown. Multiple factors play a role in the etiology of SLE:

- Environmental: Ultraviolet light, viruses (e.g. EBV), drugs cause or exacerbate, silica dust, smoking.
- Genetics predisposition : HLA-DR2 and HLA-DR3 and other HLA genes occur more often in SLE than in the general population.
- Female to male rations and Hormonal factors: Age at onset :
 - → 65%: between 16 and 55 (Reproductive age).
 - → 20%: before age 16.
 - → 15%: after age 55.
- Higher prevalence in men with Klinefelter disease, their extra X chromosome increases their susceptibility.

Organ involvement:

- Joints 90%
- **Pleuropericardial 60%**
- **Raynaud's 20%**

Skin .

CNS 15%

- Mucous membrane 15%
- Kidney 50%

Clinical presentation and diagnostic criteria:

ANA is needed to diagnose: found in 95%-99% of cases. A negative ANA is extremely sensitive for SLE. You need to have **at least 4** of the following: (the more you get the more definite the diagnosis is) :

- Malar rash : tending to spare the nasolabial folds.
- Discoid rash : Erythematous raised patches. Chronic, affect deeper layers. •
- **Photosensitivity**
- **Oral ulcers : painless**
- Arthritis: Nonerosive (but maybe deforming) arthritis involving 2 or more peripheral joints, usually • symmetrical. characterized by tenderness, swelling, or effusion.
- Serositis : A. Pleuritis B. Pericarditis C. Peritonitis
- Renal disorder : A.Persistent proteinuria (>0.5 g/day) B. Cellular casts
- Neurologic disorder : A . Psychosis or Seizures B. Cerebral lupus feature: visual hallucination, chorea
- Hemolytic disorder : A. Hemolytic anemia B. Neutropenia C. Lymphopenia D. Thrombocytopenia **E.Leukopenia**
- Immunologic disorder either: A. +ve antiphospholipid antibodies. B. Anti-DNA: antibody to native DNA in abnormal titer Highly associated with lupus nephritis,+ it correlates with disease activity so it's used for monitoring
- Antinuclear antibody (ANA)

Clinical features:

- **Bullous rash**
- Subacute cutaneous lupus erythematosus: associated with <u>Anti-SSA/RO</u> & neonatal lupus. leads to **complete heart block** in the fetus (2%)
- Chronic discoid rash Discoid scarring alopecia (Irreversible)
- Alopecia : usually non scarring, goes back to normal once you treat the patient.
- Externally not distinguishable from RA: X-ray shows non erosive correctable deformity
- Lupus in the lung capillaries (Emergency): Pulmonary alveolar hemorrhage (mortality is 50%)
- Other symptoms: constitutional symptoms: **Fever** \rightarrow one of the DDx of fever with unknown origin is SLE

Investigations:

- Blood count :
 - Normochromic, normocytic anaemia or autoimmune hemolytic anemia
 - Neutropenia
 - Lymphopenia
 - leucopenia
 - thrombocytopenia
 - ESR and CRP : ESR: A raised ESR, leukopenia and lymphopenia are typical of active SLE
- Urea and creatinine.
- Serum :

- Complement C3 and C4 levels: reduced in active disease
- Autoantibodies:
 - a. ANA: Sensitive but not specific
 - b. Anti-ds DNA (in 70%): highly specific (but not sensitive)
 - c. Anti-Smith (in 30%): very specific (but not sensitive)
 - d. Antiphospholipid antibodies (in 25% to 40%)
 - e. **Antihistone** (in 70%) are present in >95% of cases of **drug-induced lupus**.

Drug induced lupus:

- Nephritis and CNS not common.
- No anti-native DNA or hypocomplementemia.
- Resolution on **discontinuation of drug**.
- \circ Drugs with definite association with lupus erythematosus :
 - Chlorpromazine(antipsychotic)
 - Methyldopa (antihypertensive)
 - **Hydralazine**(antihypertensive)
 - Procainamide (antiarrhythmic)
 - Isoniazid (antibiotic)
 - Quinidine

Treatment of SLE:

- Mild to moderate disease:
 - NSAIDS
 - hydroxychloroquine
- Life-threatening disease : for the treatment of renal, CNS, and cardiac involvement or flares.
 - High-dose corticosteroids and immunosuppressants
 - immunosuppressant drugs
 - **Cyclophosphamide** we **try to avoid in patients in productive age**. If we need to give it, it is given at lower doses, then switch to mycophenolate.

Mycophenolate mofetil:

- General considerations:
 - Avoid UV light and sun (sunscreening)
 - Antimalarial (Hydroxychloroquine and chloroquine) to prevent **relapses**. (For those who already got Lupus to prevent relapses, not just have +ve ANA)

Pregnancy and SLE:

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Recurrent miscarriages can occur, especially in women with anti-phospholipid antibodies.

Prognosis:

- Poor prognostic factors for survival in SLE include:
 - Renal disease
 - Hypertension
 - Central nervous system (CNS) disease
 - presence of anti phospholipids antibodies: increase the risk for thrombosis.
 - Treatment: Warfarin (DO NOT USE NOAC)

L35- AIDS & HIV

HIV Structure

subgroup of retroviruses, and it is an RNA viruses that replicate via a DNA intermediate. It is made of:

- 1. The core: contain the genetic material [RNA] and Reverse transcriptase [enzyme]
- 2. The capsid: outer protein coat. (p24)
- 3. Lipid envelope (env): It's derived from infected cell, containing numerous external spikes formed by two major envelope proteins:

a. The external gp120 which attaches to host CD4+ T-cell.

- b. The transmembrane gp41
- 4. Polymerase (pol)

Genetic susceptibility

CCR5 (delta) 32 homozygotes genotype: people who inherited the Delta 32 mutation, resulting in the genetic deletion of a portion of the CCR5 gene are **highly resistant to HIV infection**.

Routes of Transmission



What factors increase the risk of HIV transmission?

- 1. High viral load. (Acutely infected or chronically untreated patient)
- 2. Certain sexual behaviours.(MSM is more)
- 3. Presence of ulcerative sexually transmitted infections.
- 4. lack of circumcision.
- 5. Certain other host and genetic factors.

Complications of HIV infection

1. Pneumocystis jirovecii Pneumonia :

One of the leading causes of opportunistic infections among persons with HIV and low CD4 cell counts (<200 cell/mm3). It causes lower respiratory tract infection, Occurs in those who are unaware of their HIV diagnoses or are not receiving medical care.

- Pneumocystis is currently recognized as a fungus (atypical fungi).
- X-ray: typically shows bilateral perihilar interstitial infiltrates.
- Definitive diagnosis of PCP requires visualization of the cystic or trophic forms in respiratory secretions by methenamine silver stain
- Treatment: Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole.

2. Malignancy (AIDS-defining cancers):

- a) Kaposi sarcoma
- associated with human herpesvirus 8 (HHV-8).
- (CD4 <500 cells/mm3).
- Diagnosis: Skin biopsy: spindle-shaped cells, leukocyte infiltration, and angiogenesis
- Management: decrease Incidence with use of antiretroviral therapy (ART).

b) Non-Hodgkin lymphoma

- i) EBV related
- c) Cervical cancer.
 - i) Related to HPV.

	12.9 CD4 count and ri HIV-associated disease	sk of common es
	<500 cells/mm ³	
	 Tuberculosis Bacterial pneumonia Herpes zoster Oropharyngeal candidiasis Non-typhoid salmonellosis 	 Kaposi's sarcoma Non-Hodgkin lymphoma HIV-associated idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura
	<200 cells/mm ³	
	 Pneumocystis jirovecii pneumonia Chronic herpes simplex ulcers Oesophageal candidiasis Cystoisospora belli (syn. Isospora belli) diarrhoea 	 HIV wasting syndrome HIV-associated dementia Peripheral neuropathy Endemic mycoses
n	<100 cells/mm	
	 Cerebral toxoplasmosis Cryptococcal meningitis Cryptosporidiosis and microsporidiosis Primary CNS lymphoma 	 Cytomegalovirus Disseminated Mycobacterium avium complex (MAC) Progressive multifocal leucoencephalopathy

L35- AIDS & HIV

Diagnosis

Whom to test?

- 1. **Symptoms of HIV infection:**Signs and symptoms of acute or chronic HIV infection should be tested. Testing for HIV RNA may be needed.
- 2. Possible HIV exposure: Patients after a known high-risk exposure to HIV (eg, sexual or percutaneous)
- 3. Patient with sexually transmitted disease (STD).
- 4. **Pregnant women** should be tested for HIV early in each pregnancy.

Positive result with **Third-(HIV- antibody only**, time to positivity 20-30 days) and/or **Fourth-generation (HIV antigen and antibody,** time to positivity 15-20 days) HIV serologic assays **should be confirmed by** confirmatory **HIV-1/HIV-2 antibody differentiation immunoassay**.

What is the definition of Acquired Immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS)?

- 1. It is defined by a loss of CD4 T lymphocytes (< 200 cell) OR
- 2. The occurrence of opportunistic infections or cancers in HIV infected Patient.

Treatment

- Current ART does not cure HIV, only highly suppresses viral replication.

-Combination antiretroviral therapy (ART) declines in morbidity and mortality among persons with HIV.

most countries start treatment if:

1- CD4 count ≤350 : Initiating ART results in a significant decline in the risk of AIDS-related morbidity and mortality 2-CD4 count <200 cells [AIDS] : ART improves survival and delays disease progression.

Treatment is initiated with three drugs: two NRTls in combination, with a third agent - either an NNRTI, a boosted Pl or an integrase inhibitor.

Drugs 1.

- Reverse transcriptase inhibitors (-INE,-VIR)
 - a. Nucleoside Analogue RTI (NRTI): Abacavir (ABC), Emtricitabine(FTC), Lamivudine(3TC), Tenofovir
 b. Non-nucleoside RTI (NNRTI): Delavirdine, Efavirenz, Nevirapine.
- 2. Protease inhibitors (-NAVIR): Atazanavir, Darunavir
- 3. Integrase inhibitors: Raltegravir, Dolutegravir

Prevention

Use of ARVs for prevention

Secondary prevention benefits of ART

• Several studies confirmed that if an HIV-positive person is taking ART and is virally suppressed they do not transmit HIV to their uninfected sexual.

Pre-exposure prophylaxis for HIV-negative partner	• Oral PrEP of HIV is the daily use of ARVs by HIV-negative people to protect themselves from high-risk sexual and needle-sharing practices with potentially HIV-infected contacts. Its effective in reducing HIV transmission.
Post-exposure prophylaxis	 Indicated in case of: Sexual contact (unprotected) Health care associated percutaneous exposure. (Needle-stick) PEP may be useful up to 72 hours after possible exposure. PEP is not recommended when care is sought > 72 hours after potential exposure. PEP is given for 1 month as a combination therapy

How to eliminate Mother to child transmission?

- 1. Effective antiretroviral therapy (ART)
- 2. Formula feeding

HIV-positive women are advised against breast-feeding, which doubles the risk of vertical transmission.



L36- Tuberculosis



Overview	 Tuberculosis is a bacterial infection caused by Mycobacterium tuberculosis Mycobacteria are acid-fast bacilli (AFB)—considered slow growing but hardy organisms. 				
Transmission	 By inhalation of aerosolized droplets containing the active organism from a person with active TB. After exposure to TB the patient will either present with an active TB or will just remain in a dormant latent phase of TB. Whether the patient had the infection or developed latent TB, TST or IGRA will be positive. 				
Risk factors	For TB infection: - Exposure to TB case & HCWs - Homlessness or imprisonment - From TB endemic areas - Injection drug users	For Progression to TB disease:- Recent infection (<2 years) HIV-positive patients Immunosuppression (anti TNF-a)bypass)- ESDR - DM - Silicosis CXR showing prior TB- CXR showing prior TB- CXR showing prior TB- CXR showing prior TB- Malnoureshment (intestinal bypass)- Cancer (Hodgkin/Leukemia)			
Clinical	General symptoms: - Fever - Sweats - Weight loss - Malaise - Decreased appetite Pulmonary TB: - Cough - Purulent sputum - Haemoptysis in cases of cavitation - SOB - Subacute in onset, but can be acute in immunocompromised patients. Extrapulmonary TB:				
Presentation	F B meningitis , GI & GU). ents. y. ules				
Diagnosis	Smear microscopy: - 3 Specimens. -↓Specificity and Sensitivity.	Rapid MTB PCR: - ↑ Specificity , shows Rifampicin resistance.	PPD & IGRA: - Don't distinguish latent from active. - IGRA isn't affected by prior BCG. - IGRA False +ve: - M. Kansasii - M. Marinum.		
	Histopathology: - Caseating granuloma	Culture: - Highest Sensitivity - GOLD STANDARD	Chest Imaging (CXR): Apical cavity <u>+</u> lymphadenopathy.		
Treatment & Prevention	First line therapy: (<u>RIPE</u>) Induction: (2 months) > ADR - <u>R</u> ifampin (enzyme inducer) - <u>I</u> soniazid (<u>I</u> NH) > Per. Neuropathy - <u>P</u> yrazinamide > hyperuricaemia - <u>E</u> thambutol > Optic Neuritis Continuation: - <u>I</u> NH & <u>R</u> ifampin (4 months)	Treatment for latent TB (i.e., +PPD skin test): - Rifampin daily for 4 months or INH daily for 9 months - Active TB has been excluded FIRST (negative CXR, sputum, or both).	Extend treatment in case: Pulmonary TB is persistent (CXR/culture) (9m total) CNS TB (9-12m total) Bone and Joint TB (6-9m total) Prevention: BCG Vaccine.		
	IMP: With immunosuppression:	When to start ART			
HIV & TB	- Smear -ve Pulmonary TB - Extrapulmonary TB (CNS, miliary)	CD4< 50: Within 2 weeks of TB treatment	CD4> 50 Within 8 weeks of TB treatment		
	Rifampin is replaced by Refabutin.	HIV +ve pregnant w/ active TB: As soon as feasible	TB meningitis: After 8 weeks of TB treatment		

L37- Malaria & Travel Medicine

Definition

- Malaria is a protozoal infection that infects hepatocytes and RBCs.
- Most commonly caused by **P.falciparum** and P.vivax.
- It can be transmitted through human to human by anopheles mosquitoes, blood transfusion, contaminated needles and congenital.
- Stable transmission: sub- Saharan Africa, The bulk of the mortality is seen in children,
- **Unstable transmission:** occurs when there is **erratic, seasonal or low- level transmission** (e.g. in the Sahel belt). Little protective immunity develops and symptomatic malaria occurs at all ages.

Life cycle

- Carried by **female anopheles mosquito**. It injects the body with **sporozoites** that will reach the hepatocytes and form **Exoerythrocytic Schizonts**.
- These schizonts will rupture releasing merozoites → that will enter the erythrocytes forming **immature trophozoites** (ring stage)
- Then it will either develop into mature trophozoite → and again forming erythrocytic Schizont that will release merozoites into the bloodstream causing the clinical attack.
- Or the immature trophozoite develop to gametocytes.

Plasmodium Falciparum

- **Resistant** to many antimalarial drugs.
- Causes most morbidity and mortality.
- Infects **mature and young erythrocytes**. The surface of erythrocytes infected with late stage **trophozoites** or schizonts is altered so they stick to endothelial cells in various tissues (cytoadherence) causing multi-organ failure.



CDC

A = Infective Stage

- The gametocytes are characteristically crescent-shaped
- Pic A: rings in peripheral blood thin film of P.Falc showing double dotted ring and multiple parasites invading one RBC. These findings are characteristic for P.Falciparum.

P.vivax	P.ovale	P.malariae
- Only infect Duffy +ve reticulocytes. - Schuffner's dots.	 Most of the biological and clinical features are identical to P.vivax. Can infect Duffy -ve reticulocytes. 	- P. malariae can survive for a very long time in the peripheral blood (10 years or more) at a very low level of parasitaemia

Malaria Paroxysms

- Paroxysms associated with **synchrony of merozoite release.**
- Cold skin $(1-2hr) \rightarrow$ Hot skin (several hrs) \rightarrow sweating and fatigue.
- Between paroxysms temperature is normal and patient feels well and asymptomatic.
- **Terian** (every 48hr) \rightarrow P.vivax and P.ovale.
- **Quartan** (every 72hr) \rightarrow P.malariae.
- **irregular**→ P.falciparum.

Clinical presentation

- Hx of travel to malaria endemic area (1 year for P.falciparum and up to 10 years to P.malariae).
- **Symptoms**: Fever, **jaundice** (common in p.falc), sweats, headache, cough diarrhea, dark urine.
- Signs: Splenomegaly is the most common.

Complications

- Cerebral malaria (Pf):
 - Risk factor for poor prognosis: high bilirubin, high X creatinine and high lactase. if these were normal \rightarrow no end organ damage.
- Hypoglycemia quinn leads to insulin release.
- Risk acute respiratory syndrome (Pf).
- Acute renal failure (Pf).
- Malaria with pregnancy will lead to abortion.



Diagnosis

- Thin and thick films: A thin film is essential to confirm the diagnosis, to identify the species of parasite and, in P. falciparum infections, to quantify the parasite load (by counting the percentage of infected erythrocytes).
 - $\mathbf{Pf} \rightarrow \text{only ring stage}$ as exual parasite and gametocytes can be seen, while RBC mature 0 (trophozoite and schizont) stage sequestered in the peripheral microvasculature and not circulating.
 - **P.vivax & P.ovale** \rightarrow all asexual erthrocytic stages can be seen. Ο

DDx of acute ill patient:

Not P.malariae because it's chronic infection.

Thin and Thick films ¹	Urea and Creatinine	ABG		Findings	P. Falciparum	P. Vivax & P. Ovale
CBC. Coagulation profile	LET Bilirubin	CXR		Multiple infected RBCs	Common	Rare
				Mature (trophozoite & schizont) parasites	Absent	Common
Random Blood glucose	Lactic acid	Urine analysis		RBC enlargement with later parasite stages	Absent	Common

Management

- Ask lab about: species and **percent parasitemia** (>1% \rightarrow Pf).
- Complicated or uncomplicated?
- Drug of choice is Artesunate based combination therapy (ACT), P. falciparum is now resistant to chloroquine and sulfadoxine-pyrimethamine (Fansidar) world-wide, so an ACT is recommended
- Consider admission to hospital (especially for falciparum) at least
- observe tolerance of meds in ER..

	Non P.falciparum		
Uncomplicated	Complicated "severe malaria"	Pregnant women	
 ACT for 3 days. OR oral quinine + doxycycline or clindamycin for 7 days. 	 IV Artesunate up to 7 days. OR IV quinine up to 7 days. OR IM Artesunate up to 7 days. 	Artesunate is the drug of choice in all trimesters.	 Chloroquine (base). Primaquine for 14 days in vivax and ovale after treatment of acute infection use to eradicate liver parasites; G6PD must be measured before primaquine is given.

Drug toxicity

- **Quinine** \rightarrow Hypoglycemia and arrhythmia.
- **Mefloquine** \rightarrow Neuropsychiatric symptoms.
- **Chloroquine** \rightarrow irreversible retinopathy.
- Che
- Start 2 days pre-travel, continue 7 days after return: Atovaquone/ proguanil² (Malarone): 1 tab/d (250 mg atovaquone /100 mg proguanil)
- One or 2 weeks pre-travel, continue 4 weeks after return: less preferred Mefloquine 250 mg once/wk.
 - \$
 - Doxycycline 100 mg daily.
 - Primaquine 30 mg base daily. Chloroquine³ sensitive areas: 500 mg (300 mg base) : once/wk.
- Choice of regimen is determined by area to be visited, length of stay, level of malaria transmission, 1. level of drug resistance, presence of underlying disease in the traveler concomitant medication
- 2. Pregnant and lactating women may take proguanil or chloroquine safely. Avoid Malarone in
- 3 Chloroquine should not be taken continuously as a prophylactic for more than 5 years without regular ophthalmic examination, as it may cause irreversible retinopathy.

L38,39- HAI & Concepts in Infection And Prevention Control

Source of infection

- Endogenous sources: skin, nose, mouth, GI tract, or vagina
- Exogenous sources: health care workers (HCW), visitors, patient care equipment, medical devices, or the healthcare environment.

FIRST: Catheter-Associated Urinary Tract Infections

- **Causes**: Indwelling urinary catheter, Urinary invasive procedures.
- **Risk factors**: Advanced age, Diabetes mellitus, Pregnancy, Urolithiasis, Severe underlying disease.
- Pathogenesis:
 - Endogenous (meatal, rectal, or vaginal).
 - Exogenous; usually via contaminated hands of HCW during catheter insertion or manipulation of the collecting system.
 - (Formation of bio films by urinary pathogens which lead to resistance of antimicrobials and host defenses, you must remove catheter for cure).
- Diagnostic criteria:
 - Fever1 (38.0C or above), urgency, frequency, dysuria, or suprapubic tenderness.
 - Positive urine culture, that is more than 105 CFU per ml, with no more than 2 species of microorganisms.
 - A positive culture of a urinary catheter tip is not an acceptable laboratory test to diagnose UTI.

SECOND: Surgical site infection

- causes:
 - Inadequate antibiotic prophylaxis
 - Incorrect surgical skin preparation
 - Inappropriate wound care
- **Risk factors:** surgical duration, type of surgery, type of wound, Improper surgical aseptic preparation, poor glucose control, Malnutrition, Immunodeficiency, Hypothermia, Lack of training and supervision.
- **Causative organisms:** Staph. Aureus $(30\%) \rightarrow \text{most common}$, followed by coagulase -ve staph (13.7)
- Surgical Wound Classification
- **Clean:** Uninfected, no inflammation, Resp, GI, GU tracts not entered, Closed primarily. **Examples**: lap, mastectomy, neck dissection, thyroid, vascular, hernia, splenectomy.
- **Clean-contaminated:** Resp, GI, GU tracts entered but controlled, No unusual contamination **Examples:** Chole, SBR, Whipple, liver txp,gastric surgery, bronch, colon surgery, cholecystectomy.
- **Contaminated:** pen, fresh, accidental wounds, Major break in sterile technique, Gross Spillage from GI tract, Acute non purulent inflammation.
 - **Examples:** Inflamed appendix, bile spillage in chole, diverticulitis, Rectal surgery, penetrating wounds.
- **Dirty:** Old traumatic wounds, devitalized tissue, Existing infection or perforation, Organisms present BEFORE procedure.

Examples: Abscess I&D, perforated bowel, peritonitis, wound debridement, positive cultures pre-op.

Superficial vs deep surgical site infection

- Superficial SSI: within 30 days, involves only skin and subcutaneous tissue of the incision
 - **Signs:** Purulent drainage from the superficial incision, pain or tenderness, localized swelling, redness, or heat, lack of systemic symptoms (e.g. fever). A -ve culture does not rule it out
- Deep SSI: within 30 days if no implant is left in place or within 1 year if implant is in place and the infection appears to be related to the operative procedure, Involves deep soft tissues (e.g. fascial and muscle layers) of the incision,
 - Clinically may have abscess and fever.

L38,39- HAI & Concepts in Infection And Prevention Control

SSI Epidemiology

- Modifiable Risk Factors: Antimicrobial prophylaxis(Inappropriate choice, Improper timing, Inadequate dose based on body mass index, procedures >3h).
- Skin or site preparation ineffective.
- Colorectal procedures; Inadequate bowel prep/antibiotics.
- Inadequate wound dressing protocol.
- Improper glucose control.
- Colonization with preexisting microorganisms.

SSI Prevention strategies:

- Preoperative Measures: Administer antimicrobial prophylaxis in accordance with evidence based standards and guidelines: Administer within 30-45 minutes to incision (1-2hr for vancomycin and fluoroquinolones), Select appropriate agents on basis of: Surgical procedure, Most common SSI pathogens for the procedure, Published recommendations, Consider Redosing in long procedures (>3hrs) and increasing dose in obese patients.
- Nasal screen and decolonize only Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA) carriers undergoing: Elective cardiac surgery, Orthopaedic surgery, Neurosurgery procedures with implants, Using preoperative mupirocin ointment therapy known as decolonisation.

THIRD: <u>C</u>entral <u>l</u>ine <u>A</u>ssociated <u>B</u>lood<u>s</u>tream<u>I</u>nfections

- Direct: in IJV or femoral or subclavian veins.
- Tunneled: for dialysis and chemotherapy.
- Laboratory-confirmed bloodstream infection by a positive blood culture that's not secondary to any infection.
- Develops at least after 48 hours of a central line placement
- The most common site is the **femoral central lines**

CLABSI Microorganisms

- 1. Gram +ve cocci: Coagulase -ve staphylococcus (most common), Enterococci, Staph. aureus.
- 2. **Gram -ve bacilli:** Klebsiella pneumoniae, E.coli, Enterobacter spp, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Acinetobacter baumanii.

CLABSI Treatment

- Removal of central line
- Antimicrobial therapy: Type and duration depends on culture results, type of organism, complicated disease (Vancomycin, cloxacillin, cefazolin, piperacillin/ tazobactam).

CLABSI prevention

1. Prevention Guidelines During Insertion:

Assess the need for the central line daily

(0	0	
	 Hand hygiene before wearing gloves 	-	Avoid the femoral vein, prefer the subclavian vein
	Strict aseptic technique by maximal sterile barrier precautions including a full-body drape	-	Promptly remove any central line that is no longer required
	Use of 2% chlorhexidine skin preparations for disinfecting/ cleaning skin before insertion	-	Replace central lines placed during an emergency (asepsis not assured) as soon as possible or at least within 48 hours
	Ultrasound guidance by an experienced personnel and reduce the number of attempts	L	Use a checklist
	2. Prevention Guidelines During Maintenan	ce:	
	 Disinfect catheter hubs injection ports, and connect 	tion	s before accessing line
	 Replace administration sets other than sets used for 	r lip	ids or blood products every 96 hours

Pathogenesis and risk factors for ventilator Associated Pneumonia (VAP)

- Aspiration of secretions
- Colonization of the aerodigestive tract
- Use of contaminated equipment

VAP prevention bundle



Modes of transmission: A microorganism may be spread by a single or multiple routes(Contact, direct or indirect, Droplet, Airborne, Vector-borne (usually arthropod) and, food-borne and waterborne, medications e.g., contaminated IV fluids).

Hand transmission: Hands are the most common vehicle to transmit healthcare associated pathogens.

Five Moments of Hand Hygiene

How to Clean Your Hands?

- 1. Handrubbing with alcohol-based handrub is the preferred routine method of hand hygiene if hands are not visibly soiled
- 2. Handwashing with soap and water essential when hands are visibly dirty or visibly soiled (following exposure to body fluids) and after certain diseases e.g. C. difficile as they are spore forming bacteria that don't get disinfected by alcohol.





Types of Isolation Precautions

- Standard precautions.
- Transmission-based precautions:(Contact isolation, Droplet isolation, Airborne isolation).

Contact Precautions

- C. difficile, MRSA, VRE, ESBL, CRE and MDR GNR.
- Limit patient movement.
- Private/single room or cohort with patients with same infection.
- Wear **disposable gown and gloves** when entering the patient room.
- Remove and discard used gown and gloves inside the patient room.
- Wash hands immediately after leaving the patient room.
- Use dedicated equipment if possible (e.g., stethoscope)

Droplet Precautions

- E.g.MERS-CoV, SARS-CoV-2, influenza.
- A private/single room or cohort with patient with active infection with same microorganism.
- Use a **mask** when entering the room especially within 3 feet of patient.
- Limit movement and transport of the patient. Use a mask on the patient if they need to be moved and follow respiratory hygiene/cough etiquette.

Airborne Precautions

- Tuberculosis, measles, varicella, MERS-CoV (severe), COVID-19 or AGP.
- Place the patient in an airborne infection isolation room (AIIR)
- Negative Pressure should be monitored with visible indicator
- Use of respiratory protection (e.g., fit tested **N95 respirator**) or powered air-purifying respirator (PAPR) when entering the room
- Limit movement and transport of the patient.
- Use a mask on the patient if they need to be moved.
- Keep patient room door closed, do not open anteroom door till other door closed

Serologies and Vaccination

- HBSAB titre (above 10)
- VZV
- MMR
- Td
- Seasonal Influenza Vaccine
- COVID-19 vaccine

Summary of precautions for patients with COVID-19

Personal Protective Equipment	Close patient contact (within 2m)	Enter room but no contact with patient or environment	Cleaning room/area (Domestic staff)	Aerosol generating procedures
Gown		×		×
Surgical mask				×
Long sleeved disposable gown	×	×	×	
Fit Tested N95 respirator	×	×	×	
Eye protection (goggles, face shield)	Risk assess	×	×	
Gloves		×		

L40- Endemic infections in The middle east

	Typhoid fever	Brucellosis	Dengue	Rift Valley
Introduction/ Epidemiology	-Severe systemic illness with fever and abdominal pain -Caused by Salmonella typhi and paratyphi -Common in children and young adults	-Systemic febrile illness -(Brucella) Aerobic intracellular gram negative coccobacilli -Mostly Mediterranean basin and Arabic peninsula -uncommon in infants	-Dengue fever and Hemorrhagic fever caused by dengue virus -Mosquito borne (Aedes aegypti) - in Tropical and subtropical areas	-Acute fever causing zoonotic and human disease -Phlebovirus, transmitted by mosquitoes or infected mammals
Pathogenesis	1-Organism enters the blood through fecal oral route 2- multiply in mesenteric lymph nodes 3- infect the reticuloendothelial system (spleen, liver, bone marrow)	-Zoonotic infection transmitted through contact with fluids (Aerosols inhalation, unpasteurized dairy, undercooked meat, lab workers) - survives phagocytosis - replication in reticuloendothelial system and other organs	Clinical features: 1-Dengue fever: -Incubation period (3-14 days) -Symptoms appear (4-7 days after bite) -acute febrile illness with fever and 2 symptoms of: (Headache, retro-orbital pain, myalgia, arthralgia, rash) 2. homeorrhagia favore	Clinical features: •low to moderate fever •bleeding and disseminated intravascular coagulation •Abdominal pain •malaise •Encephalopathy or Encephalitis
Clinical features	(Diarrhea or constipation) 1st week: fever, chills , relative bradycardia 2nd week: rose spots 3rd week: hepatosplenomegaly	 Undulant fever Night sweats Fatigue Anorexia Weight loss Arthralgia 	 2- hemorrhagic fever: -hemorrhagic manifestations, positive tourniquet test 3- Dengue shock syndrome: (Cold skin, rapid pulse) 	 nausea and vomiting Diarrhea Renal failure Liver failure muscle pain, back pain, and joint pain
Diagnosis	1-WBC: leukopenia 2-Culture: -Blood: most important at onset -Bone marrow: most sensitive but invasive -stool culture: 2nd,3rd weeks	1-Culture: sensitivity -blood (15%-70%) -bone marrow(80%-90%) but invasive 2- Serology : Standard agglutination test (SAT) Very sensitive and specific	-RT-PCR (best) -Detection of viral antigen -Serology	-PCR -ELISA for IgM
Treatment and prevention	 Ciprofloxacin (1st choice, empiric) Ceftriaxone (2nd choice) Prevention by: Food and water safety, vaccination, education 	1st line: doxycycline + streptomycin (avoid if above 65 of age) 2nd line: doxycycline + rifampicin Prevention: avoid contact with animal fluids, pasteurization of milk, well cooked meat	-Symptomatic treatment (use acetaminophen) -Hydration - Avoid NSAIDs in children Prevention: elimination of mosquito's habitat, protection from bites	- Symptomatic treatment Prevention: Vaccine for veterinary
Complications	 Pneumonia Meningitis Osteomyelitis Small bowel perforation 	1-Osteoarticular diseases are the most common form of focal brucellosis (Sacroiliitis, spondylitis) 2-Neurobrucellocis 3-Endocarditis (the main cause of death)	Dangerous signs in hemorrhagic fever: •Intense abdominal pain •persistent vomiting •restlessness •sudden change from fever to hypothermia	

L40- Endemic infections in The middle east

	Cutaneous	Visceral	MERS-Cov	COVID-19	
	leishmaniasis	leishmaniasis			
Introduction/ Epidemiology	 -Protozoal disease caused by leishmania parasite -Transmitted by sand fly (phlebotomus papatasi) bite 1-cutaneous 2-muco-cutaneous 3-visceral -Promastigotes injected > become Amastigotes in macrophages > multiply and infect other cells 		-Betacoronavirus -Transmission most likely from camel to human, also human to human - incubation period (5	-incubation period within 14 days of exposure (mostly 4-5 days): 1. Viral response phase: high viral replication. 2. Pulmonary phase:	
	-males more than females -L.major, L.tropica -concentrated in	-Kala Azar - L.donovani, L.infantum, rattus rattus	days)	decrease in viral replication and increase immune reaction. 3. Hyperinflammation	
Pathogenesis	six regions: Al-Qaseem, Riyadh, Al-Hassa, Aseer, Ha'il, and Al-Madinah	-replicate in reticulo-endothelial system (hepatosplenomegaly)		phase : immune reaction is high and is associated with ARDs and shock.	
Clinical features	-Pink papule leading to painless ulceration with indurated borders -most common to the face	 -asymptomatic or fever, malaise and weight loss -splenomegaly -Anemia , Leukopenia, Thrombocytopenia, -Hyper-gammaglobulin emia -Hypoalbuminemia, and edema. 	1-Asymptomatic 2 -Fever (>38°C) 3 SOB 4 Cough -CBC: lymphocytosis, pancytopenia -LFT: Elevated enzymes and LDH. -RFT- Rising blood urea nitrogen and creatinine.) -imaging: Ground-glass opacity, Airspace patchy infiltrates or consolidation.	 Mild case: -fever, headache and dry cough loss of taste and smell Severe cases: -respiratory failure -cardiac (arrhythmia) -neurologic (Encephalopathy) -Thromboembolic (deep vein thrombosis and stroke) Risk factors for poor outcome: -Increased age. -Presence of chronic illnesses 	
Diagnosis	Aspiration From ulcer marginsBone marrow/spleen aspiration-Histopathology with Giemsa stain (Amastigotes) - culture in Schneider's drosophila or NNN media - PCR		•RT-PCR -Nasopharyngeal swab	•RT-PCR -Nasopharyngeal swab, Lower respiratory tract (Optimal time 5-7 days	
			tract	post exposure)	
Treatment and prevention	 Cryotherapy paromomycin,imidazol e. (sodium antimony gluconate; Pentostam). sodium stibogluconate (SSG) 	 Amphotericin B (even in pregnancy) paromomycin sodium stibogluconate (SSG) 	•Supportive Prevention: avoiding camels	 Supportive Low dose dexamethasone: 	
	Prevention: clothing, insect repellent, educate				

Definition

Mechanical wear and tear destroys articular cartilage (degenerative joint disorder)

Etiology

- Heritable metabolic causes: alkaptonuria, hemochromatosis, • wilson disease
- Hemoglobinopathies : sickle cell disease, thalassemia
- Neuropathic disorders leading to a Charcot joint
- Underlying morphological risk factors: Congenital hip dislocation and slipped femoral capital
- Disorders of bone: Paget disease, avascular necrosis
- Previous surgical procedures: meniscectomy
- **Diabetes mellitus**

Pathogenesis

- Degeneration of articular cartilage: is the defining feature of OA
- Consequent structural changes include surface fibrillation and ulceration with loss of cartilage that exposes underlying bone to increased stress, producing microfractures and cysts leading to abnormal sclerotic subchondral bone and overgrowths at the joint margins, called osteophytes.
- **Clinical Presentation**
- Pain: Insidious onset, worse with movement, relieved by rest • /Brief (< 15 mins) morning stiffness/ Coarse crepitus / Asymmetric joint involvement targeting the hips, knees, PIP, DIP, neck and lumbar spine/Functional restriction/No systemic symptoms Primary OA, The angle is outward
- → Before labelling any pt to have OA you need to exclude inflammatory causes.

Types of OA

- Nodal OA: Female preponderance. Pain, stiffness and swelling of one or more PIP and DIP joints, leaving • painless bony swellings Heberden's nodes (DIPs) and Bouchard's nodes (PIPs). Involvement of the first CMC joint is also common causing squaring of the thumb base
- Knee OA: strong relationship with obesity, bilateral with symmetrical involvement, targets the patellofemoral and medial tibiofemoral compartments leads to a varus "bow-legged" deformity.
- **Hip OA:**
 - Superior-pole hip OA : 0

- Most common, unilateral.
 - Affect the **upper surface of the femoral head** and adjacent acetabulum.
- 0 Medial cartilage (central) loss:
 - Usually affect women, **bilateral**.
 - Associated with hand involvement (NGOA). Has better prognosis.
- **Spine OA:** Cervical (cervical spondylosis) and lumbar spine (lumbar spondylosis) are the most common targeted sites. May be complicated with spinal stenosis or nerve root compression \rightarrow neurological signs and radiation of pain.
- Erosive OA: an unusual group of patients with hand OA who have a more prolonged symptom phase and inflammation, more disability and worse outcome. Distinguishing features **subchondral erosions on** X-rays, occasional ankylosis of affected joints.

Work up

- X-ray: Only abnormal when the damage is advanced.narrowing joint space, Osteophytes, Subchondral sclerosis, and Cyst formation
- MRI of spine: should be done if nerve root compression or spinal stenosis are suspected.
- Bone scintigraphy: to rule out malignancy
- Arthrocentesis: On suspicion of septic arthritis. WBC : >100 OA, > 1000 Inflammatory

Genu Varum deformity





Age, obesity, trauma, women gender, hypogondism (estrogen has protective role) muscle weakness, repetitive use, septic arthritis and crystal

deposition

Risk Factors



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Treatment

Non pharmacological:

- Lifestyle modification: Physical and rehab therapy (OA of the knee you should exercise the quadriceps), weight loss, medical shoes with lateral and medial wedged
- o insoles.

Pharmacological:

- First choice: **Topical (NSAID)** due to less systemic side effects and it can be added at any step.
- **Topical capsaicin:** very irritating substance, pt should avoid touching the eyes after putting the cream, bc it may lead to conjunctivitis

If the topical therapy is failing, start oral therapy:

- First choice: Acetaminophen
- **Solpadeine**: Combination of acetaminophen and low dose codeine.

If all of above are failing even with combining oral and topical therapy go to the next step:

- Second choice: NSAIDs (ibuprofen, meloxicam)
- Third choice: **Tramadol** These aren't usually used can cause addiction, bc at this level (advanced OA) the only solution is arthroplasty
- **Duloxetine:** used in depression
- Intra-articular corticosteroid injections produce short-term improvement when there is a painful joint effusion.

L42- Gout

Definition

- Gout is an inflammatory-arthritis **associated with hyperuricemia** and reaction to intra-articular monosodium urate crystals.
- Most commonly seen in elderly, men, and postmenuposal women due to the loss of estrogen induced uricosuric effect.

Predisposing factors

- Obesity & excessive weight gain.
- Increased intake \rightarrow Purine rich foods.
- **Diminished renal excretion** → Abnormal kidney function, alcohol intake, drugs (Thiazide & ASA, loop diuretics) Moderate to heavy alcohol intake (beer specially)
- Generalised OA.
- Chemotherapy: Tumour lysis syndrome
- Increased production → Inherited disorders: Lesch–Nyhan syndrome (X-linked recessive form of gout that is also associated with mental retardation), High fructose intake

Clinical Presentation

• Acute monoarthritis:

- Sudden onset severe pain, extreme tenderness, and swelling of the first MTP joint of the big toe.
 Other common sites are the ankle, midfoot, knee, small joints of hands, wrist and elbow. The axial skeleton and large proximal joints are rarely involved.
- Sudden onset, severe pain, extreme tenderness and marked swelling (giving impression of cellulitis).
- Self limiting over 5-14 days.
- Acute attacks may be precipitated by dietary or alcoholic excess, by dehydration or by starting a diuretic.

• Chronic tophaceous gout:

- Chronic pain and joint damage.
- Characterised with **Tophi**: irregular firm white nodules produced when crystals are deposited in the soft tissue on **extensor surfaces** of fingers, hands, forearm, elbows (difficult to differentiate from RA nodules), Achilles tendons and sometimes the helix of the ear.

Diagnosis

- Clinically or by rapid response to NSAIDs or colchicine.
- **Biochemical screen** → RFT, uric acid (can be normal or high), glucose and lipid profile, high ESR and CRP and neutrophelia.
- Joint aspiration (Synovial fluid analysis) → Cell count, polarized microscopy and culture to exclude septic arthritis and confirm the diagnosis.
 - Microscopy shows needle-shaped uric acid crystals (negatively birefringent).
- X-ray \rightarrow normal in acute gout , well demarcated erosions in chronic gout.

Management

• Patient presenting with acute monoarthritis: Give **antibiotics** and do not stop until the culture comes back negative.

• Terminate acute attacks \rightarrow

- **NSAIDS:** Fast onset of action, effective even after a few days of symptoms onset.
- **Colchicine:** Slower onset, weak effect after 24-36 hours after symptoms onset, **narrow therapeutic index**, D/C if GI distress develops e.g. diarrhea or colicky abdominal pain.
- **Corticosteroids:** for intolerant of NSAIDs or colchicine and Comorbidities.
- In renal impairment:
 - Steroids are preferred, either intra-articular or systemic.
 - Cr clearance < 50: Colchicine and NSAIDs are contraindicated.
- Joint involvement:
 - **Monoarthritis** → Intra-articular steroid injection is preferred, contraindicated in septic arthritis.
 - **Polyarthritis** → NSAIDs or Colchicine.

• Prevent recurrence & reverse complications \rightarrow

- **Use in :** tophi or radiographic changes or >2 attacks per year
- Xanthine oxidase inhibitors "decrease production": Recommended urate levels <360 umol/L
 - Allopurinol: first choice, Start low, go slow, Dose adjust for renal function.
 - Febuxostat: more potent, there's a concern about sudden cardiac death, undergoes hepatic metabolism(CrCL > 30 mL/min - no dose adjustment)
- Uricosuric Agents "increase excretion":
 - Probenecid and Sulfinpyrazone: have weaker action.
- Conjugated uricase enzyme:
 - Pegloticase: treat tophaceous gout resistant to standard therapy, Used preventatively in people undergoing chemotherapy for malignancies (tumour lysis syndrome).

• Address co-morbid conditions \rightarrow

- Weight loss and decrease alcohol consumption.
- \circ \quad Avoid if Possible organ meats e.g. liver, kidney and heart.
- \circ $\hfill Limit Seafood sardines, tuna, mushrooms and high fructose corn syrup.$
- If possible, substitute the antihypertensive drugs that increase uric acid (e.g. thiazides, β-blockers and ACEI) with **losartan** which has uricosuric effect

L43: Use of Antibiotic

Important considerations when prescribing antibiotics:

1. Obtain accurate diagnosis of infection

- Establishing a microbiological diagnosis, Especially for: Endocarditis, Septic arthritis, and Meningitis
 - The most likely microbiological etiology can be inferred from the clinical presentation:
 - **Cellulitis** (streptococci or staphylococci) No need for positive culture \rightarrow Empirical therapy
 - **Cellulitis with wound** and the patient has diabetic foot then probably it's **secondary cellulitis** from the wound itself, so organism will be the one in the wound not the usual ones.
 - Erysipelas (has demarcated margins unlike cellulitis, affecting the upper layers of the skin, while cellulitis affects the deeper tissues)
 - Erysipelas → Most common Strep
 - Cellulitis → Most common Staph
 - CA pneumonia with no risk factors can be treated empirically with **macrolide or cephalosporins antibiotic**
 - Community-onset UTI E.Coli: bactrim/fluoroquinolones or just nitrofurantoin if patient has cystitis only.
 - Identification of the infecting organism:
 - **Gram stain:** the simplest, least expensive, and most useful of all the rapid methods of identification of bacterial
 - Gram +ve cocci in clusters \rightarrow staph. (coagulase -ve or coagulase
 - +ve)
 - Gram +ve cocci in chains \rightarrow enterococcus or streptococcus
 - Gram +ve diplococci \rightarrow pneumococcal
 - Gram -ve diplococci \rightarrow neisseria
 - Gram -ve rods \rightarrow many
 - Gram -ve coccobacilli → brucella **Direct detection of organisms:** Microscopy and Nucleic acid amplification (PCR)
 - Tests of the host's specific immune response: Antibody detection
 - **Culture of organisms:** shows the organism and its susceptibility, limitation results are not immediate, even for organisms that are easy to grow.

2. Empiric and definitive therapy

- **Susceptibility Testing:** the ability of a specific organism to grow in the presence of a particular drug; susceptible, resistant, and intermediate. Data are reported in the form of minimum inhibitory concentration
- Timing of initiation of antimicrobial therapy:
 - Urgent cases: Acute meningitis, Septic shock, Febrile neutropenia
 - Empiric therapy (broad-spectrum antimicrobial agents) should be initiated immediately after or concurrently with collection of diagnostic specimens.
 - **Non-Urgent cases:** hold antibiotics until appropriate specimens have been collected and submitted. Example:
 - subacute bacterial endocarditis → multiple sets of blood cultures
 - Wound infection, diabetic foot, chronic ulcers. Patient's discharging for 2-3 weeks and stable → debridement → then deep tissue culture
 - Febrile and stable patient with fever for several days with no clue to diagnosis.

3. Identify opportunities to switch to narrow-spectrum

- Every attempt should be made to narrow the antibiotic spectrum to reduce cost and toxicity and Prevent the emergence of resistance. **switch to oral agents as soon as possible.**
- 4. Cost-effective oral agents for the shortest duration necessary
 - Antimicrobial stewardship: refers to the systems and processes applied to a population to optimise the use of antimicrobial agents. aims to improve patient outcomes and reduce antimicrobial resistance (AMR).
 - The appropriate **selection, route & duration, and dosing** of antimicrobials:
 - The lowest effective dose → avoid subtherapeutic doses
 - Serious vs non-serious infections
 - Drug PK/PD properties
 - Site of infection
 - Other host factors (e.g. renal function)

Important considerations when prescribing antibiotics cont':

4. Cost-effective oral agents for the shortest duration necessary

- Antimicrobial Combinations: (Exhibits synergistic activity)
 - **Rapid killing:** endocarditis caused by **enterococcus species** with a combination of **penicillin and gentamicin**.
 - Shorten the course: due to viridans group streptococci with a combination of penicillin or ceftriaxone with gentamicin for 2 weeks.
 - Critical ill patient
 - **Polymicrobial infections:** Intra-abdominal infections, diabetic foot such as third-generation cephalosporin or a fluoroquinolones **plus** metronidazole
 - **To prevent resistance:** combination of 4 anti-TB drugs in the first 2 months, then 2 anti-TB drugs for the rest of the course of treatment,

5. Understanding drug pharmacodynamics and efficacy at the site of infection.

Bactericidal	Bacteriostatic
 Cause death by cell rupture and disruption of the bacterial cell. Drugs act on: The cell wall (b-lactams most famous) eg. penicillins & cephalosporins & carbapenems & monobactams → they own b-lactam rings → antibiotic works on the cell wall production of bacteria. Cell membrane (daptomycin) Bacterial DNA (fluoroquinolones) Preferred in the case of serious infections such as: endocarditis meningitis to achieve rapid cure 	 Inhibit bacterial replication without killing the organism. Most common MOA Act by inhibiting protein synthesis such as: Sulfonamides Tetracyclines Macrolides

- **Oral** \rightarrow for more stable patients providing that patient is tolerant to oral medications.
- $\bullet \qquad \mathsf{IV} \to \mathsf{bacteremia}, \mathsf{septic shock}, \mathsf{infective endocarditis}, \mathsf{severe meningitis}.$
- Candidates for treatment mild to moderate infections, well-absorbed oral antimicrobial agents :
 - **Pyelonephritis:** Fluoroquinolones
 - **Community-acquired pneumonia:** Augmentin and macrolides coverage
- The efficacy of antimicrobial agents depends on their capacity to achieve : Concentration equal to or greater than the MIC at the site of infection.
- **Ocular** fluid, **CSF**, abscess cavity, prostate, and bone are often much lower than serum levels
 - **First- and second-generation cephalosporins:** do not cross the blood-brain barrier. should **not** be used to treat them. eg. meningitis, endophthalmitis (similar to BBB)
 - Aminoglycosides: less active low-oxygen, low-pH, of Abscesses
 - **Fluoroquinolones** achieve high concentrations in the prostate preferred oral agents for the treatment of **Prostatitis**
 - **Moxifloxacin** does not achieve significant urinary concentrations therefore not suitable for treatment of UTIs because it is not excreted in the urine.
- Assessment of response to treatment: Clinical parameters, Laboratory values, Decreasing leukocyte count, Radiologic decrease in the size of an abscess.

6. Host characteristics that influence antimicrobial activity

- Renal and Hepatic Function (Adjust dose)
- Pregnancy and Lactation
 - Sulphonamides: A risk to develop kernicterus It can be used in the 2nd trimester. However, it's contraindicated in the 3rd trimester
 - Tetracycline: Staining of the teeth
 - Fluoroquinolone: Cartilage damage
 - Thalidomide: Phocomelia
- History of Allergy or Intolerance: Penicillin and anaphylaxis
- Genetic e.g, G6PD \rightarrow avoid sulfa group in G6PD patients as it may lead to hemolysis
- Drug interactions

L43: Use of Antibiotic

Organism	Antibiotics		
MRSA Methicillin Resistant Staph. Aureus (R mechanism: PBP2a penicillin binding protein)	 Vancomycin (Glycopeptide) Teicoplanin (Glycopeptide) Dalbavancin (Glycopeptide) Linezolid, Tedizolid Daptomycin (Lipopeptide) Tigecycline: cannot be used for pneumonia or bacteremia, only for intra-abdominal infections and skin and soft tissue infections Delafloxacin: new fluoroquinolone agent <u>Ceftobiprole</u> : 5th generation cephalosporins 		
VRE Vancomycin Resistant Enterococcus (common inside hospitals)	 Teicoplanin Linezolid Tigecycline and Eravacycline (new agents used only for intra-abdominal infections and skin and soft tissue infections, not UTIs since it isn't excreted in urine) 		
ESBL Extended Spectrum Beta-Lactamase	 Carbapenems: drug of choice Piperacillin/tazobactam: increases mortality if given to severe infections. Nitrofurantoin and fosfomycin (UTI): for very mild infections only. Tigecycline and Eravacycline: for intra-abdominal infections and skin and soft tissue infections only Colistin Plazomicin fluoroquinolones: like cipro and bactrim (depends on what you're treating) 		
CRE Carbapenem-Resistant Enterobacteriaceae Challenging infection, that carries high mortality and morbidity, need to produce new agents for treatment	 Nitrofurantoin and fosfomycin (UTI): for simple cystitis Tigecycline and Eravacycline: for intra-abdominal infections and skin and soft tissue infections only. Colistin: only one used for NDM and OXA-45 → MOA of bacteria (covers BOTH MOAs) Ceftazidime/avibactam and Meropenem/vaborbactam (new agents for OXA-45) Plazomicin (used for OXA-45 only) Perform PCR to see what's the mechanism of resistance, based on this we choose the abx 		
Actinobacter Very bad, fast growing problem, especially in ICU pt and it has very limited choices of abx	 Carbapenems: 70% of actinobacter are carbapenem resistant, use if sensitive Tigecycline and Eravacycline : for intra-abdominal infections and skin and soft tissue infections only (This organism mostly causes pneumonia in ICU, these two abx cannot be used for pneumonia) Aminoglycosides, Colistin (only saving agent, but has many problems including dosing, they are nephrotoxic and not enough alone) 		
Pseudomonas aeruginosa Very famous hospital acquired infection	 Piperacillin/tazobactam: From all penicillins this is the only one that cover psuedomonas. Ceftazidime (3rd) and cefepime (4th) and <u>Ceftobiprole</u> (5th generation cephalosporins) These are the only cephalosporins that cover pseudomonas Meropenem, imipenem and Doripenem (carbapenem group) Aztreonam Some fluoroquinolones (only ciprofloxacin and levofloxacin) Aminoglycosides Colistin Ceftolozane/tazobactam and Ceftazidime/avibactam (new agents). 		

Antimicrobial agents as prophylaxis:

- **Presurgical Antimicrobial Prophylaxis:** to reduce the incidence of postoperative surgical site infections.
 - A single dose of cephalosporin (such as cefazolin) administered within 1 hour before the initial incision is appropriate for most surgical procedures.
 - Prevent Transmission of Communicable Pathogens to Susceptible Contacts:
 - Ciprofloxacin or Rifampicin for close contacts of a patient with N.meningitidis
- Antimicrobial Prophylaxis Before Dental Procedures: Prosthetic valves, Rheumatic heart, Unrepaired congenital heart disease, Previous infective endocarditis → to prevent endocarditis

Positive culture in the absence of disease

- **Colonization occurs frequently in:** older women with indwelling urinary catheter, mechanically ventilated patients (endotracheal tubes), or chronic wounds.
- No need to treat colonization except in special cases (e.g. UTI +ve culture, if patient is pregnant or symptomatic or going for a procedure → treat)

Antimicrobial decision making

When most culture results are available, one of the following five decisions should be made:

- Stop antibiotic treatment
- Step down to an oral alternative: For uncomplicated infections
- **Switch treatment**: because of an unanticipated site of infection (e.g. infective endocarditis requiring prolonged intravenous antibiotic treatment) or unanticipated resistance (such as urosepsis and bacteraemia caused by an ESBL-producing E. coli requiring treatment with an intravenous carbapenem).
- Continue with intravenous treatment: The patient has a more complicated infections
- Discharge on outpatient parenteral antibiotic treatment:



keep doing what you're doing.

it's good.

	Functional adenoma	Non-functional adenoma (incidentaloma)	
Epidemiology	 <u>10%</u> of all pituitary lesions Genetically-related to MEN-1, Gs-alpha mutation, PTTG gene, FGF receptor-4) Or idiopathic 	1.5 -31% in autopsy (prevalence) 10% by MRI most of them < 1 cm	
Clinical (History and Examination)	 Function (oversecretion or hyposecretion) Mass (headache, visual symptoms) 	 Asymptomatic Incidentaloma by imaging. Mass-effect (Bitemporal hemianopia) Gonadal <u>hypersecretion</u> 	
Biochemical	Screen Test, Confirmatory Test	GH, LH, FSH, TSH, ACTH: not high. PRL could be: low, high or normal.	
Anatomy	MRI of sella turcica (MRI is superior to CT)		
Treatment	 Surgical >Medical >Radiation or Medical >Surgical >Radiation (Depend on the type) 	 Surgery if indicated Observation Adjunctive therapy 	

1- Prolactinomas			
General info	• Prolactinomas are the most common of functional pituitary adenomas		
Causes of hyperprolactine mia	 Prolactin secreting pituitary adenoma (Most common) Renal failure (returns to normal after transplant), Liver failure, primary hypothyroidism (high TRH levels stimulate prolactin). Drugs which interfere with dopamine: (Phenothiazines, Domapine receptor antagonists metoclopramide, a-methyldopa, verapamil, H2 blocker, estrogen, opiates, reserpine). Pregnancy is the most common physiological cause. 		
Clinical features	 Galactorrhoea, oligo or amenorrhoea, infertility, Decreased libido, subfertility, erectile dysfunction, gynecomastia It may have mass effect → Bitemporal hemianopia 		
Diagnosis	 Serum prolactin level: At least 3 measurements should be taken, Very high level suggests prolactinoma (>5000mU/L). Thyroid function test: TSH must be tested to rule out primary Hypothyroidism. IGF-1 must be tested to rule out acromegaly co-secretion. Pregnancy test: Always exclude pregnancy first 		
Treatment	 1st line: Medical: Dopamine agonist drugs (e.g. Bromocriptine, Cabergoline (Drug of choice), Quinagolide) (Bromocriptine is preferred in pregnancy) 2nd line: Surgery and radiation 		

2- GH excess (Acromegaly/Gigantism)				
General info	• 98% of cases are due to GH pituitary adenoma			
Clinical features	 The most common complaints are headache and sweating. Acral enlargement: large thick hands & feet with osteoarthritis Gross features of acromegaly: Face gross features, enlarged tongue, and jaw Galactorrhea (Due to co-secretion of prolactin from the tumor) Gingiva enlargement, constipation and deep voice May have mass effect → Bitemporal hemianopia Carpal tunnel syndrome (Median nerve compression) irreversible cardiovascular effect: (major cause of death) Cardiomegaly and CHF with Diastolic dysfunction being an early sign of cardiomyopathy. HTN in 40%, LVH in 50% and they present with Obstructive sleep apnea (due to Neck enlargement) 			
Diagnosis	 Initial test (screen): Measure IGF-1. (Will be high in acromegaly) Confirmatory Test: 75g OGTT for GH suppression MRI or CT for the pituitary 			
Treatment	1st line: • Surgery 2nd line: • Medical: • Somatostatin analogues (octreotide, lanreotide or pasireotide). • Dopamine agonist (bromocriptine or cabergoline) "especially if associated with prolactin excess" • Didn't work? use GH receptor antagonist (Pegvisomant) 3rd line: • Radiotherapy			
	3- Diabetes insipidus			
Types	 <u>Central DI</u>: Deficiency of vasopressin (ADH), caused by a hypothalamic disorder (adenoma of pituitary does not cause it because it is only stored there) Nephrogenic DI: Renal resistance to ADH action Psychogenic DI: is an excessive water intake seen in some patients with mental illnesses such as schizophrenia. 			
Symptoms	• Abrupt onset of polyuria (1st manifestation), polydipsia (2nd manifestation)			
Investigations	 Urine: ↑urine volume (2 – 15 L/day), ↓urine osmolality, ↓specific gravity. Serum Na+: usually high High or high-normal plasma osmolality Water deprivation test (To differentiate between CDI,NDI and PDI) Central DI: urine osmolality will still low (Before giving vasopressin) and returns to normal after administer vasopressin. Nephrogenic DI: exogenous vasopressin does not alter urine osmolality much. Psychogenic DI: Urine will be become concentrated as they aren't really a problem with either the pituitary nor the kidney 			
Treatment	CDI \rightarrow DDAVP. NDI \rightarrow Correct underlying cause, Hydrochlorothiazide.			



When The Level of Glucose is high:

 Hormone: Insulin ↑ glycolysis ↑ ion uptake especially K and PO₄³⁻ ↓Ketogenesis Effect on Liver: 1. ↑ Glycogen synthesis 	 Effect on Liver: 1. ↑ Glycogen synthesis 2. ↓ Gluconeogenesis 3. ↓ Glycogenolysis 4. ↑ lipogenesis (FA synthesis) 5. ↑ Lipoprotein synthesis 	 Effect on Muscles: 1. ↑ protein synthesis 2. ↓ Proteolysis Effect on Adipose tissue: 1. Inhibition of intracellular lipase > No lipolysis 2. ↑ TGs deposition
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	T1DM	T2DM		
pathogenesis	 Interactions of genetic, environmental, and immunological factors that lead to the destruction of the pancreatic Beta cells and insulin deficiency. Most, but not all, individuals have evidence of islet-directed autoimmunity. There is a loss of both first and second phase of insulin secretion. 	 Two defects are necessary: Abnormalities of insulin action:(resistance), characterized by ability of insulin to: Inhibit hepatic glucose output Suppress lipolysis in adipose tissue. Stimulate glucose uptake into skeletal musch Abnormalities of insulin secretion: The body responses to insulin resistance by increasing insulin secretion, early sign is loss the first phase of the normal biphasic insulin secretion. This level is still inadequate to restore glucos homeostasis. By the time of diagnosis, at lea 50% of B-cell mass and function has been lose and further deterioration of glucose homeostasis. With time, insulin secretion declines. 'Starling curve' of the pancreas. 		
Age	Usually <30y/o	Usually >30y/o		
Course	Rapid From DPT-I can be indolent	Indolent Virtually none found on screening		
risk factors	 Genetic: HLA- DR3-DQ2, HLA- DR4-DQ8 or both. By contrast, certain HLA alleles confer protective effects, for example DQB1*0602. Increased susceptibility to type 1 diabetes is inherited but the disease is not genetically predetermined. Environmental: maternal factors: such as gestational infection and older age. viral infection: such as Coxsackie B4. Childhood obesity and early introduction of cow's milk. 	 Diet: dietary fat, red and processed meat, consumption of fried food. Aging: B-cell function declines with age Obesity: accounts for 80-85% of the overall ri Fetal origins of diabetes: low weight at birth associated with glucose intolerance later in li Physical inactivity. Genetic susceptibility and inheritance: Identical twins have more than a 50% chance TNF-alpha may induce insulin resistance in obesity Others: urbanization, poverty, abnormal slee patterns, environmental toxins and mental illness. 		

L45,46- T1&T2 DM (cont.)

Bolus (preprandial or mealtime) insulins	Basal insulin		
 Rapid-acting insulin analogues (clear) Insulin aspart (NovoRapid[®]) - Insulin lispro (Humalog[®]) Insulin glulisine (Apidra[®]) - Faster-acting insulin aspart (Fiasp[®]) 	Intermediate-acting (cloudy) - Insulin neutral protamine Hagedorn (Humulin® -N, Novolin® ge NPH)		
 Short-acting insulins (clear) Insulin regular [Humulin[®]-R, Novolin[®] ge Toronto] Insulin regular (Entuzity[®]) 	 Long-acting insulin (clear) Insulin detemir (Levemir[®]) -Insulin glargine U-100 (Lantus[®]) Insulin glargine U-300 (Toujeo[®]) - Degludec U-100, U-200 (Tresiba[®]) Insulin glargine biosimilar (Basaglar [®]) 		
Premixed insulins			
Premixed regular insulin –NPH (cloudy) Premixed insulin analogues (cloudy) - Humulin 30/70 - Novolin® ge 30/70, 40/60, 50/50 Premixed insulin analogues (cloudy) - Biphasic insulin aspart (NovoMix® - Insulin lispro/lispro protamine (Hu and Mix50)			
insulin complications			

- Hypoglycaemia (The most common), Weight gain, Insulin antibodies, insulin resistance, Peripheral oedema, Local allergy (rare), Lipohypertrophy or lipoatrophy at injection sites

Biguanides: metformin

increases insulin sensitivity, peripheral glucose utilization and reduces gluconeogenesis first-line pharmacological agent in all type diabetes guidelines.

GI: anorexia, nausea, abdominal discomfort and diarrhoea.

- Contraindicated in: renal impairment, cardiac failure and hepatic failure because of the risk of lactic acidosis.

Sulphonylureas

Gliclazide, Glimepiride, Glibenclamide, Glipizide, Tolbutamide

Act on the B cell to induce insulin secretion. no effect in people with type 1 diabetes. can be used as an alternative first-line agent where metformin is contraindicated or not tolerated. Adverse effects:Weight gain and hypoglycaemia.

used with care in people with liver or renal disease.

Thiazolidinediones : pioglitazone

Reduce insulin resistance by interaction with peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-gamma (PPAR-Y), a nuclear receptor that regulates large numbers of genes, including those involved in lipid metabolism and insulin action.

Pioglitazone may specifically benefit people with non-alcoholic fatty liver disease, a frequent co-morbidity of type 2 diabetes.

Adverse effects: weight gain, fluid retention.

L45,46- T1&T2 DM (cont.)

Meglitinides or post-prandial insulin releasers

Repaglinide, Nateglinide

Mode of action Like sulphonylureas, meglitinides act by closing the K*-ATP channel in the ß cells have a short duration of action of less than 3 hours.

used to treat people with post-prandial hyperglycaemia with normal fasting glucose levels. Hypoglycaemia and weight gain but these are generally less severe than with sulphonylureas.

Dipeptidyl peptidase-4 inhibitors or 'gliptins

Sitagliptin, Linagliptin, Vlidagliptin, Alogliptin, Saxagliptin

These drugs inhibit the enzyme DPP4, which prevents the rapid inactivation of glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1), which increases insulin secretion and reduces glucagon secretion.

most effective in the early stages of type 2 diabetes, when insulin secretion is relatively preserved, and are currently recommended for second-line use in combination with metformin or a sulphonylurea.

Occasional reports of acute pancreatitis., Saxagliptin may increase the risk of heart failure.

GLP-1 receptor agonist

Exenatide, Liraglutide, Lixisenatide, Dulaglutide, Semaglutide, Albiglutid

more potent that DPP-4 inhibitors. they also act on the hypothalamus to reduce appetite and food intake leading to weight loss. The size of effect has led to the licensing of liraglutide as an anti-obesity treatment.

now used in combination with other antidiabetic agents, as second- or third-line therapies. They should not be combined with DPP-4 inhibitors

Adverse effects: gastrointestinal and include nausea and vomiting, bloating and diarrhoea.

Sodium-glucose transporter 2 inhibitors ('flozins')

Dapaglilozin, Empaglilozin, Canaglilozin

In addition to their effects on blood glucose, they lower body weight, improve renal dysfunction and reduce the risk of atherosclerotic cardiovascular events and heart failure

- Lower the renal threshold for glucose, increasing urinary glucose excretion.
- can be used as monotherapy but are used more typically in combination with all other antidiabetes drugs.
- This class has become rapidly established in clinical practice and in type 2 diabetes guidelines because of their cardiovascular benefits, weight loss and low risk of hypoglycaemia. SGLT2 inhibitors are licensed as adjunctive therapy to insulin in type 1 diabetes.
- Adverse effects : genital candidiasis and dehydration.
- Rarer side effects include diabetic ketoacidosis, Fournier's gangrene and lower limb amputation.

Alpha-glucosidase inhibitors

Acarbose , Miglitol , Voglibose

Can be used as monotherapy or in combination with all other antidiabetes drugs, they are not widely used because of their limited efficacy and gastrointestinal side-effects.

The major side-effects are gastrointestinal and include flatulence, abdominal distension and diarrhoea, as unabsorbed carbohydrate is fermented in the bowel.

Begin with	i lifestyle/metformin ^{a,b}
If Hb	A _{1c} remains ≥7.0%
	L tion t
Add basal insulin	Add SU (or consider TZD, DPP-4 inhibitor or AGI ^C)
If Hb	A _{1c} remains ≥7.0%



How to Reduce the Risk of Diabetes Complications?

Maintain a good glucose control (A1C around 7%)

Diabetic Ketoacidosis (DKA)

 Status of metabolic acidosis due to absolute (or relative) insulin deficiency in association with increased levels of glucagon and other counter-regulatory hormones resulting in increased ketone production.

• Precipitating Causes of DKA

- Non compliance with insulin therapy
- Drugs: SGLT-2 inhibitors
- Clinical Features of DKA

Pathophysiology of DKA



*The most important biochemical abnormality in is the uncontrolled lipolysis due to increased activity

of hormone-sensitive lipase in adipose tissue and uncontrolled ketogenesis in the liver.

-Polyuria, Polydipsia, Weight loss, abdominal pain,Hypothermia, change in mental status, Nausea and Vomiting, Deep labored breathing (Kussmaul respiration), Dehydration (as a consequence of two parallel processes):

- Hyperglycemia
- Renal hypoperfusion
- Laboratory Findings in DKA
 - Hyperglycemia >250 mg/dL + Hyperketonemia (or heavy ketonuria)
 +High anion gap (> 12 mmol\l) metabolic acidosis <18 mEq/L
 - Blood electrolytes should be assessed as potassium abnormalities occur frequently

• Management of DKA

- Aggressive rehydration + Lowering glucose + Cessation of ketogenesis + Correcting electrolyte imbalance
- 1) Rehydration
- IVF is the most critical step.
- Once the plasma glucose is ~250 mg/dl, switch IVF to D5% IVF.

2) Insulin

- Insulin is the next step after IVF
- Reduces serum glucose, suppresses ketogenesis, and correct the electrolyte disturbance.
- Most of the time: we use IV insulin infusion

3) Electrolytes

- DKA is associated with total-body K+ deficit
- Serum K+ is often normal or high (do not get fooled!).
- K+ Shift from intracellular to extracellular compartment with acidosis (serum K+ looks falsely normal). Metabolic acidosis causes hyperkalemia as potassium is exchanged for hydrogen ions moving into the cell. As insulin promotes the co-transport of potassium along with glucose into cells. Although serum potassium may be elevated, there is a severe whole-body potassium deficiency as significant quantities of potassium are lost in vomit and urine.
- Insulin therapy moves K+ back into the cells (watch for a drop in K+).

4) Restoration of the acid-base balance

- Consider bicarbonate infusion if pH <7



Hyperglycemic Hyperosmolar State (HHS)

- Status of severe hyperglycemia due to i**nsulin resistance** (not absolute insulin deficiency) & relative insulin deficiency resulting in increased serum osmolality.
- What is the characteristic metabolic emergency of uncontrolled type 2 diabetes?
- Severe hyperglycemia development without significant ketosis
- Lab findings
 - Severe hyperglycemia (> 30 mmol/L (600 mg/dL)
 - Hyperosmolality (serum osmolality >320 mOsmol/kg)
 - Without significant ketonaemia (<3 mmol/L) or acidosis (pH >7.3 (H+ <50 nmol/L), bicarbonate >15 mmol/L)

Management of HHS

- Management of HHS is similar to that of DKA
- The most important aspect of management is fluid replacement; 0.9% sodium chloride is the treatment of choice

but 0.45% sodium chloride may be considered if the osmolality is not declining despite adequate fluid balance.

Hyperglycemic Hyperosmolar State (HHS)

- Plasma glucose <3.9 mmol/L (<70 mg/dl)
- Severe hypoglycemia: need for assistance from another person to correct glucose
- What is the most frequent & serious adverse effect of glucose-lowering therapies such as insulin? Hypoglycemia
- Clinical features:
 - related to acute activation of the autonomic nervous system
 - secondary to glucose deprivation of the brain (neuroglycopenia)

• Management of Hypoglycemia:

- Give 15 grams of carbohydrates
- Wait 15 minutes and re-check glucose
- Repeat the same if glucose is still less than 70 mg/dl
- If glucose is above 70 mg/dl, have the patient eat a regular meal or a snack that contains protein

Diabetic retinopathy

- Most commonly diagnosed diabetes-related complication
- 1) Non-proliferative (earliest change): Usually appears in the 1st decade of the disease or early 2nd decade, Characterized by retinal vascular microaneurysms, blot hemorrhage, and cotton-wool spots
- 2) proliferative: Hypoxemia & neovascularization leading to virtuous hemorrhage, fibrosis, and retinal detachment

3) Macular edema

- can occur in non proliferative or proliferative stage
- Treatment :
 - $\circ \qquad \text{Prevention (most effective treatment)} \rightarrow \text{easier than treating}$

Diabetic Nephropathy

- If your patient with diabetes has nephropathy but no retinopathy; it is very likely that the nephropathy is NOT due to diabetes
- Screen with Urinary Albumin: Creatinine & eGFR
- Albuminuria (Albumin: Cr >30 mg/g)
- Prevention (most effective treatment)
 - ACEI (or ARBs) are recommended to treat nephropathy.
 - SGLT-2 inhibitors can be used, decrease the risk and progression of diabetic nephropathy.

Diabetic Neuropahty

- Treat with preventive foot care
- What is the most common form? distal symmetric polyneuropathy

Primary adrenocortical insufficiency (Addison's disease)				
Causes	 Major: Autoimmune (The most common cause) Type I (APECED) : affects children: Adrenal insufficiency, hypoparathyroidism, pernicious anaemia, chronic candidiasis, chronic active hepatitis, and hair loss) Type II (Schmidt's syndrome) usually affects young adults : hypothyroidism, adrenal insufficiency and diabetes mellitus, vitiligo Tuberculosis Infection, Infiltration, Iatrogenic, Medications, Hereditary, Miscellaneous. 			
	Clinical Biochemical Anatomical			
Evaluation	Hyperpigmentation, weakness and fatigue, weight loss, anorexia, and GI disturbances, hypoglycemia, salt craving, amenorrhea, hypotension (Think about Adrenal insufficiency if not respond to IVF and initial management)	 Hyponatremia, hyperkalemia. mild to moderate hypercalcemia Measure a.m. cortisol: If high: rule out If very low : diagnosis If borderline result : proceed for confirmatory test (ACTH stimulation test) Measure ACTH Plasma levels: it differentiates between primary and secondary 	 Adrenal insufficiency is clinical and biochemical diagnosis, no indications to do imaging unless clinically indicated such as: Patient on anticoagulation Malignancy with metastasis Other infiltrative disease 	
Treatment	 IVF: dextrose and salt Electrolytes replacement 	 Steroid replacement for primary adrenocortical insufficiency: hydrocortisone Fludrocortisone 	Steroid replacement for secondary adrenocortical insufficiency: • hydrocortisone only	
	Secondary	/ Tertiary adrenal insufficiency		
Causes	 The commonest cause of ACTH deficiency is exogenous glucocorticoid administration. Pituitary/hypothalamic tumors are the most common causes of naturally ACTH hyposecretion. 			
Clinical Features	Clinical Features•The clinical features may be non-specific, Hypoglycemia is occasionally the presenting feature. hyperpigmentation and Electrolytes abnormalities are absent.			
	Conge	enital Adrenal Hyperplasia		
Clinical Features	 90–95% of CAH cases are caused by deficiency of 21-hydroxylase enzyme. Ambiguous genitalia (Female) Failure to thrive Dehydration & Shock (usually male) Salt-loss presentations with electrolytes imbalance: Alter Salt-loss presentations with electrolytes imbalance: Hyponatremia Hyperkalemia Hypoglycemia Hyperpigmentation 		esentations with electrolytes ponatremia perkalemia poglycemia entation	
Diagnosis	Diagnosis Clinical: History and examination (B.P) Biochemical: Low Na & high K, fasting hypoglycemia, elevated serum urea, elevated plasma Renin & ACTH levels, low Cortisol, High 17 – OHP, High androgens especially testosterone level, Low Aldosterone (in salt losing types only). 			
Treatment	Hydrocortisone, Fludrocortisone, During adrenal crisis (intravenous hydrocortisone), IVF D5 0.9% saline, In vomiting or diarrhea (parental therapy is indicated), Medical Alert: bracelet.			

Hypercortisolism (Cushing Syndrome)

	Clinical	Biochemical	Anatomical		
Approach	 Rounded "moon" facies with a plethoric appearance, truncal obesity with prominent supraclavicular and dorsal cervical fat pads "buffalo hump", distal extremities and fingers are slender, muscle wasting and weakness, the skin is thin and atrophic, with poor wound healing and easy bruising, purple striae may appear on the abdomen, hypertension, renal calculi and osteoporosis. Hyperpigmentation is common in the ectopic ACTH. 	 High cortisol High ACTH (ACTH dependent) and low if (non-ACTH dependent). 24hrs for UFC 1MG DST Midnight salivary cortisol 	If ACTH: • high: MRI pituitary • low: history then CT adrenals Small tumors may be difficult to detect and selective venous sampling may be needed. In some cases, more detailed isotope scanning and arteriography or venography may be needed.		
Treatment	 Adrenal tumors: adenomas are successfully treated by adrenalectomy, when adrenal cancer cannot be fully resected or there is metastatic disease that can't be identified, give mitotane. Ectopic ACTH syndrome: therapy is directed at removal of the tumour. Cushing's disease: Trans-sphenoidal surgery with selective removal of the adenoma is the treatment of choice. 				
	Conn's Syndrome				
Causes	• Primary hyperaldosteronism: Adenoma, usually unilateral, of the glomerulosa cells of the adrenal cortex, rarely adrenal carcinoma, Bilateral adrenal hyperplasia; idiopathic AH, Indeterminate hyperaldosteronism, Dexamethasone suppressible hyperaldosteronism.				
Clinical and Lab. findings	• Secondary HTN, High Na, high Cl, high Aldosterone, Alkalosis and low K (episodic weakness, Paresthesias, transient paralysis, tetany, nephropathy with polyuria and polydipsia)				
Biochemical Investigation	Screening test: Confirmatory test: • aldosterone/renin ratio Saline infusion test • If high: do confirmatory test Oral salt loading test • If low: look for secondary causes Fludrocortisone suppression test		test ng test ne suppression test		
Treatment	Adenoma \rightarrow Surgical resectionAdrenal hyperp		lasia \rightarrow Spironolactone		
	Pheoch	romocytoma			
Clinical Features	50% are silent. (NO symptoms), Isolated or part of MEN type II A or MEN type II B, Episodic (spells): sweating, palpitation, headache, Typical symptoms are (Secondary HTN, Young age < 40, 3 anti-HTN medications, Resistant HTN and Accelerated HTN.				
Investigation	 Biochemical: The best initial test is the level of free metanephrines in plasma, 24 hr urine collection of Metanephrines(2X) (Confirmatory Test). Anatomical: CT scan = MRI MIBG if: Paraganglioma, Young, Large size, malignant features Genetic Tests 				
Management	 before the surgery we need to: Control HTN: α-blocker2 then B-Blocker, Ca-blockers: can be used Salt loading: Oral NaCl for 3 days Or IVF 0.9% saline 1-2 days before surgery Surgical removal: Surgical tumor resection with early ligation of venous drainage is the treatment of choice. 				
L49- Parathyroid disorders

	Hyperparathyroidism
General info	 Excessive production of PTH A single adenoma occurs in about 80% of patients with primary hyperparathyroidism. Four glands hyperplasia account for 15-20% of cases.
Clinical features	 Classic presentation: Stones, Bones, Abdominal groans and Psychic moans The most common presentation: Asymptomatic hypercalcemia Osteitis fibrosa cystica (In advanced disease) is a cystic bone spaces filled with brown fibrous tissue (" brown tumor" consisting of osteoclasts and deposited hemosiderin from hemorrhages; causes bone pain).
DDX of hypercalcem ia	Parathyroid-related Vitamin D-related Malignancy-related • Primary hyperparathyroidin: • Solitary adenomas • Interseated Prime: comments • Multiple endocrine neoplasia • Vitamin D intoxication • Interseated Prime: comments • Extensional dominant • Vitamin D intoxication • Interseated Prime: comments • Automational dominant • Vitamin D intoxication • Interseated Prime: comments • Primary hyperparathyroidin: • Vitamin D intoxication • Interseated Prime: comments • Automational dominant • Vitamin D intoxication • Interseated Prime: comments • Automational dominant • Vitamin D intoxication • Interseated Prime: comments • Multiple endocrine • Interseated Prime: comments • Interseated Prime: comments • Multiple endocrine • Interseated Prime: comments • Interseated Prime: comments • Multiple endocrine • Interseated Prime: comments • Interseated Prime: comments • Multiple endocrine • Interseated Prime: comments • Interseated Prime: comments • Multiple endocrine • Interseated Prime: comments • Interseated Prime: comments • Multiple endocrine • Interseated Prime: comments • Interseated Prime: comments • Multiple
Diagnosis	 Lab: ↑ Calcium, ↓ Phosphorus, ↑ PTH; when this combination is present in an asymptomatic patient then further investigation is usually unnecessary. 24-hour urinary calcium or single calcium creatinine ratio should be measured in a young patient with modest elevation in calcium and PTH to exclude familial hypocalciuric hypercalcaemia Plain X-ray of hands can be diagnostic showing subperiosteal bone resorption usually on the radial surface of the distal phalanx with distal phalangeal tufting as well as cysts formation and generalized osteopenia Preoperative localization of the abnormal parathyroid gland(s): Thallium 201 – Tehcnichum99m scan (subtraction study) and sestamibi scan (85-95% sensitivity)
Treatment	 If patient is symptomatic (lithiasis, osteoporosis, pancreatitis) surgery (Parathyroidectomy) is indicated. During surgery the surgeon identifies all four parathyroid glands (using biopsy if necessary) followed by: The removal of the enlarged parathyroid, not all the 4 glands (In case of adenoma) Or 3 1/2 glands in case of multiple glandular hyperplasia. (You can easily live with half a parathyroid gland) Medical treatment: cinacalcet (Calcimimetic agent) can be used if patient has high surgical risk e.g. elderly and dialysis patients
	Secondary hyperparathyroidism
Physiol	ogical compensatory hypertrophy of all parathyroids because of chronic hypocalcaemia.

• Causes: chronic kidney disease (Most common),

Tertiary hyperparathyroidism

• The development of apparently autonomous parathyroid hyperplasia after long-standing secondary hyperparathyroidism, most often in renal failure.

L49- Parathyroid disorders (cont.)

	Hypoparathyroidism
General info	• Deficient secretion of PTH which manifests itself biochemically by hypocalcaemia, hyperphosphatemia diminished or absent circulating iPTH and clinically the symptoms of neuromuscular hyperactivity.
Causes	 The most common causes are autoimmune or post-surgery (Thyroidectomy) Other causes: Chronic hypomagnesaemia "Polyglandular autoimmune syndrome Type 1 (AKA "Hypoparathyroidism – Addison's disease – mucocutaneous candidiasis (HAM) syndrome")": In children (2-4y/o) and In this sequence (moniliasis "mucocutaneous candidiasis" → hypoparathyroidism → hypoadrenalism)
Clinical features	 The rate of decrease in serum calcium is the major determinant for the development of neuromuscular complications. Paresthesia and numbness around mouth, hands and feet and laryngeal stridor Tetany (if severe acute hypocalcemia, usually post-surgical) Hyperventilation and carpopedal spasm Prolonged QT interval in the ECG Posterio-lenticular cataract in long standing hypocalcemia due to deposition of calcium phosphate. Signs of latent tetany : Chevostek sign: Contraction of facial muscles on tapping on zygomatic arch Trousseau sign: Carpopedal spasm when inflating sphygmomanometer 20 mmHg above systolic BP Extrapyramidal signs (due to basal ganglia calcification): Parkinsonism usually occur in old individuals, if a young pt presented with Parkinsonism suspect hypocalcemia
Diagnosis	 In the absence of renal failure the presence of hypocalcaemia with hyperphosphatemia is virtually diagnostic of hypoparathyroidism. Undetectable serum iPTH confirms the diagnosis or it can be detectable if the assay is very sensitive.
Treatment	 Acute and severe with tetany (emergency): Give 10 cc of 10% calcium gluconate parenterally slowly and under ECG monitoring (careful in patients on digoxin) Chronic hypocalcemia: The mainstay of treatment is a combination of oral calcium (1-2gm daily) with pharmacological doses of vitamin D (Calcitriol or alfacalcidol) or its potent analogues. Phosphate restriction in diet may also be useful with or without aluminum hydroxide gel to lower serum phosphate level. always give active vitamin D because low PTH leads to decreased conversion of vitamin D to its active form at the kidney level.
	Osteoporosis
 A common women wo overlook Exam ma and/or d Diagnos normal. Lifestyle smoking 	on metabolic bone disease characterized by low bone mass. It most often affects thin postmenopausal with risk doubling after 65 years of age. Men are also at risk for osteoporosis, but the diagnosis is often sed. Commonly asymptomatic until fractures occur. ay reveal hip fractures, vertebral compression fractures (loss of height and progressive thoracic kyphosis), istal radius fractures (Colles fracture) following minimal trauma tic test: DEXA (Osteoporosis: Bone mineral density (T-score) is 2.5 standard deviations (SDs) less than Osteopenia: T-score between 1 and 2.5 SDs below normal.) e modifications: Adequate calcium and vitamin D intake (supplementation can be used for prevention), cessation, avoiding heavy alcohol use, and weight-bearing exercises.

 Best initial treatment: Bisphosphonates (eg, alendronate, risedronate, ibandronate, zoledronic acid) are used in the treatment of osteoporosis, not osteopenia.

Lipoproteins

- **Particles that transport** transport the digestion products of dietary fat to the liver and peripheral tissues.
- Types:

	Chylomicrons	VLDL	IDL	LDL	HDL
Source	intestine	Liver	VLDL remnant	VLDL & IDL	intestine, liver
Atherogenicity	Not atherogenic (doesn't cause MI) but causes <mark>pancreatitis</mark>	+	+	+++	Anti-atherogenic

- HDL cholesterol is able to go and remove cholesterol from the atheroma.
- Which one has the most atherogenic effect? Small dense LDL.
- Pathways:

Pathway	Lipoprotein	Function	Enzyme
Exogenous (post-prandial)	Chylomicrons	Transport fats from the intestine to the liver	Intestinal lipoprotein lipase
Endogenous	$VLDL \rightarrow IDL$	VLDL released to blood stream to form IDL	Endothelial lipoprotein lipase
Endogenous	$IDL \to LDL$	Hepatic lipase breakdown IDL to form LDL \rightarrow LDL carries fat & cholesterol to the cells	Hepatic lipase
Reverse cholesterol transport	HDL	Nascent HDL* carry fat and cholesterol from blood vessels (Periphery) to the liver.	

* if you want to inject HDL, you inject nascent HDL because it is empty of cholesterol.

Hereditary causes of hyperlipidemia

- Familial (Primary) hyper<u>cholesterolemia</u>:
 - Dominant mutation in LDL receptor, resulting in elevated levels of LDL at birth and throughout life.
 - Heterozygous → Premature CAD (ages 30-50), high risk for atherosclerosis, tendon xanthomas, tuberous xanthomas, xanthelasmas of eyes and arcus senilis (In younger ppl, it's called arcus juvenilis).
 - **Homozygous** \rightarrow **CAD** (before age 18), total absences of LDL receptors.

Familial Combined Hyperlipidemia:

- Autosomal dominant.
- **Raised cholesterol AND triglyceride** concentrations in association with a typical family history.
- Increased secretions of VLDLs
- **Fibrates** are the treatment of choice since these reduce both cholesterol and triglyceride concentrations.

Dysbetalipoproteinemia:

- Recessive.
- Binding-defective form of apoE (which usually plays important role in metabolism of chylomicron and VLDL → High VLDL and chylomicrons).

Primary hyper<u>triglyceridemia</u>

- LPL deficiency \rightarrow hepatosplenomegaly, abd. cramps and pancreatitis at young age.
- Apo C-II deficiency \rightarrow abd. cramps and pancreatitis.
- **Familial hypertriglyceridemia** → unknown enhanced hepatic TG-production, abd. cramps, pancreatitis and retinal vein thrombosis.

Secondary Hyperlipidemia

- Secondary hypercholesterolemia ([^]LDL)
 - Hypothyroidism
 - Anorexia nervosa
 - Pregnancy
 - Biliary obstruction PBC

When to check lipid panel?

Different Recommendations:

- Adult Treatment Panel (ATP III) → Beginning at age 20, every 5 years.
- US preventive services task force \rightarrow
 - Women ≥ 45 years, Men ≥ 35 → Total and HDL cholesterol every 5 years.
 - \circ If total cholesterol > 200 or HDL<40 \rightarrow a fasting panel should be obtained.
 - Cholesterol screening \rightarrow Begin at 20 years in patients with a Hx of \rightarrow Multiple cardiovascular risk factors, DM, Family Hx of (Elevated cholesterol levels & Premature cardiovascular disease).

Treatment

Goal of treatment:

- Non-LDL \rightarrow To prevent coronary heart disease outcomes (MI & coronary death).
- **Triglyceride** \rightarrow To prevent **pancreatitis** and <u>may be</u> CHD outcomes.

Non-medical treatment:

• Lifestyle modification, Low-cholesterol diet, Exercise, Alcohol and Smoking cessation.

Medication:

- Statins \rightarrow
 - HMG CoA reductase inhibitors.
 - Low intensity \rightarrow lowers LDL by <30%, Medium intensity \rightarrow lowers LDL by 30 50%, high intensity \rightarrow lowers LDL by >50%.

Stepwise approach:

- 1. Life style modification.
- Does this patient have established coronary artery disease? (Had MI...)
 ✓ If yes? High intensity statin! except if pt is old >75.
- 3. Is his LDL more than 190?
 - ✓ If yes? High intensity statin! No need for further questions
- 4. Has DM? More than 40 years?
 - ✓ If yes? High intensity statin!
- 5. Anything other than that (2,3,4), we apply the 10 year risk assessment (done by websites & applications):
 - $\circ \qquad \text{If its less than 5\%} \rightarrow \text{No need for meds}$
 - $\circ \qquad \textbf{Between 5\%-7.5\%} \rightarrow \textbf{needs moderate intensity statin.}$
 - **More than 7.5%** > needs High intensity statin.
- Best to prevent CAD/MI : Statins (reduce LDL).
- Best to prevent Pancreatitis: Fibrate (reduce TGs)

Hypertriglyceridemia treatment

- $TG = \langle 2 \rightarrow No risk for anything, no treatment, lifestyle modification$
- **TG = ≥2 to <5:** Use **statins** + omega-3 for CVS protection.
- **TG = ≥5 to <10: fibrate** to prevent pancreatitis,

Secondary hypertriglyceridemia ([↑] VLDL)

- Diabetes mellitus
- Obesity
- Uremia, dialysis
- Alcohol $\rightarrow \uparrow\uparrow$ Chylomicrons

Hypothyroidism

Causes

Primary	Secondary	Tertiary	Other
 Hashimoto's thyroiditis (most common) RAI therapy 3- Subtotal thyroidectomy Excessive iodine intake 5- Subacute thyroiditis Iodide deficiency 7- Congenital Drugs: (lithium, amiodarone, antithyroid drugs) 	 pituitary adenoma pituitary ablative therapy pituitary destruction 	Hypothalamic dysfunction	Peripheral resistance to thyroid hormones

•CVS:

clinical presentation

n fosturos .(

•Common realures.
-Easy fatigability, coldness , weight
gain, constipation
- Cool dry skin , puffy face, hoarse
husky voice,

-Muscle cramps, paresthesia, muscle

- Chronic constipation, ileus

•Renal: -Impaired GFR, water intoxication

- lethargy, depression, agitation

-Decreased concentration

- Bradycardia, Decreased output

- low voltage ECG, cardiomegaly,

pericardial effusion

•CNS:

•Pulmonary:

- Shallow slow respiration
- Respiratory failure

•Anemia:

- -Impaired HB synthesis
- Iron/ folate deficiency
- -Pernicious anemia

•Reproduction:

-Anovulatory cycles -Menorrhagia

Diagnosis

•Neuromuscular:

weakness, carpal tunnel

•GI tract:

- •Serum TSH (initial test), high levels with clinical features confirms primary hypothyroidism
- Free T4 (confirms hypothyroid state)
- in Hypothyroidism (high TSH, Low free T4)
- Anti thyroid peroxidase (TPO) antibodies
- Treatment
 - Thyroid replacement (Levothyroxine T4)
 - •follow up for serum free T4 and TSH

Complications

- 1- myxedema coma
 - 2- myxedema and heart disease 3- hypothyroidism and neuropsychiatric disease

Treatment of myxedema coma

-Acute medical emergency

-Three main issues: 1- Co2 retention and hypoxia 2- Fluid and electrolyte imbalance 3- Hypothermia -if myxedema with heart disease, start treatment slowly then gradually increase it

Recommendations for the treatment of myxedema coma				
hypothyroidism	loading dose of Levothyroxine then daily maintenance	hypocortisolemia	intravenous hydrocortisone daily	
hyponatremia	mild fluid restriction	hypothermia	blankets and not active warming	
hypoventilation	intubation and mechanical ventilation	hypoglycemia	glucose administration	
hypotension	cautious volume expansion with crystalloid or whole blood	Precipitating event	identification and elimination by specific treatment (eg: Antibiotics)	



Hyperthyroidism and Thyrotoxicosis

Causes of thyrotoxicosis

1-Diffuse toxic goiter (graves' disease) 2- Toxic adenoma (plummer disease) 3- subacute thyroiditis 4- Hyperthyroid phase of Hashimoto's 5- Thyrotoxicosis factitia 6- others (Struma ovarii, TSH secreting pituitary adenoma, pituitary resistant to T3 and T4, metastatic thyroid carcinoma)

Clinical features

•Cardiorespitatory: -Dyspnea, Tachycardia -Atrial fibrillation, high output cardiac failure

- •Skin:

- Warm with excessive sweating
- pretibial myxedema -pruritus, alopecia, thinning of the hair
- Diarrhoea
 - weight loss

•GI tract:

•others:

- extraocular muscles dysfunction -Osteoporosis with diplopia lid retraction, proptosis -Irritability, anxiety, restlessness -Periorbital swelling and conjunctival and psychosis

edema

•Eves:

Graves' disease (most common cause of Thyrotoxicosis)

-Autoimmune disease of unknown cause, affecting females more

-Most common features:

•Thyrotoxicosis •Goiter •Orbitopathy (Exophthalmos) •Dermopathy (pretibial myxedema) specific to Graves

(Graves disease)

Diagnosis of Thyrotoxicosis

•Serum TSH, T4, T3 (initial test) shows: (Low TSH and High FT4)

•Thyroid stimulating Immunoglobulins (specific for and confirms Graves)

- •Scintigraphy (RAI scan):
- Graves: Hot (diffuse increase uptake)
- -Thyroiditis: Cold (reduced uptake)

Treatment

1- Antithyroid drug therapy (propylthiouracil, carbimazole) should be started along with Beta blockers before iodine therapy or surgery to prevent thyroid storm

2- Radioactive lodine therapy (¹³¹ lodine is the most commonly used) 3-Surgical Thyroidectomy (subtotal thyroidectomy)

when there is large goiter or failure of the previous two modalities

Complications

1- Thyroid storm (precipitated by stress, infection or surgery) Treatment: •Antithyroid drugs •Steroids •Beta blockers and fluids •Ipodate sodium

3- in pregnancy

Treatment: - First trimester: Propylthiouracil -Second and third trimesters: Carbimazole

- always keep T4 levels at the upper normal range



Do scintigraphy

2- Orbitopathy Treatment: • Steroids



52- Obesity

Definition	Abnormal or excessive fat accumulation in ad	ipose tissue, to the extent that health is impaired.
Surrogate measures of adiposity	 BMI: Obese = BMI ≥ 30kg/m². Relatively reliable except in: Extremes of age or height & Very fit individual Waist circumference (measure of visceral of The easiest way to assess obesity is by measure the lower border of the ribs and the upper boostic of the ribs and the upper boosti	s with muscular build besity): ring the narrowest circumference midway between rder of the iliac crest. s measures & Weight, in children: Growth Charts
Central Obesity	Central or visceral obesity is associated with r - DM2 - Hype Measured by: - Waist circumference - Waist:hip rati Waist:hip ratio of >1.0 in men and >0.9 in wor	nore metabolic disease and complications: rtension - Dyslipidemia o - MRI - Single CT Slice(L4/L5) - DEXA nen is associated with ↑ risk of morbidity & mortality
Regulation of Appetite	Orexigenic factors (↑ Appetite): - Ghrelin: Increase with hunger decrease with eating, Secreted primarily by the stomach and duodenum, and acts on hypothalamus to stimulate appetite	Anorexigenic factors (↓ Appetite): - GLP-1 - Insulin - Leptin: Leptin from adipocytes acts on hypothalamus to decrease food intake and stimulate energy expenditure
Etiology & Pa - Multifactoria - Biochemical/I - Imbalance bet Calories consu	thogenesis: l Dietary/behavioral/ Psychosocial/Genetic. tween energy intake and energy expenditure: Imed > calories used	Factors predisposing to obesity: - Sedentary lifestyle - Diet (Overeating) - Cessation of smoking - Sleep deprivation
Complicatio ns of Obesity	 Metabolic: Cardiovascular (↑ BP, LDL & TGs ↓HDL, Impaired glucose tolerance & DM, Metabolic syndrome): AACE recommends weight loss of 5% to 10% to reduce CVD risk DM2: Greater risk of developing T2D with higher BMI Others: NAFLD, Cancers (esophagus, colon, rectum, liver, gallbladder, pancreas) Infertility, Gout, Thrombosis & Gallstones. 	 Mechanical: Lung function: Reduced lung volume and vital capacity due to ↓ chest wall compliance. GERD & its complications: Barrett's esophagus, Erosive esophagitis and Adenocarcinoma. Obstructive sleep apnea: Weight gain increases severity of obstructive sleep apnoea Impaired physical function Mental: Anxiety, Depression, Suicidality & ↓ self esteem
	obesity and mortanty.	



L53- CNS infections

Definition Inflammation of the (meninges) pia mater and the arachnoid mater (dura mater is usually spared), with suppuration of the cerebrospinal fluid Classic triad: fever, neck stiffness and confusion. Severe Headache, Photophobia (intolerance of light) and Phonophobia (intolerance to loud noises) can be specific to bacterial meningits. Bulging fontanel in infants, sometimes with hydrocephalus Signs and Symptoms Kernig's sign Multe patient is lying supine, with the hip and knee flexed to 90 degrees pain limits passive extension of the knee. While patient sign Flexion of the neck causes involuntary flexion of the knee and hip. Brudzinski sign What's the most useful sign? State stet most useful sign? Alta's the most useful sign? Sensitivity of 100%, specificity of 54% (Low, unlike kernig and Brudzinski signs); Step 1: Give empirical therapy!! Whenever you suspect meningitis or encephalltis, start empirical therapy! (Whenever you suspect meningitis or encephalltis, start empirical therapy! (Whenever you suspect meningitis or encephalltis, start empirical therapy! (In real life the pt will be started on empirical therapy in the 	Definition Inflammation of the (meninges) pia mater and the arachnoid mater (dura mater is usually spared), with suppuration of the cerebrospinal fluid Classic triad: fever, neck stiffness and confusion. Severe Headache, Photophobia (intolerance of light) and Phonophobia (intolerance to loud noises) can be specific to bacterial meningits. Bulging fontanel in infants, sometimes with hydrocephalus Kernig's sign While patient is lying supine, with the hip and knee flexed to 90 degrees pain limits passive extension of the knee. While patient is lying supine, with the hip and knee flexed to 90 degrees pain limits passive extension of the knee. The Kemig sign The Kemig sign Sold accentuation maneuver: ask patient to rapidly rotate his or her head horizontally: Headache worsens, In healthy individuals it might be uncomfortable but
 A Classic triad: fever, neck stiffness and confusion. Severe Headache, Photophobia (intolerance of light) and Phonophobia (intolerance to loud noises) can be specific to bacterial meningits. Bulging fontanel in infants, sometimes with hydrocephalus Kernig's sign Brudzinski's neck sign Uhile patient is lying supine, with the hip and knee flexed to 90 degrees pain limits passive extension of the knee. While patient is lying supine, with the hip and knee flexed to 90 degrees pain limits passive extension of the knee. The Kernig sign The Kern	 e. Classic triad: fever, neck stiffness and confusion. Severe Headache, Photophobia (intolerance of light) and Phonophobia (intolerance to loud noises) can be specific to bacterial meningits. Bulging fontanel in infants, sometimes with hydrocephalus Kernig's sign While patient is lying supine, with the hip and knee flexed to 90 degrees pain limits passive extension of the knee. Wine Kernig sign The Kernig sign Flexion of the neck causes involuntary flexion of the knee and hip. Budzinski sign Statistic sign
Signs and Symptoms While patient is lying supine, with the hip and knee flexed to 90 degrees pain limits passive extension of the knee. Flexion of the neck causes involuntary flexion of the knee and hip. The Kernig sign Flexion of the neck causes involuntary flexion of the knee and hip. What's the most useful sign? Fundzinski sign Ubstation to the most useful sign? Fundzinski sign Sensitivity of 100%, specificity of 54% (Low, unlike kernig and Brudzinski signs), How to manage a patient with meningitis? Step 1: Give empirical therapy! Whenever you suspect meningitis or encephalitis, start empirical therapy! (In real life the pt will be started on empirical therapy in the	Signs and Symptoms While patient is lying supine, with the hip and knee flexed to 90 degrees pain limits passive extension of the knee. Flexion of the neck causes involuntary flexion of the knee and hip. The Kernig sign Flexion of the neck causes involuntary flexion of the knee and hip. While patient is lying supine, with the hip and knee flexed to 90 degrees pain limits passive extension of the knee. Flexion of the neck causes involuntary flexion of the knee and hip. What's the most useful sign? Mhat's the most useful sign? • 1 Jolt accentuation maneuver: ask patient to rapidly rotate his or her head horizontally: Headache worsens, In healthy individuals it might be uncomfortable but
Image: Step 1: Give empirical therapy!! Whenever you suspect meningitis or encephalitis, start empirical therapy! (In real life the pt will be started on empirical therapy in the	The Kernig sign Brudzinski sign What's the most useful sign? Brudzinski sign Jolt accentuation maneuver: ask patient to rapidly rotate his or her head horizontally: Headache worsens, In healthy individuals it might be uncomfortable but
 How to manage a patient with meningitis? Step 1: Give empirical therapy!! Whenever you suspect meningitis or encephalitis, start empirical therapy! (In real life the pt will be started on empirical therapy in the 	 a pt with meningitis will avoid doing it. Sensitivity of 100%, specificity of 54% (Low, unlike kernig and Brudzinski signs),
 ER, before you see him) Step 2: CT (To exclude herniation, supratentorial tumor, bleeding, pus collection (Subdural empyema) before doing LP bc it may kill the pt). NEVER do LP before CT. Step 3: LP. Contraindications to LP: Herniation, Infection at the site of LP (e.g. Cellulitis), bleeding disorders, Low platelet count <100, anticoagulants . If one of these contraindication is present you can delay LP but NEVER delay the treatment What antibiotics should be given? Ceftriaxone + Vancomycin (to cover highly penicillin resistant pneumococcus) Add ampicillin if there's suspicion of listeria Note: Dexamethasone should be given concomitant with 1st dose Abx to block TNF production 	 How to manage a patient with meningitis? Step 1: Give empirical therapy!! Whenever you suspect meningitis or encephalitis, start empirical therapy! (In real life the pt will be started on empirical therapy in the ER, before you see him) Step 2: CT (To exclude herniation, supratentorial tumor, bleeding, pus collection (Subdural empyema) before doing LP bc it may kill the pt). NEVER do LP before CT. Step 3: LP. Contraindications to LP: Herniation, Infection at the site of LP (e.g. Cellulitis), bleeding disorders, Low platelet count <100, anticoagulants. If one of these contraindication is present you can delay LP but NEVER delay the treatment What antibiotics should be given? Ceftriaxone + Vancomycin (to cover highly penicillin resistant pneumococcus) Add ampicillin if there's suspicion of listeria Note: Dexamethasone should be given concomitant with 1st dose Abx to block TNF production

EXTRA	Typical CSF changes in viral, pyogenic and TB meningitis			
	Normal	Viral	Bacterial	Tuberculosis
Appearance	Crystal clear	Clear/turbid	Turbid/purulent	Turbid/viscous
Mononuclear cells	<5/mm ³	10-100/mm ³	<50/mm ³	100-300/mm ³
Polymorph cells	Nil	Nil	200-300/mm ³	0-200/mm ³
Protein	0.2-0.4 g/L	0.4-0.8 g/L	0.5-2.0 g/L	0.5-3.0 g/L
Glucose	⅔ - ½ blood glucose	> ½ blood glucose	< 1⁄2 blood glucose	< 1⁄2 blood glucose

L53- CNS infections (cont.)

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	Special cases of bacterial meningitis
Meningococcal meningitis (Emergency)	 Fulminate meningococcemia with purpura caused by Neisseria meningitidis Overwhelming sepsis, DIC Classic: Meningitis with rash (Petechiae) + Headache + Fever Lumbar puncture should not be performed if meningococcal sepsis is suspected because coning of the cerebellar tonsils may follow – the organism is confirmed by blood culture.
emergency requiring treatment immediately. Dinical features: Petechial or nonspecific blotchy red rash Fever, headache, neck stiffness. All these features may not be present – and meningococcal infection. Immediate treatment for suspected meningococcal meningitis at first contact before transfer to hospital or nivestigation: Berzybenicillin 1200 mg (adult dose) slow i.v. injection or intramuscularly Alternative if pencillin allergy – cefotaxime 1 g i.v. In meningitis, minutes count: delay is unacceptable. On arrival in hospital: Nutrin testis including blood cultures immediately Watch out for septicaemic shock.	 Treatment and prophylaxis: Droplet Isolation: 48h post Abx Treatment: Ceftriaxone or Pen G 7 days Eradicate nasopharyngeal carriage:
Listeria Monocytogenes meningitis	 Pathology: It causes brain stem, cerebellum inflammation (Rhombencephalitis) and meningitis Risk groups: Age <1y or >50y Alcoholics Pregnancy: up to 30% Immunocompromised 70 % Routes of transmission: Mainly food borne: survives refrigeration linked to poultry, hotdogs, cold cuts, coleslaw, ice-cream Cheeses, particularly soft cheeses, have been implicated in listeriosis outbreaks worldwide. Inform micro lab: special media (Mueller-Hinton agar) Note: Whenever you see a pt with changing signals in brain stem and cerebellum MRI, think of Listeria. Treatment: Ampicillin 2gm IV Q4h +/- Gentamicin 2mg/kg loading dose then 1.7mg/kg Q8h 21 day duration Penicillin allergy patients: TMP-SMX or Meropenem
Neuro Brucellosis	 Treatment: Doxycycline Plus Rifampin Plus Ceftriaxone 2gm IV q12h

What's the most common organism in neonates?

• Group B Streptococci (occurs ONLY in neonates)

What's the most common organism in older infants and children?

• Streptococcus pneumonia

What's the most common organism in adults?

• Streptococcus pneumonia

What's the most common complication?

• CN palsies (esp. deafness)

L53- CNS infections (cont.)

	Aseptic meningitis
Definition	 Inflammation of meninges with sterile CSF CSF: pleocytosis 100s, Normal Glucose, Protein normal, Neg Culture Note: Pleocytosis is the hallmark of aseptic meningitis, since it's sterile inflammation usually it has neutrophilic pleocytosis (there might be some lymphocytes, but the main cells are neutrophils)
Causes	 Enteroviruses: most common cause 80% HSV-2 (HSV-1 can cause it but it usually causes encephalitis) Partially treated bacteria (Think of it when the pt has taken abx in the past 2-3 days. When you suspect viral meningitis it is important to verify that the patient has not received antibiotics (for whatever cause) prior to the lumbar puncture, as CSF lymphocytosis can also be found in partially treated bacterial meningitis.) Drugs: Metronidazole, TMP-SMX, NSAIDs, carbamazepine (Given to epileptic pts), IVIG-headache is very common (Given to pts with myasthenia gravis and Guillain barre syndrome (GBS))
	Viral encephalitis
General info	 Encephalitis: means acute infection/inflammation of brain parenchyma, and is often seen simultaneously with meningitis, usually viral. Meningoencephalitis: inflammation of brain + meninges In viral encephalitis, fever (90%) and meningism are usual; in contrast to meningitis, however, the clinical picture is dominated by brain parenchyma inflammation. Personality and behavioural change is a common early manifestation, which progresses to a reduced level of consciousness and even coma. Seizures (focal and generalized) are very common and focal neurological deficits, such as speech disturbance, often occur (especially in herpes simplex encephalitis). What's the most common organism? Most common: Herpes simplex (Either type 1 or 2): How to confirm? Perform LP and PCR. MRI is also helpful (The limbic system and the medial temporal are its favourable place) Treat with Acyclovir
	Cerebral abscess
General info	 Bacteria may enter the cerebral substance through penetrating injury, by direct spread from paranasal sinuses or the middle ear, or secondary to sepsis. Untreated congenital heart disease is a recognised risk factor. Initial infection leads to local suppuration followed by loculation of pus within a surrounding wall of gliosis, which in a chronic abscess may form a tough capsule. Organisms: Streptococci (60-70%), Bacteroides (20-40%), Enterobacteriacea (25-33%), S&S: Fever, Headache, Meningism, Drowsiness Seizures, raised intracranial pressure and focal hemisphere signs occur alone or in combination.
Management	 Lumbar puncture is potentially hazardous in the presence of raised intracranial pressure and CT should always precede it. CT with contrast: reveals single or multiple low-density areas, which show ring enhancement with contrast and surrounding cerebral oedema CT brain: If abscess more than 2.5cm then surgical drainage. And if patient neurologically unstable or decrease LOC drain regardless of size Antimicrobials: empirically Ceftriaxone with metronidazole, otherwise according to susceptibility

L54- Epilepsy

Definitions:

- **Epileptic seizure: Transient** occurrence of signs and symptoms of sudden changes in neurological function due to **abnormal excessive** and **synchronous** discharge of cortical neurons
- Epilepsy: recurrent (two or more) unprovoked seizures.
- **Provoked seizures:** occurs in the setting of acute medical and neurological illnesses in people with no prior history of seizures



Seizure approach

- Non Invasive tests:
 - Clinical history
 - MRI and Nuclear medicine
 - Neuropsychological evaluation
 - Video EEG

• Invasive monitoring

L54- Epilepsy (cont.)

Typical EEG Sign	Localizes to	Typical EEG Sign	Localizes to
Oral Automatismes	Temporal lobe	Tonic arm elevation	Supplementary motor area
Hypermotor automatism	Frontal lobe	Epigastric Aura	Temporal lobe
Manual picking automatismes	Temporal lobe	Throat tightening Sensation	Insula
Visual Hallucinations	Occipital lobe	Ictal pain	Parietal lobe
Auditory Hallucinations	Temporal neocortex (Heschl's Gyrus)	Somatosensory sensations	Postcentral gyrus or Supplementary motor area
Olfactory Hallucinations	Mesial temporal lobe	Clonic activity	Precentral gyrus
Nystagmus, eye blinking, eye pulling sensation	Occipital Joho	De-ja-vu or jamais vu aura	Mesial / Medial temporal lobe
Ictal amaurosis	Occipital lobe	Fear	Most often temporal, but also frontal lobe

Medical Treatment (first line):

МОА	 Reducing electrical excitability of cell membranes: by inhibition of sodium channel. Enhancing GABA: By inhibiting GABA-transaminase or direct GABA-agonist properties.
Clinical uses of Antiepileptic drugs	 Tonic-clonic (grand mal) seizures: phenytoin or valproate (drugs of choice) Partial (focal) seizures: carbamazepine (drug of choice) valproate; clonazepam or phenytoin are alternatives. Absence seizures (petit mal): ethosuximide (drug of choice) or valproate Myoclonic seizures: valproate or clonazepam
Basic rules for drug treatment	 Drug treatment should be simple, preferably using one anticonvulsant (monotherapy). "Start low, increase slow" Add-on therapy is necessary in <u>some patients</u> If patient is seizure-free for three years, withdrawal of pharmacotherapy should be considered. Should be performed very carefully and <u>slowly!</u>
Drug resistant epilepsy	 Failure of at least TWO antiepileptic medications to completely control seizures Appropriately chosen for seizure type . Taken as prescribed Well tolerated (not failed due to side effects)

Surgical Treatment (second line):

- Hemispherectomy: one of the two cerebral hemispheres is removed.
- **Hemispherotomy:** disconnects the cortex of a hemisphere from the other cutting the corpus callosum.
- Temporal lobectomy

→ If the patient is not a good candidate for surgery?

- ◆ Vagus nerve stimulation (NS)
- Deep Brain Stimulation (DBS)

L54- Epilepsy (cont.)

Status epilepticus

- **Definition:** recurrent convulsions that last for more than **30 minutes** (5 min in the last update) and are interrupted by only brief periods of partial relief.
- Rhabdomyolysis is a complication of SE that may lead to acute kidney injury
- Treatment:
 - Early status (up to 30 min): lorazepam IV
 - Established status (30–90 min): Phenytoin
 - If ongoing seizures: Phenobarbital, and Valproate
 - Refractory status (>90 min): general anaesthesia

Epilepsy treatment in pregnancy

The **risk of teratogenicity** is well known, especially with **valproates**, but withdrawing drug therapy in pregnancy is more risky than continuation.

• All antiepileptic medications are not safe, however <u>lamotrigine</u> is the <u>safest</u>. .

Seizures vs Syncope:

	Cardiogenic Syncope	Seizure Disorders
Loss of Consciousness	Typical	Common
Aura	-	+
Cyanosis	-	+
Episode Duration	Seconds	Minutes
Involuntary movements	Common	Typical
Amnesia	Yes	Yes
Postictal delirium & headache	-	+
Arrhythmia	Common	Rare
Electroencephalogram	Slow waves Flattening	Focal or General Spike
Responsive to AED	No	Often
Short Term Mortality	High	Low

keep going!



L55- Peripheral neuropathies

	Weakness		Sensory	Severe	UMN	Autonomic	Diagnosis		
	Proximal	Distal	Asymmetric	Symmetric	symptoms	tive loss	signs	signs	Diagnosis
Pattern 1: symmetric proximal and distal weakness with sensory loss	+	+		+	+				GBS, CIDP
Pattern 2: Distal Sensory loss with/ without weakness		+		+	+				CSPN ¹ , metabolic, drugs, hereditary: (CMT, Amyloidosis)
Pattern 3: Distal weakness with sensory loss		÷	+		÷				- Multiple: vasculitis, HNPP ² , MADSAM, infection (leprosy, lyme, sarcoid, HIV) - Single: Mononeuropathy, radiculopathy
Pattern 4: Asymmetric Proximal and distal weakness with sensory loss	÷	+	+		+				Polyradiculopathy, plexopathy
Pattern 5 : Asymmetric distal weakness without sensory loss		+	+				±		- LMN and UMN - ALS - Pure UMN - PLS - Pure LMN - MMN ³ . PMA ⁴ , BAD ⁵ , LAD ⁶ , MAMA ⁷
Pattern 6 : Symmetric sensory loss and upper motor neuron signs		+		+	+	+	+		b ₁₂ deficiency, copper deficiency, friedreich ataxia, adrenomyeloneuropat hy
Pattern 7: Symmetric weakness without sensory loss	±	+		+					- Proximal and distal SMA - Distal Hereditary motor neuropathy
Pattern 8: Focal midline proximal symmetric weakness	+ Neck/extensor + Bulbar			+ +			+ +		ALS
Pattern 9: Asymmetric proprioceptive loss without weakness			+		+	+			Sensory Neuropathy (Ganglionopathy)
Pattern 10: Autonomic dysfunction								+	HSAN ⁹ , Diabetes, GBS, amyloid, poryphyria, Fabry's

L55- Peripheral neuropathies (cont.)

Ulnar nerve mononeuropathy	 system involved: sensory and motor clinical features: numbness of medial hand (fourth and fifth digits). weakness of abduction and adduction, atrophy of intrinsic muscles of the hand, wartenberg and froment signs will be evident there will also be grip weakness finger extensors are not involved (sign of radial nerve)
carpal tunnel syndrome	 system involved: sensory and motor clinical features: wasting of thenar eminences. weak thumb abduction, reduced sensation over thumb, index, middle and ring fingers. the most common focal neuropathy it is usually asymmetrical, however, it can occur bilaterally.
Hereditary neuropathy	 they might deny family history sensory problems may not be present in the history but it can be present in the physical because it's chronic. clinical features: Deformities e.g. high arched foot (Pes cavus), symmetric weakness, distal more than proximal. absent reflexes. decreased proprioception, vibration, heat and pinprick.
Diabetic neuropathy	 history of Diabetes Clinical features: decreased sensation, numbness, and tingling that is progressive for a very long time (e.g 2 years) and pain usually symmetrical. most common Asymmetric neuropathy in Diabetics is Carpal tunnel syndrome most common symmetric is Distal symmetric polyneuropathy.
S1 Radiculopathy	 clinical features: Weakness of hip extension, Weakness of knee flexion, Weakness of ankle plantar flexion, Absent ankle reflex. sensory over lateral and plantar surfaces How to differentiate sciatic from S1? by sensory distribution and the presence of hip extension.
Common peroneal nerve damage	 clinical features: Foot drop (difficulty in dorsiflexion). parasthesia in teh dorsum of the foot. toe dorsiflexion weakness. ankle eversion is also affected. inversion is NORMAL. loss of sensation is well demarcated. over the dorsum extending over the lateral calf.
Guillain barre syndrome	 Paralysis follows 1-3 weeks after an infection signs and symptoms include:

L56- Ischemic stroke

Stroke :

- Ischemic (blockage) → 80-85% of all strokes
- Hemorrhagic (bleeding) \rightarrow 15-20% of strokes

Ischemic stroke :

- Persisting neurologic deficit after 24 hours and/or
- infarct on CT or MRI.

Transient ischemic attacks :

stroke-like symptoms that last for a very short time(<1hr) with complete recovery (most are <5 min) with the **absence of infarct** in neuroimaging study.

Risk factors:

Modifiable :

- Hypertension. (Most important one)
- Diabetes mellitus.
- Hyperlipidemia.

Non- modifiable:

- Age
- Sex young women are at higher risk than men due to pregnancy, hormonal changes.

Subtypes:

• Blood vessels

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- Atheromatous (most common)
 - Non-atheromatous
 - Vasculitis
 - Dissection of blood vessels (common in young patient "50 and less").
- Heart
 - Cardio Embolic
 - Atrial fibrillation
- Blood
 - Haemoglobinopathies
 - Sickle cell disease
 - Coagulopathy
 - Thrombophilia

Clinical presentation :

Middle cerebral artery occlusion:

- Hemiparesis: Arm + face (UE) more than leg weakness (LE)
- Hemisensory loss
- Higher cerebral dysfunction:
 - Aphasia if affecting the **dominant (left)** hemisphere.
 - Broca's (expressive, anterior) aphasia: Damage in the left inferior frontal lobe causes reduced speech fluency with relatively preserved comprehension
 - Wernicke's (receptive, posterior) aphasia: Left temporo-parietal damage leaves fluency of language but words are muddled. This varies from insertion of a few incorrect or non-existent words
 - Nominal (anomic, amnestic) aphasia: difficulty naming familiar objects
 - Global (central) aphasia: combination of the expressive problems of Broca's aphasia and the loss of comprehension of Wernicke's with loss of both language production and understanding. Writing and reading are also affected.
 - Neglect if affecting the **non-dominant** hemisphere.
- homonymous hemianopia

Anterior Cerebral Artery (ACA) occlusion :

- Symptoms :
- Weakness LE more than UE
- Emotional disturbance.

Internal carotid occlusion:

Symptoms : above and ophthalmic

Posterior cerebral artery :

Symptoms:

- Vision visual field (homonymous hemianopia)
- memory

Vertebrobasilar

Symptoms

- Cranial nerve syndrome with crossed motor
- cerebellum (cerebellar syndrome)
- altered LOC.
- homonymous hemianopia

Midbrain

Symptoms:

- CN III: signs of complete CN III palsy:
 - dilated pupil
 - Unilateral complete ptosis (levator weakness)
 - Eye deviated **down and out** (unopposed lateral rectus and superior oblique
 - Weber's syndrome: Ipsilateral IIIrd nerve palsy with contralateral hemiplegia

Pons

Symptoms: CN V \rightarrow Sensory:

- CN VI \rightarrow lateral rectus palsy
- CN VII \rightarrow facial weakness.

Medulla

Symptoms: CN VIII \rightarrow vertigo, hearing loss.

- CN IX, $X \rightarrow dysphagia$.
- CN XII \rightarrow tongue weakness.

Small penetrating arteries (Lacunar syndrome)

Symptoms:

arms and face will be affected to the same degree.

no higher cerebral dysfunction or hemianopia

Pathophysiology:

- **Core:** area of <u>irreversible</u> damage.
- Penumbra: tissue at risk (ischemic but still viable cerebral tissue)
- Reduced blood blow (20-30cc) → tissue is still viable but stops functioning (penumbra) → needs to be saved ASAP
- A drop to 10 cc in blood flow \rightarrow severe ischemia

History taking in Ischemic stroke :

- Onset (Last time seen normal)
 - Symptoms: FAST
 - Headache
 - $\circ \qquad {\sf Neck \ pain/trauma \ in \ case \ of \ dissection}$
 - Past Medical history
 - Oral contraceptives
 - Antithrombotics

L56- Ischemic stroke (cont.)

Physical examination in ischemic stroke : :

- keep it neurological (focused) and quick, use **National Institution of Health Stroke Scale (NIHSS)**
- ABC (sometimes they add D for dextrose)
- BP Will be high (in both ischemic and hemorrhagic strokes)
- CN involvement and crossed motor typical presentation of brainstem strokes (ipsilateral CN involvement & contralateral weakness)
- Tone : decreased on side of weakness early on, later on increased
- Reflexes: hyperreflexia on side of weakness, with upgoing toe.

Investigations of ischemic stroke :

- Coagulation profile
- Chemistry : Fasting glucose
- Imaging
 - ^{a.} CT scan¹ non-contrast CT is the only way to differentiate between ischemic and hemorrhagic strokes
 - b. MRI:
 - MRI is better overall, if immediately available
 - MRI is used when there is diagnostic uncertainty or delayed presentation, and when more
- Vascular imaging
 - a. Carotid U/S the least invasive
 - b. CTA: invasive
- Cardiac workup : ECG to detect Afib

Management of ischemic stroke :

- Acute stroke management code stroke
 - a. ABC

c.

- b. Reperfusion
 - Intravenous thrombolysis (IV t-PA): Effective up to <u>4.5 hours</u> from onset.
 - Exclusion criteria: Intracerebral hemorrhage, stroke in the past 3 months., major surgery 14d, Pregnancy, active bleeding or acute trauma
 - aspirin (300 mg daily) should be started immediately after an ischaemic stroke if the patient is not a candidate for thrombolysis. If the patient has already received tPA, withhold aspirin for at least 24 hours.
 - In case of atrial fibrillation \rightarrow add warfarin.
 - In case of significant carotid stenosis \rightarrow surgery
 - In case of vasculitis \rightarrow steroids
 - Intra-arterial thrombolytic & Mechanical thrombectomy
 - Only in case of blockage in large vessels e.g. MCA, ACA, Internal carotid or basillar
 you could do for up to 6 hours.
 - Internal carotid endarterectomy: recommended in TIA or stroke patients with internal carotid artery stenosis >70%.
 - Prevent progression and complications:
 - BP and glycemic control
 - do not lower blood pressure abruptly in first week as it may reduce cerebral perfusion
 - Control BP before thrombolysis bc of the risk of bleeding
 - NPO, avoid aspiration.
 - Dx and Rx temp
 - PT, OT and early rehab.
 - DVT prophylaxis



- Nutrition: If dysphagia persists for >48 hrs, start feeding via nasogastric
- Temperature: Control with antipyretics, as raised brain temperature may increase infarct volume

Long term stroke management:

- a. Long term management of Risk factors (secondary prevention)
 - HTN: Transient hypertension, often seen in the first 24-48 hours following stroke, usually does not require treatment provided (let BP autoregulate) given diastolic pressure does not rise >100 mmHg, because high BP helps the cerebral circulation. unless
 - Patient is candidate for thrombolysis
 - patient has other risk factors that necessitate BP control
 - DM,Lipid , Smoking , A-fib, and Exercise
- b. Anti-platelet: for atherosclerosis Long-term soluble aspirin (75 mg daily) Anticoagulant
 - Heparin and warfarin should be given when there is:
 - atrial fibrillation
 - Hypercoagulability
 - Anticoagulants are potentially dangerous in the two weeks following infarction
- c. Rehabilitation

Transient ischemic attack :

- The term TIA traditionally also includes patients with **amaurosis fugax :** sudden transient loss of vision in one eye. the first clinical evidence of internal carotid artery stenosis and forerunner of a hemiparesis.
- Duration: most TIA's last 5-20 mins
- Features depend on: anterior circulation carotid system posterior vertebrobasilar circulation. system
- Prognosis: up to ¹/₃ will have a stroke (usually within 48 hours)

Clinical findings :

Consciousness is usually preserved in TIA.

There may be clinical evidence of a source of embolus, e.g.:

- Carotid arterial bruit (stenosis)
- Atrial fibrillation or other dysrhythmia

Approach to TIA:

1. Needs **urgent assessment** (ER)

- 2. Rule out other causes
- 3. Work up: (labs, CT scan or MRI)
 - Vascular image of carotid CTA, MRA, US.
 - Cardiac work up: (EKG، echo, +/- holter)
 - Start stroke prevention measures (like ischemic stroke)

Hemorrhagic transformation :

- > 50% of ischemic stroke have some hemorrhage
- Risk factors:
 - a. Older age
 - b. Larger stroke size
 - c. Anticoagulant use
 - d. Thrombolytic therapy/recanalization: increases the risk of haemorrhagic transformation

Prognosis :

4.

• Why does hemorrhagic stroke carries worse prognosis? Because the blood can compress the neurons, blood vessels. Also, it will cause edema and herniation

brain parenchyma.

Intracranial hemorrhage (ICH):

- meningeal space hemorrhage:
 - epidural hemorrhage.
 - subdural hemorrhage..
 - subarachnoid hemorrhage.

Risk factors:

Hypertension. - excessive alcohol use. - smoking. - obesity. - physical inactivity. - older age.

IVH.

intracerebral:

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ethnicity/race. - medications (antiplatelet or anticoagulant). -sympathomimetics (cocaine & amphetamine in young age).

Etiology :

- Hypertensive ICH: 1- Essential: rupture of microaneurysms (Charcot-Bouchard aneurysm). 2- Eclampsia.
- Non-hypertensive ICH:
 - 1- Vascular malformation: aneurysm, cavernous hemangioma, bleeding disorders, venous and cavernous angiomas.
 - 2- anticoagulant (more than antiplatelets)
 - 3- Amyloid angiopathy: elderly especially Alzheimer pt. usually in cortical and subcortical areas (lobar area).
 - 4- Trauma: commonly causes subdural hemorrhage or epidural hemorrhage.
 - 5- Tumor
 - 6- Drug abuse: amphetamine, cocaine, and PPA.
- other causes:
 - 1- Cerebral venous thrombosis (CVT): young female due to OCP use.
 - 2- Intracranial neoplasm.
 - 3- Moya Moya.
 - 4- Vasculitis.

Pathophysiology :

- Primary immediate effect: hemorrhage growth and increase intracranial pressure.
 - Secondary effect: downstream effect, edema, and ischemia.
- Site: basal ganglia, lobar regions, thalamus, pons, and cerebellum.

clinical presentation :

- Alteration in level of consciousness
- Nausea and vomiting
- Headache
- Headache

Investigations:

- LAboratory studies:
 - **CBC** \rightarrow looking for thrombocytopenia.
 - coagulogram
- Imaging

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- CT brain without contrast (essential to differentiate ischemic from hemorrhagic)
 - Hyperdense signal intensity.
 - Multifocal hemorrhages suggests a traumatic etiology.
 - Hematoma volume can be approximately by (AxBxCx)/2.
- **CT vessels:** CT angiography screening for AVMs, vasculitis.
- the workup:

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- MRI brain: with gado if looking for neoplasm, MRI diffusion-weighted.
 - MRA/MRV: if allergic to CT dye of if you're looking at venous outfkow.
 - $\blacksquare \qquad \mathsf{MRA} \rightarrow \mathsf{for} \mathsf{AVM} \mathsf{ and } \mathsf{aneurysm}.$
 - $\blacksquare \qquad \mathsf{MRV} \to \mathsf{for} \ \mathsf{cerebral} \ \mathsf{venous} \ \mathsf{thrombosis}.$
- Cerebral angiography.

Management of ICH:

• Medical:

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- Control blood pressure:
 - Reduction of SBP to 140 is save. why not less? to preserve blood perfusion to small vessel and preventing ischemia resulted from small blood vessel compression. in the area around the hemorrhage.
 - Use labetalol and/or nicardipine drip to titrate blood pressure.

Intracranial hemorrhage (ICH):

Management of ICH:

• Medical:

Control blood pressure:

- Evidence-based practice nursing care:
- Watch for neuro decline -Type and cross with your labs -Head of bed > 300 elevation -Head midline
- -Treat hyperthermia -Prevent vagal maneuvers -Control SBP (120-140) -Treat hyperglycemia
- -Treat hyperthermia -Seizure prophylaxis -DVT prophylaxis only after 48hrs & no haemorrhage
- Cerebral edema: soduim (hypoosmolar hyponatremia) and CO2
 - Use the ventilator to manage CO2.
 - Get the Sodium levels up to 145- 155.
 - Mannitol 3% Given to prevent brain herniation that's caused by the cerebral edema.
 - Give them hypertonic saline e.g. 3% sodium or mannitol to lower edema
- Surgical:
 - Surgery **never works** except in only two scenarios:
 - Cerebellar hemorrhage if the hemorrhage is small we will observe the patient for any deterioration
 Labor superficial hemorrhage: if small observe the pt deterioration to take him to the OR.

subarachnoid hemorrhage (SAH):

Etiology:

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- Aneurysm rupture: usually **berry aneurysm rupture**, most common sites are: anterior communicating artery, posterior communicating artery, and middle cerebral artery.
 - $\circ \qquad {\rm Can \ be \ perimesence phalic \ SAH.}$
 - Arteriovenous malformation (AVM).

Differential diagnosis of SAH:

- Migraine: presence of neck stiffness usually indicates SAH.
- Acute bacterial meningitis.
- Cervical dissection.

Clinical presentation:

- Sudden acute severe headache: thunderclap headache (often occipital), could be followed by vomiting and death.
- Other features: raised PB, neck stiffness or pain, straining, sexual excitement, papilloedema, and loss of consciousness at the onset.
- Physical examination:
 - Distress & Irritability. Photophobia. -Positive Kernig's sign: (may take hours to develop).
 - Focal hemisphere signs, such as hemiparesis or aphasia.

Investigations:

- CT brain scan: negative result does not completely exclude SAH
 - if CT is negative and the presentation is suggestive of subarachnoid hemorrhage then you do spinal tap to look for blood in the CSF.
- Lumbar puncture: performed 12 hr after symptom onset, to allow detection of xanthochromia \rightarrow yellow CSF.
- CT angiogram: if wither CT of LP is +ve, angiogram is required to determine the optimal approach to prevent recurrent bleeding.

Management:

- Surgery: Coil/Clip
- Medication:
 NIM
 - NIMOTOP/ NIMODIPINE: all the patient should be given, CCB prevent and treat the vasospasm, given for 21 days.

■ If patient develops vasospasm while on Nimodipine you should do angioplasty of the vasospasm.

- strict BP control.
- Check Sodium Levels \rightarrow Treat the central Hyponatremia:
 - best managed by fluid restriction & 3% NaCl
- Check Urine output.
- Treat the obstructive hydrocephalus (a complication of SAH) \rightarrow may require drainage via a shunt

L58- Dementia

Characteristic	Delirium	Dementia	
Causes	Metabolic, Toxic, Infectious, Drugs, Surgery & CNS disorders.	Vascular, <mark>Neurodegenerative</mark> , Infective, Toxic/Nutritional, Traumatic,Hydrocephalus, Inflammatory, Neoplastic & Prion.	
Attention	Impaired (fluctuating (worse at night))	Usually alert	
Onset	Acute (Hours/Days)	Gradual	
Course	Fluctuating from hour to hour (waxing and waning)	Progressive deterioration	
Consciousness	Clouded	Intact	
Hallucinations/ Delusions	Present (often visual or tactile) Delusions of Harm	Rare, only in highly advanced disease	
Diagnostic Criteria DSM-V	 Disturbance in attention Change in cognition The disturbance develops over a short period (usually hours to days) and tends to fluctuate during the course of the day. There is evidence from the history, physical examination, or laboratory findings that the disturbance is caused by a direct physiologic consequence of a general medical condition 	 Evidence of significant cognitive decline from a previous level of performance in one or more cognitive domains: Learning and memory - Language Executive function - Complex attention Perceptual-motor - Social cognition The cognitive deficits interfere with independence in everyday activities. The cognitive deficits do not occur exclusively in the context of a delirium. The cognitive deficits are not better explained by another mental disorder. 	
Prognosis	Reversible	Irreversible	
Treatment	Treat the underlying cause	Cholinesterase inhibitors	



L58- Dementia (cont.)

Alzheimer's Disease (Most common cause of dementia)

Clinical features	Risk factors	Pathophysiology	Diagnosis	Management
 Decreased memory and new learning Language impairment Apraxia Unawareness of illness Delusions Passivity Delusions Depression, Circadian rhythm disturbances & Weight loss 	 Increasing age APOE ε4 Down Syndrome vascular risk factors(DM, HTN, Hyperlipidemia & Lack of exercise) Brain trauma 	 Accumulation of amyloid beta > senile plaques Accumulation of hyperphosphorylate d tau protein > neurofibrillary tangles Resultant loss of neurons and synapses, (esp. in basal forebrain leading to cholinergic deficit) 	 Diagnosis is clinical Brain structure on MRI may demonstrate medial temporal atrophy bilaterally PET scans can demonstrate decreased metabolism in temporal and parietal regions 	 Donepezil, rivastigmine and galantamine which increase central nervous system acetylcholine Does not stop disease progression, only provides transient clinical stability. Not a treatment, but education and physical activity (Most beneficial)

Lewy body dementia (LBD): dementia and signs of Parkinson's disease. (Second most common cause of dementia)

Clinical features	Notes	Pathophysiology	Diagnosis	Management
 Visual hallucinations Parkinsonism Fluctuations in cognitive ability and level of consciousness. Visual spatial impairment Sensitivity to neuroleptics REM sleep behavior disorder Autonomic dysfunction 	Parkinson's Disease Dementia (PDD) is similar to LBD, The difference is that a clear history of PD with NO cognitive impairment precedes the development of dementia by at least a year.	 intracytoplasmic "Lewy Bodies" present in neurons, which are the result of abnormal α-synuclein protein accumulation 	 Diagnosis is primarily clinical PET scan may show decreased occipital lobe metabolism Myocardial scintigraphy may be abnormal due to abnormal cardiac sympathetic innervation 	• Same as Alzheimer's Disease.

Frontotempol Dementia:

A number of different syndromes characterised by behaviour abnormalities and impairment of language.

Behavioral Variant	 Associated with personality changes, inappropriate social behavior (disinhibited), lack of insight, Binging on certain foods, emotional blunting, rigidity & decreased attention modulation. MRI: atrophy in the <u>frontal</u> lobes (may be asymmetric).
Primary Progressive Aphasia	 Slowly progressive non-fluent aphasia: Patients present first with a non-fluent type of aphasia. MRI : focal left <u>frontal</u> atrophy
Semantic Dementia	 Usually have intact fluency, but comprehension is impaired and decreased naming ability. MRI may show focal left <u>temporal</u> atrophy.

Vascular Dementia

Clinical features	Risk factors	• A single stroke in a region important to cognition such as hippocampus or
 Frequently coexists with Alzheimer's disease 	 Hypertension Hyperlipidemia DM Smoking 	 Recurrent strokes that accumulate over time, there is a step-wise development of cognitive deficits. Slowly progressing cognitive deficits due to subclinical progressing of small vessel disease.



L58- Dementia (cont.)

Normal pressure hydrocephalus (NPH) (Rare)

Clinical features	Notes	Pathophysiology	Diagnosis	Management
Classically triad of: • Gait impairment "magnetic" • Dementia • Urinary incontinence	 In 2ry NPH, there is a history of a previous meningitis, inflammatory disorder, or SAH. Idiopathic NPH is when there is no preceding explanation for the condition 	 Impaired CSF absorption at the level of the arachnoid villi 	 Improvement after a LP that removes 30-50 cc of CSF MRI: dilated ventricles (CSF pressure is normal) 	 CSF shunting procedure is performed.

Creutzfeldt-Jakob Disease (CJD) (Rare, 1 in a million)

Clinical features	Notes	Pathophysiology	Diagnosis	Management
 Rapidly progressing dementia, disease duration (usually 6 months). Myoclonic jerks may occur. 	Prion disorder	 abnormally formed proteins that induce pathological transformations in other proteins leading to leading to spongiform pathology in brain 	 CSF Analysis: ↑ 14-3-3 protein EEG shows characteristic periodic sharp wave complexes abnormal signal intensity in the basal ganglia and cortical ribbon 	 No treatment, patients die within a year.

Feel free to vent here, no one will read it.

Types of movement Disorders

- Hyperkinesia: Myoclonus, Tremor, Dystonia and Chorea.
- **Hypokinesia:** Bradykinesia.

Parkinsonism

- Clinical syndrome characterised primarily by bradykinesia, with associated increased tone (rigidity), tremor and loss of postural reflexes.
- Most common cause is idiopathic parkinson's disease.

Idiopathic Parkinson's disease

Pathophysiology

- Presence of neuronal inclusions called **Lewy bodies** which contains tangles of α-synuclein.
- Loss of the dopaminergic neurons from the substantia nigra

Risk Factors

• Older age, men, pesticide exposure, MPTP (potent mitochondrial toxin) and non-smokers.

Clinical features

- <u>Pre-motor</u> \rightarrow Ansomia, **REMBD**, autonomic dysfunction and Depression/anxiety.
- <u>Motor</u> \rightarrow
 - Bradykinesia; slowness of movement and progressive fatiguing, mask like semblance of the face.
 - **Parkinsonian tremor** "pill-rolling"; rhythmic **oscillatory**, **predominantly at rest, re-emergence with maintained posture.**
 - Rigidity; "lead-pipe" "cogwheel", independent of velocity.
 - **Postural gait changes;** stooped posture, **shuffling**.
 - Quit speech and drooling, Visual hallucination.

Diagnosis

Clinical with normal imaging.

Management

Levodopa/Carbidopa (LD/CD)	Dopamine agonists (Pramipexole, rotigotine)	other drugs
 Mainstay of treatment Relieving akinesia and rigidity Combined with dopa decarboxylase inhibitor (carbidopa). ADRs: ON-OFF phenomenon; ON with dyskinesia happens when the levels of L-dopa are too high. 	 Used in combination with levodopa or as initial monotherapy in younger patients < 65–70 with mild to moderate impairment. Apomorphine: short-acting DA administered subcutaneously, It is used in advanced PD ADRs: fibrotic reactions, including cardiac valvular fibrosis. 	- (MAO)-B inhibitor: Selegiline - COMT inhibitors : Entacapone - Anticholinergic: help tremor, cause confusion and cognitive impairment in older patients .

Other management options

• Deep brain stimulation (DBS) \rightarrow LD/CD responsive patients only) as an adjunct to treatment.

Red flags

If present, suspect conditions other than Parkinson's disease.

- Neuroleptic or anti-emetic drug use.
- Early/prominent autonomic dysfunction
- Limited eye movements
- Pyramidal, cerebellar or sensory symptoms
- Cognitive impairment

Other akinetic-rigid syndromes

Drug induced Parkinsonism	- Metoclopramide or haloperidol
Progressive Supranuclear Gaze Palsy	 Parkinsonism + the inability to look up & down due to degeneration in the part of the midbrain. Path: Shrunken midbrain "hummingbird sign" and Tau deposition.
Multiple System Atrophy	- Cerebellar signs, extrapyramidal system and severe early autonomic dysfunction. - Path : α-synuclein inclusion and hot cross bun sign".
Vascular Parkinsonism	- Upper motor neuron signs, results from multiple strokes.
Corticobasal degeneration	- Cortical impairment: Sensory, Astereognosis, Agraphesthesia, Apraxia.
Wilson's disease	 Copper deposition occurs in the basal ganglia, the cornea and liver causing cirrhosis. Young patients <50 Check serum copper and ceruloplasmin.

Hyperkinetic disorders

Essential Tremor	 Hereditary, benign condition but impairing. Slowly progressive, bilateral, asymmetric, upper limbs action tremor, that disappears at rest. There is no bradykinesia, rigidity, or dystonia. Cerebellar tremor could look exactly like an essential tremor. Treated with Propranolol
Dystonia	 - same movement happening persistently or repetitively, usually there's contraction of both agonist + antagonist muscles at the same time. - Ballismus: large amplitude choreiform movement, seen after subthalamic strokes usually, botulinum toxin injections or DBS may be useful.
Chorea	- continuous flow of random muscle contractions ('dance-like'). - Can occur in "Sydenham's Chorea" and in Huntington's disease (HD)
Myoclonus	- Involuntary single quick contraction of a muscle group (or its inhibition). Can be repeated but not rhythmic
Tics	- stereotyped movements or vocalizations (may be temporarily suppressed)

	Polymyositis (PM): inflammatory myopathy affecting the proximal skeletal muscles Dermatomyositis (DM): inflammatory myopathy that presents similarly to polymyositis, with the addition of skin involvement Inclusion body myositis (IBM)
	• Skin features (Specific for DM): Gottron papules, heliotrope rash, and the shawl sign
	 Malignancies are associated with DM > PM Patients with IM typically complain of muscle weakness with difficulties reaching overhead
Inflammatory Myopathies	 Climbing the stairs, and/or standing up. Advanced disease may present with dysphagia and aspiration because of oropharyngeal muscle involvement, or even respiratory failure if breathing muscles are affected. DM is primarily distinguished from PM by the characteristic rash.
	The best initial test is CPK and aldolase
	 Muscle biopsy is the pivotal investigation (most accurate test)!
	• DM: Perifascicular atrophy
	• PM: No Perifascicular atrophy
	• interstitial lung disease is strongly associated with the presence of antisynthetase (Jo-1)
	antibodies Management: Steroids & screen for underlying malignancies
	• Management. Sterolus & screen for undertying matignancies
	Inclusion body myositis (IBM): inflammatory myopathy affecting both the proximal and distal skeletal
	muscles (mainly Distal). Common after age 50
	 Quadriceps muscle weakness (Thigh): knees lack support → frequent falling
Inclusion body	 Usually spares rectus femoris muscle
myositis	• +/- long finger Finger flexors: difficulties gripping, e.g., shopping bags or a briefcase
•	 Severe Oropharyngeal dysphagia Bionsy (most accurate test): Inflammatery cells invading non-necrotic muscle fibers
	Rimmed vacuoles
	 Relentless progression, lacks effective therapies
	Steroid myopathy: due to chronic exposure to steroids
Drug Induced	• Biopsy: type 2 fiber atrophy and lipid accumulation in type 1 fibers.
Myopathies	• Statin induced Myopathy: Statins inhibit HMG-CoA reductase, rate-limiting enzyme of cholesterol biosynthesis. Can cause:
	\circ Discontinuation of the statin \rightarrow resolution of symptom
	 They are x-linked recessive disorders (manifest in males). Duchenne (early age) and becker (late age)
	• Mutation in the dystrophin gene (Xp21) \rightarrow absent (in duchenne) or reduced (in becker)
	Dystrophin
	DMD:
	• <u>Symmetrical</u> progressive (<u>Proximal</u> > distal) muscle weakness (Legs & Arms)
B	• Course: Onset age 2 to 5 yrs, wheelchair at 10/
Dystropninopa thios	 Dilated cardiomyopathy: common after age 15 (usually the cause of death)
tilles	Becker:
	• Older age at onset, Muscle weakness starts from > 7 vrs. Slowly progressive. "Becker is
	Better." Loss of ambulation usually in the 4th decade
	Investigations & Management:
	• Muscle biopsy: absent dystrophin staining (DMD). Partial loss of dystrophin staining (BMD)

L60- Myopathies (cont.)

	Manifestations are Asymmetrical	
	• Face: Initial manifestation, 95% you will detect it at the age of 30 with examination	
	• Eyes: Often early in disease course	
	• Lid closure: Incomplete	
Fa si sa sa su da bu	• Sleeping: With eyes open	
Facioscapulonu	• Shoulder: Pain in shoulder girdle, scapular winging, triple humb	
meral dystrophy	• Ear: deafness	
	Screen for:	
	• Hearing loss	
	• Retinal vascular disease	
	No screening for cardiac needed unless symptomatic	
	• Weakness: Humeroneroneal	
	• Bilateral Symmetrical	
	 Arms: Bicens & tricens: Deltoids spared 	
	 Scanular winging 	
	\circ legs: late	
	 Edgs. Edge Face: Mild weakness or normal 	
Fmery – dreifuss	Contractures occurs before weakness and it is often more limiting to function than	
muscular	weakness.	
dystronhy	o in elbow, achilles tendon	
uystrophy	• Spine:	
	Posterior neck (extension). Lower back: Usually later onset, but may present	
	with rigid spine syndrome.	
	• Testing:	
	• CK, EMG, Cardiac screening for arrhythmia and cardiomyopathy (leads to sudden	
	death)	
	• The most prevalent inherited neuromuscular disease in adults (Autosomal dominant)	
	Tandem repeats at DMPK gene (Anticipation phenomenon)	
Myotonic	difficulty releasing hand grin on a doorknob or handle	
Dystrophy	aifficulty releasing nand grip on a doorknob or handle.	
	 Erontal halding Cardiorocniratory weakness 	
	Frontal balding, Cardiorespiratory weakness FMC my anothing for the second discharge Constitute testing (confirm storm test)	
	 Frontal balding, Cardiorespiratory weakness EMG: myopathic plus myotonic discharges. Genetic testing (confirmatory test) 	
	 Frontal balding, Cardiorespiratory weakness EMG: myopathic plus myotonic discharges. Genetic testing (confirmatory test) Triggered: Anesthetics, Depolarizing neuromuscular blocking agents 	
Malignant	 Frontal balding, Cardiorespiratory weakness EMG: myopathic plus myotonic discharges. Genetic testing (confirmatory test) Triggered: Anesthetics, Depolarizing neuromuscular blocking agents Clinical features: Tachypnea, tachycardia, Rigidity, Acidosis ,Hyperkalemia 	
Malignant Hyperthermia	 Frontal balding, Cardiorespiratory weakness EMG: myopathic plus myotonic discharges. Genetic testing (confirmatory test) Triggered: Anesthetics, Depolarizing neuromuscular blocking agents Clinical features: Tachypnea, tachycardia, Rigidity, Acidosis ,Hyperkalemia Rhabdomyolysis, High CK, Hyperthermia. 	
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L61- Multiple sclerosis

Multiple sclerosis	
Definition	 A chronic autoimmune, T-cell- mediated, inflammatory disorder of the CNS. Myelin is produced by: Schwann cells: Peripheral nerves. Oligodendrocytes: CNS The most common chronic inflammatory, demyelinating and neurodegenerative disease of the CNS in young adults
Risk factors	 EBV Infection: Most common Vitamin D: Sun exposure & serum vitamin D are inversely related (Sunlight may be protective) Smoking: also increase the severity of MS Obesity & Genetics
pidemiology	 The life expectancy of patients is reduced by 7–14 years. MS is the main cause of death in more than 50% of patients. Mostly due to MS complications e.g. aspiration pneumonia or Neurogenic bladder (→ Infections → sepsis)
Patho- physiology	 Characterized by breakdown of the blood—brain barrier (BBB) → entry of activated T lymphocytes & other inflammatory cells nto the CSF (1st change in MS) Recognise myelin-derived antigens on the surface the microglia → initiates destruction of the oligodendrocyte-myelin unit by macrophages Most easily recognized in the white matter as focal areas of demyelination, inflammation, and glial (astrocytes) reaction → Plaques Recurrent relapses lead to permanent myelin and axonal damage and oligodendrocytes loss
Pathology	 Plaques of demyelination, 2–10 mm in size, are the cardinal features. Lesions are most easily recognized in the white matter. There has to be multiple lesions, if only one then it's not MS Plaques occur anywhere in CNS white matter but most commonly sites: Optic nerves Periventricular region Corpus callosum The brainstem and its cerebellar connections Cervical cord (corticospinal tracts and posterior columns) Spinal lesions: In MS: short and peripheral (visualized on axial images) In NMO: long and central or circumferential.
Clinically isolated syndrome (Pre-MS)	 CIS is the first clinical episode that is suggestive of MS Why don't we classify them under MS? Bc it's only one episode and not all of them develop MS (Many ppl in their 20s may get this attack and then live normal for the rest of their lives) Monophasic episode with symptoms and objective findings that reflect inflammatory demyelinating event in the CNS. lasting for at least 24 hrs. (If less than 24hrs then it's NOT an MS attack) Occurs in the absence of fever or infection Resembles a typical MS relapse (attack) but occurs in a patient not known to have MS

Ξ

	Relapsing-remitting MS (RRMS) (85–90%)
	 The typical and most common pattern of MS A purely RRMS is characterized by the absence of worsening neurological function outside of individual relapses The majority will eventually enter a secondary progressive phase
	Secondary progressive (SPMS)
Four main	 Worsening irreversible neurological function, preceded by RRMS that cannot be explained purely by worsening associated with ongoing relapses This late stage of MS consists of gradually worsening disability progressing slowly over years. Starting early treatment in RRMS can delay the onset of SPMS and hopefully even prevent it.
	Primary progressive (PPMS) (10-15%)
	 Irreversibly continuous worsening neurological function, without preceding relapses Patients older at onset or with PPMS have shorter survival. Example: a 40 years old lady presenting with slowly progressing weakness in the lower limb. At first she was able to walk independently, then she depended on a cane to help her walk for months, afterwards she noticed that she needs a walker (bilateral support) to walk, which she kept using for a few months to years, and now she needs a wheelchair.
	Relapsing-progressive MS (<5%).
	 This is the least common form of MS. It is similar to PPMS but with occasional supra-added relapses on a background of progressive disability from the outset.
	Clinical feature of Multiple sclerosis
Optic Neuritis	 Blurred vision usually in one eye. NOT double vision, seeing black dots, can't see clear in the dark. Pain exacerbated by eyes movement. Reduced perception of colors. (red desaturation, the color will be pale in the affected eye) Elashes of light on moving the eyes.
\star	 Enlarged blind spot. because the optic nerve is inflamed and swollen Note: Blurred vision in one eve + Pain on eve movement = Almost always optic neuritis
Brain Stem Related Symptoms	 Diplopia if the nucleus of 3rd,4th and 6th nerves affected (the CNs themselves aren't affected, what's affected is their nucleus) Trigeminal neuralgia: is a severe pain that happen when one of the divisions of V CN distribution is touched and lasts for a few seconds, happens if involve trigeminal nerve (sensory). Vertigo (spinning sensation) and nystagmus, happens if there is a plaque in the cerebellum Facial numbness and weakness: if the facial nerve is involved Internuclear ophthalmoplegia (INO): Bilateral internuclear ophthalmoplegia is pathognomonic of MS A Specific gaze abnormality, characterized by impaired horizontal eye movement with weak adduction of the affected eye and abduction nystagmus of the contralateral eye Resulting from a lesion in the medial longitudinal fasciculus in the dorsomedial brainstem tegmentum of either the pons or the midbrain.
	 If you see it in young patient almost always MS (If elderly, think stroke)

Clinical feature of Multiple sclerosis (Cont)	
Cerebellum Related Symptoms	 Oscillopsia: (A visual disturbance in which the object in the visual field appears to oscillate due to nystagmus) Dysarthria: (Slurred speech) Imbalance: (Wide-based gait)
Brain And Spinal Cord Symptoms	 Lhermitte's sign: electric like sensation induced by neck flexion, very serious almost always indicate spinal cord lesion (any cervical cord lesion, not specific to MS) Sphincter dysfunction. urine incontinence, neurogenic bladder and stool incontinence, commonly seen if there is spinal cord lesion Cognitive dysfunction: memory, concentration, processing speed. (Uncommon in MS, and usually does not happen with the first attack) Sensory loss/numbness/pain Weakness (monoparesis, paraparesis, quadriparesis).
Transverse Myelitis	 A general term that indicates inflammation of the spinal cord with cord swelling and loss of function. Typically, one or two spinal segments are affected with part or all of the cord area at that level involved Spinal cord related motor, sensory &/or autonomic dysfunction. transverse in the name means involve more than one area of the spinal cord Sensory level, means the is loss of sensation in a specific level eg. patient has complete loss of sensation from mid abdomen and below, this sign indicate a spinal cord lesion
Uhthoff phenomenon	 Temporary worsening of pre-existing symptoms with increases in body temperature, e.g. after exercise or a hot bath Less than 24 h, Reversible if last for more than 24h think about relapse It does not indicate that there's ongoing damage, it only indicates that there was an area of inflammation and demyelination
	Diagnosis of MS: To diagnosis of MS you must have both:
Dis • History of at l one month. • if 2 attacks of as 1	 Dissemination in <u>time</u> Clinical evidence of involvement of two CNS sites Clinical evidence of one lesion with historical evidence of another site being affected.
• The presence clinical attac criteria for M non-enhancir	e of multiple lesions on MRI (dissemination in space) or the demonstration of additional ks on MRI (by showing lesions of different densities (dissemination in time)) fulfills the S despite the presence of one attack in the patient's history (enhancing are new, ng are old)
 it is essential MRI is both th Lumbar punct 	to ask about previous episodes of neurological symptoms e best initial test and the most accurate test. Eture and CSF analysis: if you not sure about the diagnosis another way to confirm it is to do Sure and look for oligoclonal IgG bands, BUT with presence of relapse and remitting

symptoms. Rarely used anymore

L61- Multiple sclerosis (cont.)

Management of MS	
Acute treatment of relapses	 Steroids (IV or orally Methylprednisone) Most of the time relapses resolve on their own but steroids shorten the relapse episode. Only given when relapse is significant or affecting their life (e.g. a pilot comes with blurred vision = needs immediate attention = use steroids) Plasma exchange is used for those who don't respond to steroids
Disease modifying treatments	 Low efficacy DMT (eg: interferon, teriflunomide) vs high efficacy DMT (eg: natalizumab) Examples: Patient with depression: do not give interferon as it worsens depression Patient with cardiac condition: do not give fingolimod - causes heart block and seriously arrhythmias Patient came with only tingling, no residual disabilities after the attack, few lesions on MRI→ give low efficacy DMT (interferon or teriflunomide) Patient with only numbness, but had a previous relapse in which she described ataxia and difficulty walking, do we give her low efficacy DMT? No (if u check MRI, you might find extensive lesions, multiple on spinal cord (very bad prognostic sign)) → start on fingo (medium efficacy DMT) or Natalizumab (high efficacy DMT) Natalizumab can cause: Progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy PML (fatal) & leukemia
	Other Demyelinating Diseases
Neuromyelitis Optica Spectrum Disorder (Devic's disease)	 Characterized by longitudinally extensive transverse myelitis (>3 segments) and bilateral or recurrent optic neuritis. Mean age is 10 years later than MS. Affects mainly the optic nerves and the spinal cord More severe attacks than in MS. (presenting with nausea, vomiting and hiccups are important red flags in NMO) Usually negative OCB in the CSF. While 90% of MS has positive OCB Serum antibodies to aquaporin-4 water channels on astrocytes are diagnostic (should be done for every suspected case)
Acute Disseminated Encephalomye litis	 Acute monophasic demyelinating condition. Frequently preceded by vaccination or infection. More common in children. Usually a monophasic illness (no relapses). Pathology: Wide spread white and gray matter peri venous "sleeves" of inflammation and Axons are relatively spared unlike MS and NMO. Symptoms: Encephalopathy, Multifocal neurological deficit, May fluctuates over a 3 months period for one single attack (If more than 3 months, it's not ADEM)
Behçet's disease	 Behçet's principal features are recurrent oral and/or genitalulceration, inflammatory ocular disease (uveitis) and neurological syndromes. Brainstem and cord lesions, aseptic meningitis, encephalitis and cerebral venous thrombosis occur. There is a predilection for ethnic groups along the ancient 'Silk Road' – Turkey, the Middle East and Asia. Behçet's is associated with the HLA- B51 allele.

L62- Neuromuscular junction disorders (NMJ)

Neuromuscular junction physiology :

• This binding of ACh to ACh receptors in the motor end plate causes ion channels to open & so allow the sodium (Na+) ions to flow across (influx) the membrane into the muscle cell, generates a muscle action potential.

Classification of NMJ disorders :

- 1. According to the mechanism of action or etiology
 - a. Immune mediated : Myasthenia gravis and lambert eaton syndrome
 - b. Toxic / metabolic : Snake venom, Botulism, Organophosphates and Hypermagnesemia.
 - c. Congenital : Congenital myasthenic syndrome
 - According to the location of the disruption:
 - a. Presynaptic : decrease in the release of acetylcholine and impair the calcium channels
 - Lambert Eaton Syndrome , Botulism, and Congenital myasthenic syndrome
 - b. Synaptic : Organophosphate
 - c. Postsynaptic : The highest number of diseases affect the neuromuscular junction postsynaptically. either affects the Na+ channels or the ACh receptors : Immune mediated myasthenia gravis (most common)

Myasthenia gravis Definition :

The hallmark of the disorder is a fluctuating degree and variable combination of weakness in ocular either alone or in combination with , bulbar, limb, and respiratory muscles.

Epidemiology :

2.

• Myasthenia gravis occurs at any age, but there is a bimodal distribution to the age of onset:

Pathophysiology of MG :

- In MG, there is reduction of postsynaptic AChRs due to production of anti-AChR antibodies that block receptors from binding to Ach and causes damage the postsynaptic membrane.
- Reduction in the number of AChRs available at the muscle endplate and flattening of the postsynaptic folds.
- Patients become symptomatic once the number of AChRs is reduced to approximately 30% of normal.
- Cause of fatigability in MS? inefficient neuromuscular transmission (pathological) + presynaptic rundown phenomenon (normal)
- Which receptors are affected in MS? ONLY nicotinic (skeletal muscles), while cholinergic (smooth &cardiac) are NOT affected.

Clinical features:

- >50% of patients present with ocular symptoms of ptosis (drooping of eyelids) and/or diplopia .
- half (80%) will develop generalized disease within two years.
- The distinguishing clinical feature in MG is fatigable weakness.
- Ocular myasthenia : The weakness is limited to the eyelids and extraocular muscles. Medial rectus muscle is usually most severely involved extraocular muscle
- Generalized disease : The weakness commonly affects ocular muscles, but it also involves a variable combination of bulbar, limb, and respiratory muscles.
- maximum severity is usually in first year of disease, if After 2 years with no limb symptoms, disease usually remains purely ocular.
- Ocular muscles: Asymmetric ptosis (fluctuating), binocular diplopia, and Pupils spared
- Bulbar muscles
 - fatigable- prolonged chewing). Sometimes this can be severe to the extent that it will lead to jaw drop.
 - dysarthria, dysphagia and difficulty clearing secretions, and breathy nasal speech and nasal regurgitation
- Facial muscles
 - expressionless face, **Transverse smile**, and Weak eye closure
 - Neck and limb muscles :
 - Neck extensor and flexor (Musk : NE>NF), Dropped head syndrome, Limb weakness: Proximal > distal, usually symmetric, and Wrist and finger extensors and foot dorsiflexors.
- Respiratory muscles :
 - o orthopnea, and respiratory insufficiency and pending respiratory failure "myasthenic crisis

L62- NMJ (cont.)

Investigations:

- Acetylcholine Receptor (AChR) Antibodies. (Best initial) :confirm the diagnosis.
- Anti- MuSK antibodies : If they were seronegative to antiAchR do anti Musk.
- SFEMG. (MOST SENSITIVE TEST)
 - Time required for EPP to reach threshold varies JITTER
 - Sometimes EPP fails to reach threshold BLOCKING
- Ocular Cooling/"ice-pack" Test .
- Edrophonium Chloride (Tensilon) Test, causes bradycardia
- Repetitive Nerve stimulation (RNS) :decline in the CMAP amplitude with the first four to five stimuli (characteristic decremental) response
- CT mediastinum : Thymic hyperplasia is most common 85%. All patients should have a thoracic CT to exclude thymoma
- Other Autoimmune disorders

Management of MG :

Symptomatic treatment (anticholinesterase agents) :

• Cholinesterase Inhibitors: Pyridostigmine (Mestinon).

chronic Immunotherapy:

• Prednisone (Main one), Azathioprine (Imuran), Mycophenolate (CellCept)

MG crisis (Rapid therapy):

• Plasma exchange and intravenous immune globulin [IVIG]

Refractory MG:

• rituximab

Thymectomy::

- Patient has thymoma Or Positive ACh receptor antibodies + Generalised MG + Young patient

Lambert-Eaton Myasthenic Syndrome (LEMS):

• It is a rare presynaptic disorder of neuromuscular transmission in which quantal release of acetylcholine (ACh) is impaired.

Epidemiology :

associated with a malignancy, mainly small cell lung cancer (SCLC).

Pathophysiology :

- 1. Caused by an autoimmune attack directed against the voltage-gated calcium channels (VGCCs) on the presynaptic motor nerve terminal
- 2. Parasympathetic, sympathetic, and enteric neurons are all affected Ca++ channels.

Clinical features:

- Weakness/Fatigue (LL>UL) in Limb-Girdle Distribution ,weakness improves with use in LEMS
- slowly progressive proximal muscle weakness, particularly involving the legs
- Autonomic symptoms including **dry mouth**
- Post-tetanic potentiation: Recovery of lost deep tendon reflexes or improvement in muscle strength with vigorous, brief muscle activation is a unique aspect of LEMS

Diagnosis :

- 1. The diagnosis of LEMS is usually clinical and confirmed by the presence of antibodies to voltage-gated calcium channel (VGCC)
- 2. High frequency (10, 20 to 50 Hz) **repetitive nerve stimulation (**RNS) or brief (10 seconds) maximal isometric muscle activation result in **significant increment** (>60%, unlike MG in which there's decrement) with a marked **increase in the CMAP amplitude**

Treatment:

- 1. treat a primary underlying malignancy
- 2. Symptomatic therapies : These are guanidine hydrochloride, aminopyridines such as 3,4-diaminopyridine (3,4-DAP, aka Amifampridine), and acetylcholinesterase inhibitors such as pyridostigmine
- 3. Immunologic therapies include intravenous immune globulin (IVIG)



Botulism:

Clinical features:

- Acute onset (Unlike MG) of bilateral cranial neuropathies associated with symmetric descending weakness.
- initial GI symptoms (nausea & vomiting)
- Pupils dilated , Ptosis, and EOM
- Bulbar weakness, Limb weakness, and Respiratory weakness.

• Absence of fever, The patient remains responsive

Diagnosis:

Repetitive nerve stimulation (RNS) at low frequencies of 2 to 5 Hz causes decremental response.

RNS at high frequencies stimulation or exercise causes incremental response,

The amount of facilitation seen with botulism (40-100%) is usually less than that seen in Lambert-Eaton myasthenic syndrome (200%).

Treatment:

- antitoxin.
- Supportive.
- Equine serum heptavalent botulism antitoxin is used to treat children older than one year of age and adults.

Human-derived botulism immune globulin is used for infants less than one year of age

Tick paralysis:

- inhibits transmission at the neuromuscular junction by blocking influx of sodium ions In the postsynaptic membrane
- Symptoms include anorexia, lethargy, muscle weakness, nystagmus, and an ascending flaccid
- paralysis.
- The diagnosis of tick paralysis usually relies on the finding of a tick attached to the patient.
- Removal of the tick is the primary treatment of tick paralysis.

Snake venom :

- **Presynaptic junction toxin: beta-bungarotoxin** (krait) / mechanism: inhibit Ach release by inhibiting reformation of the vesicles after exocytosis /management: only supportive, no response to anti venom.
- **Postsynaptic junction toxin: alpha-bungarotoxin** / mechanism: toxins bind irreversibly to the acetylcholine receptor site / management: Antivenom

Clinical features:

- ptosis, ophthalmoplegia, dysarthria, dysphagia, and drooling.
- Weakness of limb muscles.
- impaired coagulation profile.
- The postsynaptic toxins produce findings on electrodiagnostic studies identical to those seen in
- myasthenia gravis, Repetitive nerve stimulation produces a decremental response

Organophosphate and carbamates toxicity:

- potent inhibitors of acetylcholinesterase, causing excess acetylcholine concentrations in the synapse.
- Commonly used as pesticides.

Clinical features :

- Both sympathetic and parasympathetic systems are involved.
- Symptoms include muscarinic signs and nicotinic signs .

Management & diagnosis<mark>:</mark>

- Emergency management (ABC management) often requires endotracheal intubation and volume resuscitation
- **Atropine** is used for symptomatic relief of muscarinic symptoms.
- It does not reverse the paralysis

Hypermagnesemia / hypocalcemia

- Causes inhibition of a acetylcholine release
- Magnesium has a calcium channel blocking effect.
- This produces proximal muscle weakness, ocular muscles are generally spread.
L63- Introduction To Cancer Diagnosis & Treatment

Cancer Definition:

- A term used for diseases in which abnormal cells divide and escape the body control, these cells are able to:
 - Invade surrounding tissues (benign tumors like lipoma and fibroma cannot invade. Locally malignant tumors like Osteoclastoma can invade locally but cannot send distant metastasis. The ture malignant tumors can both invade locally and send metastasis.).
 - Send distant metastases
 - Lose their functions.
- Primary tumors:
 - Represent de novo tumors in their initial site e.g. Breast cancer inside the breast tissue.
- Metastatic tumors:
 - Originate from the distant growth of the primary tumors to lymph nodes or other organs like liver, lung, bone, brain, etc..

Causes of Cancer

• DNA Mutations:

- Cancer arises from the mutation of a normal gene.
- Mutated genes that cause cancer are called oncogenes.
- Radiation and other environmental factors (Tobacco, Alcohol, Radon, Asbestos, etc).
- Random somatic mutations.
- Inherited germline mutations.
- Genetic Predisposition
 - Retinoblastoma, p53 (tumor suppressor gene), APC, CDKN2A, BRCA1, BRCA2
- Infectious agents
 - Viral: HPV cervical cancer, Hepatitis liver cancer, EBV Lymphoma
 - Bacterial: H. pylori stomach cancer

Hallmarks of Cancer:

• Self-sufficiency in growth signals, Insensitivity to growth inhibitory signals, Absence of apoptosis, Limitless proliferative capacity, Sustained angiogenesis, Tissue invasion and metastasis.

Q1: When to suspect cancer?

- Cancer Signs and Symptoms:
 - Cancer gives most people no symptoms or signs that exclusively indicate the disease.
 - Unfortunately, every complaint or symptom of cancer can be explained by a harmless condition as well.
 - Do not forget the constitutional symptoms:
 - Fatigue, fever, sweating, weight loss.
 - What are the clues?
 - Persistent, Progressive, Disabling and prevents it's patients from doing daily activity.
 - Symptoms & Signs changes according to the site of origin.
 - Think about the pathology and site:
 - The Mass is able to <u>invade locally</u> and <u>spread distantly</u> \rightarrow To bone, brain, lung, liver.

Q2: How to diagnose cancer?

Ο

1	• IT IS NOT A CLINICAL DIAGNOSIS	
2	• IT IS NOT A RADIOLOGICAL DIAGNOSIS	
3	• IT IS NOT SEROLOGICAL DIAGNOSIS	
4	• IT IS A PATHOLOGICAL DIAGNOSIS	
5	• IT IS A TISSUE DIAGNOSIS	

Categories of malignant disorders

Liquid malignancies

Lymphoproliferative

disorders

(leuke

roliferative

sorders

alignant disorders

Epithelial tissues

(Carcinoma)

Glandular

Solid malignancies

Connective tissues

(Sarcoma)

Bone

L63- Introduction To Cancer Diagnosis & Treatment

Q3: What the essential work up for staging?

- **TNM** (T= tumor, N= Node, M= Metastases)
 - <u>Clinical</u>TNM
 - <u>Radiological</u>TNM
 - <u>Pathological</u>TNM
- Radiology:
 - XRay, MRI, CT, US, PET scan.
 - Surgical staging.

O4: How to treat cancer?

• Types of oncology problems:

- Patient with Suspected Cancer diagnosis
- Patient with Established Cancer diagnosis (Answer the following questions):
 - Does the patient have cancer?
 - What type of cancer?
 - What stage of cancer?

• Management Multidisciplinary:

- Surgery, Radiation, Medical.
- Others Disciplines: Radiology, Pathology, Lab, Combined clinics, Tumor board.

• Determine the treatment Objective:

• Either Curative or Palliative

Curative	Palliative
 Therapy: Aggressive, Expensive, recent, updated, complex. Toxicity: Long term, irreversible 	 Therapy: Simplest , Avoid hospitalization, Availability Least toxic Toxicity: Short term, acute, quality of life

Different Treatment Modalities			
Local therapy: ● Surgery & Radiation therapy	Systemic therapy: Chemotherapy Hormones Biologicals Immune therapy		

• Mechanism of Action of Immunomodulators

- Blocking the PD-1 or PDL-1 pathway would restore/promote the function of chronically exhausted tumor-specific T cells and decrease tumor-induced immune suppression
- Liquid malignancies: Treated systemically 0 **General Staging of solid malignancies** Solid malignancies: Treated according to stage 0 Early Locally Advanced Metastatic Q5: What is the prognosis of your patient? What can medicine offer the cancer patient? local +/- Systemic¹ local & Systemic² Systemic +/- Local³ 0 The cancer type & extent (stage) The host factors (age, sex, comorbidities) 0 The available tools \cap Tumors that can have Tumors that can be cured Tumors that can be palliated prolonged survival Locally advanced and lymphomas, leukemia, Metastatic solid tumors. early solid tumors. some of the metastatic tumors.

Lymphoma is a cancer of the lymphatic system. It is of two main subtypes:			
	Hodgkin lymphoma Non-Hodgkin lymphom		
Age	aged 20-30 years and those 55 years of age	aged 60 years and older. However, some types are more likely to develop in children and young adults.	
Sex	More common in males.	More likely in women in most types.	
Chemicals & Radiation	-	Nuclear radiation and certain agricultural chemicals have links to non-Hodgkin lymphoma.	
Immunodeficienc y	HIV infection can weaken the immune system and increase the risk	A person with a less active immune system has a higher risk.	
Infectious factor	Infectious mononucleosis: The Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) can cause mononucleosis. This disease increases the risk of lymphoma.	Certain viral and bacterial infections that transform lymphocytes, such as the EBV, increase the risk. This virus causes glandular fever .	
Grouping/ subtypes	 Nodular lymphocyte-predominant HL Classical HL: Nodular sclerosis HL (most common) Lymphocyte-rich classical HL (best prognosis) Mixed cellularity HL Lymphocyte depletion HL (worst prognosis) 	 Indolent Aggressive Highly aggressive 	

Signs and symptoms

The definition, presentation, diagnostic tests, "B" symptoms, and staging of Hodgkin disease (HD) are the same as NHL. HD has Reed-Sternberg cells on pathology.

- Painless swelling of lymph nodes (most common)
- **B symptoms**: Persistent Fever without infection, Night sweats, Unexplained Weight loss and reduced appetite.
- Persistent fatigue
- Itchy skin
- shortness of breath

Diagnosis

• Biopsy:

0

- FNA: Tells you there is a malignancy but doesn't tell you what type.
 - Tru-Cut Biposy: This is the one used for the diagnosis of lymphoma because it gives you more details.
 - If biopsy is +ve, perform bone marrow aspiration/biopsy next (to make sure it hasn't reached the bone marrow).
- PET Scan: Before and after treatment, PET scan can differentiate between fibrosis/necrosis from treatment, and active cancer

Staging				
1	• Involvement of a single lymph-node region or lymphoid structure.			
н	• Involvement of two or more lymph node regions on the same side of the diaphragm.			
ш	• Involvement of lymph node regions on both sides of the diaphragm .			
IV	• Extensive extranodal disease (more extensive than "E").			

L64- Lymphomas (cont.)

Staging (Cont.): Designations applicable to any disease stage			
А	Asymptomatic		
B One is enough	 Fever: > 38°, recurrent (Spiking up and down, not stable.) Night sweats: Drenching (Excessive sweating), recurrent. Weight loss: unexplained loss of >10% of body weight within the previous 6 months 		
x	 Bulky disease: (If you see the letter X in the description of lymphoma → Bulky) Mediastinal: ≥ 10 cm or > 1/3 internal transverse diameter at T5/6 on PA CXR. Non-mediastinal: ≥ 5cm 		
E	• Limited extranodal extension from adjacent not	dal site	
	Hodgkin's lympho	ma (HL)	
Subtypes	 Nodular lymphocyte-predominant HL Classical HL: Nodular sclerosis HL (most common) Lymphocyte-rich classical HL (best prognosis) Mixed cellularity HL Lymphocyte depletion HL (worst prognosis) 		
	Very favourable prognosis	Favourable prognosis in Stages 1A & 2A	
	• Stage 1A NLPH, high neck NS & LRCHL.	 1-3 sites Age ≤ 40 ESR < 50 Nodular sclerosis, Lymphocyte-rich classical HL 	
Treatment	(Local radiation only)	(Chemotherapy 3-4 cycles followed by radiation)	
Ireatment	Unfavourable prognosis in Stages 1A & 2A	Advanced stage	
	 >3 sites Age >40 ESR >50 Mixed cellularity 	 Stages 3 & 4 B symptoms Bulky disease 	
	(Chemotherapy 4-6 cycles followed by radiation)	6 cycles if stage A, 8 cycles if stage B. followed by radiation	

Feel free to vent here, no one will read it..

		Non-Hodgkin's	lymp	homa (NHL)		
	Indolent	 Follicular lymphoma Grade 1,2. (Most common indolent). Marginal zone lymphoma Nodal Extranodal (MALT): may regress with treatment of H.pylori Small lymphocytic lymphoma Lymphoplasmacytic asociación with Waldenstrom's macroglobulinemia 				
Clinical grouping	Aggressive	 Diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (Most common) Primary mediastinal large B cell lymphoma Anaplastic large T / null cell lymphoma Peripheral T cell lymphoma Extranodal NK / T cell lymphoma, nasal type Follicular lymphoma Grade 3 Mantle cell lymphoma 				
	Highly Aggressive	Lymphoblastic lymphoma Burkitt's lymphoma Burkitt's like lymphoma	Lymphoblastic lymphoma Burkitt's lymphoma Burkitt's like lymphoma			
	Indolent lymphoma e.g. Follicular Grad ½, small lymphocytic, marginal zone			one		
	(Stage 1A, 24	Limited disease e 1A, 2A if 3 or less adjacent node regions)		Advanced stage (some Stage 2, Stage 3, 4)		
	IFRT 30-35 GY (L	((Local radiotherapy only)		 Palliative radiation therapy for localized symptomatic disease Palliative chemotherapy for disseminated symptomatic disease Observation only if low bulk, asymptomatic Treat when symptomatic 		
	Aggressive lymphoma (e.g. Diffuse large B cell)					
Treatment	Stage I, some Stage II		Stage III, IV, B symptoms or bulky disease			
	(Chemother	hemotherapy 3 cycles followed by radiation)		(Chemotherapy: 6 cycles if stage A, 8 cycles if stage B. followed by radiation, only if bulky disease or there is residual cancer)		
			MALT	ymphoma		
		Stage IE (H. pylori +ve)	(Н.	Stage IE pylori -ve or antibiotic failure)	Stage 2 or higher	
	 PPI, 2 antiliant amoxicillin Follow up g month for 2 	biotics (e.g. clarithromycin, a) (H.pylori eradication) (astroscopy with Biopsy every 6 2 yrs, then every 1 year	 IFRT 30 Gy (95% local control) (Local radiotherapy only) 		 Treat as indolent lymphoma + H. pylori eradication 	
	 Stomach: associated with Helicobacter pylori infection Salivary Gland: associated with Sjogren's syndrome Thyroid: associated with Hashimoto's thyroiditis Orbital (lacrimal, conjunctiva) 			associated with Sjogren's Inctiva)		



General principles of solid tumor treatments

- Early: Local & -/+ systemic
- Locally advanced: Local & systemic
- Metastatic: Systemic & -/+ Local
- Simple equation: Late presentation & Advanced stage= POOR OUTCOME. Early presentation+ Early stage= GOOD OUTCOME

Breast Cancer

Risk factors

- History of breast cancer
- Family history of breast cancer, especially in first-degree relatives
- Benign breast diseases / atypical hyperplasia
- Early menarche and late menopause
- Late first pregnancy and no pregnancy (Pregnancy suppress estrogen, and increase progestrone)
- Exogenous estrogens(HRT but not OCP)
- Radiation (HD) Hodgkin's disease
- Self awareness(Monthly self exams): Advised for all female >30.
- Mammogram: Every women aged 50-70, every 3 years.

Clinical features

- Painless lump or thickening of the skin (can be painful especially if infected.
- Thickening or swelling that persist.
- Nipple pain or retraction.
- Breast skin irritation or dimpling.
- Nipple discharge.
- Thickening or swelling that persist.

Staging of Breast Cancer

Stage 1	Stage ll	Stage III	Stage IV
(early disease)	(early disease)	(locally advanced)	(advanced)
Confined to the breast (Node-negative) (Tumor <2cm)	Spread to movable ipsilateral axillary nodes (node-positive) (Tumor 2-5cm)	Spread to the superficial structure of the chest wall involvement of ipsilateral internal mammary lymph node, or skin fixation, and/or fixed axillary nodes	Metastasis present at distant sites such as bone, liver, lungs and brain including supraclavicular lymph node involvement

Diagnosis:

→ Reasons to suspect breast cancer:

Most common cancer in females, Wide age range 20 to +70y, Can occur during pregnancy & lactation, Can occur in pre, peri & post menopausal females.

What To do If you Suspect Breast Cancer?

- Do not just reassure the patient, Do not give hormonal therapy, Do not give antibiotics
- Take Careful history & physical examination:

If -ve: screening mammogram or US in young pt → Suspicious? FNA

If +ve: Diagnostic Imaging Mammogram &US → (Palpable mass/Equivocal or suspicious → FNA.

- <u>Perform Bilateral mammogram + breast US +/- Fine needle aspiration:</u>
- Fine needle aspiration (FNA): The best initial biopsy. can differentiate between benign and malignant
- Core needle biopsy: Where cancer is considered likely, should follow FNA, assess for factors predictive of prognosis and response to treatment. These features include:
- Receptor status: ER, PR, HER2/neu, grade of tumour, Ki-67 proliferation index, molecular profiling.
- Open biopsy: The "most accurate diagnostic test" and allows for immediate resection.

Therapy (refer to the lecture for book details on breast cancer therapy)

- 1-Local therapy :
- → Surgery
- → radiotherapy
- 2- Systemic Therapy
- → systemic therapy: (endocrine treatment and chemotherapy)

Indicated in: node-positive breast cancer, large primaries, oestrogen receptor-negative cancers and HER2 cancers .

→ targeted: Hormonal and Biological therapy

Colon cancer:

Colorectal tube is a prime location for the development and growth of small polyps or tumors.

Risk factors

- Older age: older than 50 (Screening (colonoscopy) beginning at age 50).
- Personal history: colon cancer or adenomatous polyps, History of some other type of Cancer.
- Inflammatory intestinal conditions Ulcerative colitis and Crohn's disease
- Inherited syndromes Familial adenomatous polyposis and hereditary nonpolyposis colorectal cancer (also known as Lynch syndrome).
- Family history of colon cancer and colon polyps.

Other risk factors: Low-fiber, high-fat1 diet (most important) because it leads to **Chronic constipation**, A sedentary lifestyle, Diabetes, Obesity, Smoking, Alcohol, Radiation therapy for cancer.

Symptoms

- Change in bowel habit
- A feeling of bowel not emptying completely
- Unexplained Weakness or fatigue
- Unexplained weight loss, Unexplained iron deficiency anemia
- Persistent abdominal discomfort
- Rectal bleeding:

Left colon:fresh blood, present early.

Right colon: Occult blood, present with anemia.

- Post-menopausal females presenting with iron deficiency anemia should undergo a colonoscopy to rule-out colon cancer.

L65-Common solid tumors (cont.)

Screening & early detection

- Population-based screening of people over the age of 50 years by regular faecal occult blood (FOB) testing
- Colonoscopy: is the 'gold standard' for examination of the colon and rectum
- other screening modalities: Flexible sigmoidoscopy: alternative option, CT colonography (imaging)

Staging



Management

Depending on the location, options are:

- Surgery (mainly)
- Chemotherapy
- Radiation (if in the rectum)

Protective measures & prevention of colon cancer

- Decrease the risk: Vegetable, garlic, and fruits, Exercise, Milk, calcium consumption, Dietary fibre, Aspirin and other NSAIDs.
- Prevention: low-fat, high-fibre diet along with endoscopic screening.

Can we prevent Breast or Colon cancer?

Passive prevention :

- Discover Etiological factors Avoid theses factors eg. Smoking, Asbestos
- Avoid Breast cancer risk factors
- General health maintenance

Active prevention :

- Eliminate or prevent pre-invasive disease before invasion develops. (Chemoprevention, Surgery)
- Discover Pre malignant lesions Get rid of them before developing invasive cancer. (Colonic polyps & DCIS)

Feel free to vent here, no one will read it..

L66- Anemia

Definition: Anemia is a decrease in Hb in the blood below the reference level for the age and sex of the individual.

Mild anemia

- Few or no symptoms.
- Fatigue, Low exercise tolerance, SOB, palpitations, lightheadedness on arising, Sore tongue (glossitis), cracking mouth corners (angular cheilitis), peripheral paraesthesias (numb. toes..).
- Clinical features:
 - **Pica (pagophagia):** Desire to eat mud or ice. (in severe deficiency)
 - koilonychia (with iron deficiency anemia)
 - Pallor
 - Neurological symptoms (severe B12/folate deficiency).
 - smooth tongue.
 - Orthostatic lightheadedness.

Approach to Anemia

look at 3 CBC parameters and one additional test

- 1. The hemoglobin (Hb)
- 2. MCV (micro or normo or macro)
- 3. Reticulocyte count.

And the additional required test is the peripheral blood smear. Extremely important.

With the use of these 3 parameters your approach will be divided into 4 categories:

- 1. Low MCV (MCV <80 fL), microcytic anemia.
- 2. Normal MCV (MCV 80-100 fL)1 with low retic count, **normocytic anemia with inappropriately low bone marrow response.**
- 3. Normal MCV (MCV 80-100 fL) with high retic count, **normocytic anemia with appropriate marrow response.**
- 4. High MCV (MCV >100 fL), macrocytic anemia.

DDx of Anemia

MCV <80fL (TAILS)	MCV N, low retic count	MCV N, high retic count	MCV >100 fL ²
 Thalassemia¹ Anemia of inflammation chronic disease¹ Iron deficiency Lead poisoning: Extremely rare Sideroblastic anemia: Congenital, in paediatric 	 BM failure: a. Aplastic anemia: BM suppression:	 Bleeding Hemolysis Treated nutritional deficiency³ 	 Megaloblastic: (impaired nucleic acid metabolism): a. B12 deficiency b. Folate deficiency c. Drugs: such as methotrexate and HU Non megaloblastic: a. Liver disease b. Alcoholism c. Myelodysplasia (MDS) d. Thyroid disease (hypothyroidism)

Normal ranges in CBC

Hemoglobin	Male: 13.5 (14)-17.5 g/dL Female: 11.5 (12.3)-15.3 (15.5) g/dL	Low: Anemia High: Polycythemia
Hematocrit (PCV) The volume of packed RBC in 100 ml blood	Male: 40-50% Female: 36-48%	HD 10 \rightarrow mild Hb 7-10 \rightarrow moderate Hb less than 7 \rightarrow severe
RBCs ¹	Male: 4.5-5.9 x10 ⁶ /mm3 Female: 4.1-5.1 x10 ⁶ /mm3	Measures the absolute RBC count: 1-Low 2- Normal 3-High
МСУ	80-96 IL	Low: Microcytic Normal: Normocytic High: Macrocytic
мсн	34.4 ± 2.8 pg/RBC	Low: Hypochromic Normal: Normochromic
мснс	$34.4\pm1.1g/dL~of~RBC$	High: Hereditary spherocytosis
RDW	11.5 (11.7)-14.5%	High: Increased: Many types of anemia (Iron deficiency, folate deficiency), liver disease
Reticulocytes	0.5-2.5% Males: 1.6 ± 0.5% Females: 1.4 ± 0.5%	
WBC	~4000-11000	Low: Leukopenia High: Leukocytosis "We are trying to avoid these terminology because they're not specific, you have to look for differential
ESR	2-12 mm/1 st hour	

L66- Anemia (cont.)

Microcytic Anemia

Iron deficiency anemia.

Most common cause of anaemia in the world. Causes:

- Blood loss:
 - More common in female: heavy menses.
 - In males: always investigate for GI causes: Colon cancer, celiac disease(Most common in KSA).
- Increased demand: Growth, pregnancy.
- Decrease absorption
- Poor intake

Diagnosis

- Serum iron (Fe): Low.
- Ferritin level: The most accurate if it low (if high: exclude infection, because it's elevated in inflammation and infections.)
- Transferrin: the body produces transferrin in relationship to the need for iron, When iron stores are low, transferrin levels increase and vice versa.
- TIBC: Will be high

Treatment

- Oral iron replacement (ferrous sulphate or ferrous gluconate if patient has side effects)
- Parenteral iron replacement (In cases of malabsorption)
- Blood transfusion (If severe: Hb <7 g/dL)

Anemia of chronic disease

Etiology: Chronic infection, inflammation.

Pathophysiology

high levels of hepcidin expression play a key role. Cytokines released by inflammatory cells cause macrophages to accumulate iron and not transfer it to plasma or developing red cells. **Diagnosis:**

- Low serum iron but they are not deficient and don't need iron replacement, the defect is in the transportation.
- Low TIBC/serum transferrin.
- normal or raised serum ferritin.
- Peripheral blood smear usually reveals normocytic and normochromic anemia.'

Treatment: Correct underlying disease.

Normocytic Anemia: haemolytic anemias

Haemolytic anaemias are caused by increased destruction of red cells. any condition which leads to a reduction in the mean lifespan of the red cell is a haemolytic disorder.

How to differentiate between haemolytic anemia and anemia due to acute blood loss?

By clinical or laboratory findings, these 3 are haemolytic marker (high LDH and indirect bilirubin, low haptoglobin)

	Hemolysis	Bleeding
MCV	Normal or high	Normal or high
Retics	High	Normal or high
Bleeding	No	Yes, not always apparent
LDH	High	Normal
Haptoglobin	Low	Normal
Indirect bilirubin	High	Normal

Normocytic Anemia: haemolytic anemias (cont.)

Diagnosis of haemolytic anemias

- Low Hb/Hct
- Elevated reticulocyte count
- Low haptoglobin (with intravascular hemolysis)
- Elevated LDH—released when RBCs are destroyed
- Elevated indirect (unconjugated) bilirubin

Autoimmune hemolytic anemia

increased red cell destruction due to red cell autoantibodies. IgG or IgM labeled as "warm" or "cold" respectively. Cold hemolytic anemia often post-infectious, worsens with exposure of periphery to cold temperatures.

- Diagnosis
 - Coomb's test: Detects presence of either antibody on RBC.
- **Treatment:** Steroids/splenectomy- reduces immune function and RBC sequestration, respectively.

Lack of RBC enzyme makes cells very sensitive to oxidative stress the enzyme

G6PD oxidizing glucose-6-phosphate to 6-phosphoglycerate with the reduction of NADP to NADPH. The reaction is necessary in red cells where it is

the only source of NADPH, which is used via glutathione to protect the red cell from oxidative damage.

• Sickle cell disease

- ✤ one of the most common autosomal recessive gene defects.
- The specific Sickle cell mutation is substitution of hydrophobic valine for glutamic acid at position 6 of the beta-chain.

G6PD deficiency

Pathogenesis

In patients with sickle cell anemia, HbA is absent and completely replaced by HbS, whereas in heterozygous carriers, only about half is replaced.

Clinical features

- Anemia.
- Spleen: RBC destruction by the spleen. Splenic sequestration: Vaso-occlusion produces an acute painful enlargement of the spleen. Multiple infarctions: eventually leads to a fibrotic non- functioning spleen.
- Vascular features Arterial occlusion: leads to infarcts, pain crises, acute chest syndrome, stroke, MI, retinal and renal problems. Pulmonary hypertension
- Acute chest syndrome : pulmonary hypertension and chronic lung disease are the commonest causes of death in adults with sickle cell disease.
 - Long-term problems: Growth and development

Diagnosis

Sickle solubility test: A mixture of HbS in a reducing solution such as sodium dithionite gives a turbid appearance because of precipitation of HbS, whereas normal Hb gives a clear solution.

Hb electrophoresis: always needed to confirm the diagnosis. There is no HbA, 80-95% HbSS and 2–20% HbF. **Management**: Hydroxycarbamide (the first drug).

Thalassemia

Characterized by hypochromic microcytic red cells

Beta Thalassemia

homozygous β-thalassaemia (major): either no normal β chains are produced (β0) or β-chain production is very reduced (β+). There is an excess of α chains, which precipitate in erythroblasts and red cells causing ineffective erythropoiesis and haemolysis. The excess α chains combine with whatever β, δ and γ chains are produced, resulting in increased quantities of HbA2 and HbF

They are transfusion dependent, and they get iron overload and complication of it.

• **heterozygous β-thalassaemia:** Carrier of the trait "thalassemia minor" Or "thalassemia trait".

<mark>Beta Thalassemia major</mark>

Presentation: Prominent malar eminence and malalignment of the teeth, secondary to BM hyperplasia.

Extramedullary haemopoiesis (leads to hepatosplenomegaly and bone expansion \rightarrow classical thalassaemic facies) chipmunk face. **Skull X-rays:** shows the characteristic 'hair on end' appearance.

Management : Long term folic acid supplements, regular transfusion: If transfusion requirements increase,

splenectomy may help. The standard iron-chelating agent remains desferrioxamine

Ascorbic acid increases the urinary excretion of iron in response to desferrioxamine.

Beta Thalassemia intermedia

Symptomatic with moderate anaemia

Presentation: combination of homozygous mild β +- and α -thalassaemia leading to reduced α -chain precipitation(less hemolysis).

Alpha Thalassemia

- Often caused by gene deletions.

Four-gene deletion

- no α -chain synthesis and only Hb Barts (γ 4) is present \rightarrow Hb Barts cannot carry oxygen and is incompatible with life.
- Infants are either stillborn at 28–40 weeks or die very shortly after birth

Three-gene deletion (HbH disease)

- Has four β chains with low levels of HbA and Hb Barts.
- HbH does not transport oxygen and precipitates in erythroblasts and erythrocytes.
- Features: Moderate anaemia, Splenomegaly.
- Two-gene deletion (α-thalassaemia trait)

One-gene deletion: blood picture is usually normal.

Iron Deficiency vs Thalassemia

	Iron deficiency anemia	Thalassemia
MCV	Low (80-70s)	Very low (70-60s)
RBC	Low	High or normal
RDW	High	normal
Ferritin/iron level	Low	High or normal

L66- Anemia (cont.)

Megaloblastic anemia

characterized by the presence in the bone marrow of erythroblasts with delayed nuclear maturation because of defective DNA synthesis(Megaloblasts).

B12 deficiency

Causes

1- Dietary: <u>strict vegans.</u>

<u>2- Pernicious anemia:</u>

- Pathophysiology: Autoimmune attack → atrophic gastritis & loss of parietal cells in the gastric mucosa → failure of IF production & achlorhydria → lack of B12 protection in stomach and gut → B12 malabsorption.
- **Investigations:** need to test if the IF is deficient: Antibodies against intrinsic factor, Anti- parietal cell antibodies, anti-IF antibodies

Clinical features: Neurological changes: only with very low levels of serum B1

Investigations

- Haematological: Features of megaloblastic anemia
- Bone marrow: megaloblastic erythropoiesis
- LDH: Raised
- Serum B12: usually low
- Schilling test

Treatment

• hydroxocobalamin.

Folate deficiency

- Investigations:
 - Serum folate: low (normal levels are 4–18 µg/L (5–63 nmol/L)).
 - Red cell folate level: The amount of folate in the red cells is a better measure of tissue folate.
- Treatment: daily oral folic acid
 - Correction of folate deficiency will correct hematologic abnormalities without correcting neurological abnormalities
 - Check B12 and correct first
 - Prophylactic folic acid in pregnancy prevents megaloblastosis in women at risk, and reduces the risk of fetal neural tube defects.

Feel free to vent here, no one will read it..

Inherited hypercoagulable states:

- Antithrombin:
 - Antithrombin deficiency (e.g. in liver disease): Abnormality affecting the alpha 2 globulin (synthesized in liver) which helps neutralizing the activity of thrombin (IIa), Xa, XIa, XIIa and plasmin —> has a strong risk factor for VTE especially during pregnancy.
 - Antithrombin Functional Assays:
 - Antithrombin-heparin cofactor assay.
 - Progressive antithrombin assay.

• Prothrombin:

- Prothrombin Gene mutation: resulting in elevated plasma levels of Factor II.
 - Genetic Test (20210GA).
- Prothrombotic mutation ($\rightarrow \downarrow$ thrombin inactivation).

• Protein C & S deficiency:

- Protein C and S inhibit activated cofactors Va and VIIIa, respectively.
- Protein C is consumed and levels are low in vitamin K deficiency (both C & S are vit K dependent), DIC, liver disease, etc.
- Acquired Protein S deficiency may be induced by OCPs, pregnancy, or nephrotic syndrome.

• Factor V Leiden:

- Most common form of inherited thrombophilia, and Commonest cause of thrombophilia in West.
- Activated Protein C Resistance.
- FV Leiden $\rightarrow \uparrow$ thrombin generation, (\downarrow anticoagulation) and \downarrow inactivation of factor FVIIIa (also \downarrow PAI inactivation $\rightarrow \downarrow$ fibrinolysis).

Acquired hypercoagulable states:

Antiphospholipid syndrome:

- Could be primary: sudden+extensive thrombosis OR secondary: e.g. SLE.
- Clinical manifestation: Deep vein thrombosis, **early spontaneous abortions** (recurrent abortion), Livido reticularis.
- Diagnostic criteria: presence of <u>at least one of the clinical criteria and at least one of the</u> <u>laboratory criteria</u>
 - Clinical criteria: Vascular thrombosis E.g. DVT, abortion, pregnancy complications.
 - Laboratory criteria: Anticardiolipin antibodies (IgG or IgM), Lupus anticoagulant antibodies.

Oral contraceptives and Hormone replacement therapy:

- Factor V Leiden + OCP 50 x.
- increased factor Vlla levels as well as depressed antithrombin and protein S activity.

• Cancer:

- \circ \uparrow tissue factor.
- ↑ procoagulant factor VIII and fibrinogen.
- Compression/invasion of vessels.

Hyperhomocysteinemia:

• Developmental delay, osteoporosis, ocular abnormalities, VTE, and severe premature CAD.

• Increased arteriosclerosis.

Pregnancy and postpartum:

• **Acquired prethrombotic state** in combination with **impaired venous outflow** because of venous compression.

L67: Hypercoagulable state/ DVT

Hypercoagulable state/DVT:

- Clinical presentation:
 - Arterial: MI/Stroke.
 - Venous: DVT/PE.
- PE clinical presentation: Sudden SOB / sudden sharp chest pain (pleuritic) / hemoptysis / sweat+anxiety.
 - PE with low BP (<90 mmHg) is called massive PE (IMPORTANT.)

DVT(deep vein thrombosis):

- <u>Sign & Symptoms</u>: leg (or arm) pain, tenderness, swelling, redness, and shiny skin.
 <u>Symptoms are neither sensitive nor specific for DVT.</u>
- <u>Risk factors</u>: The presence of risk factors is a clue that VTE may develop or that it may already be present. (inherited + acquired).
- <u>Investigation</u>:
 - D-Dimer: Useful in low pre-test probability to exclude diagnosis of VTE.
 - Compression: direct approach, moderate to high pre-test probability.
 - Contrast venography (Golden standard): invasive
 - Non-invasive testing: Plethysmography, MRI, CT, V/Q scanning, Pulmonary angiography.

• <u>Treatment</u>:

- Conventional Anticoagulation: Heparin + warfarin is more effective than warfarin alone; all cases of VTE should be "bridged" with heparin.
 - Heparin.
 - LMWH: Enoxaparin, Tinzaparin, Dalteparin.
 - Contraindicated in Dialysis dependent renal failure.
 - why is LMWH better than UFH?
 - Less risk of Heparin induced thrombocytopenia
 - No need for monitoring (UFH aPTT level is 1.5 times the mean of the control value which is 1.5- 2.5)
 - LMWH (SC) in stable cases of VTE but UFH (IV) needed in hemodynamically unstable patients or pts who need procedures.
 - Warfarin (Vit K antagonist):
 - Inhibition of the vit K- dependent Factor (II,VII,IX, &X) 1972.
 - Monitor INR therapeutic INR 2-3 in most cases.
 - **Treatment continued for 3-6 months** mostly but longer or life long AC may be needed in recurrent cases of VTE.
 - Treatment of choice for ESRF pt, prosthetic heart valves pt, and antiphospholipid syndrome.
- Direct Oral Anticoagulant (DOAC):
 - Direct thrombin (factor 2) inhibitor: Dabigatan.
 - Factor X inhibitors: Rivaroxaban, Apixaban.
 - **DOAC** should now be the default choice for patients with DVT and/or PE.
 - Advantages of DOAC: no need for bridging, no need for monitoring, smaller doses can be used as prophylaxis.

DVT(deep vein thrombosis):

- <u>Treatment</u>:
 - Anticoagulants in VTE: Current Recommendation
 - Long-term therapy: usually 3 months
 - Longer time-limited period: Treatment longer than 3 months (6,12,24 months) but for a limited period.
 - Extended anticoagulant therapy: longer than 3 months (6.12.24 months) + continued indefinitely (for life).
 - For patient who has unprovoked VTE + low or moderate bleeding risk = extended anticoagulant therapy
 - For patient who has unprovoked VTE + high bleeding risk = long term therapy (3 months only)

• Overdose & Antidotes:

- For Heparin \rightarrow Protamine sulphate.
- For Warfarin \rightarrow Vit K and fresh frozen plasma.
- Idarucizumab for Dabigatrin.
- Reverse for factor X inhibitors: Andexanet alfa.
- Thrombolytic therapy: (reserved for massive PE), t-PA, u-PA, urokinase, alteplase.
- IVC filters: Indicated in cases absolute contraindication + conventional anticogulation proven ineffective.
- Thrombectomy (arterial).



a little closer!

CHIBIRD

L68- Bleeding Disorders

Overview of Hemostasis					
Hemostasis	The process through which bleeding is controlled.				
Higo () there are sum in a constraint of the same in a con	 Primary Hemostasis: Endothelium Injury Platelet plug Von Willebrand Factor 		Secondary Hemo Clotting F Soluble F Fibrin.	o stasis: Factors Protein Fibrinogen converted to insoluble	
Lab tests	Platelet count (Normal: 150 - 400 x 10°). < 100,000 (Thrombocytopenia) • 50,000 - 100,000 (Mild): Follow up • < 50,000 (Severe): Needs intervention • Platelets are produced in the Bone Marrow by fragmentation of the cytoplasm of megakaryocytes. • PLT Life Span (7 - 10 days). Prothrombin time (PT): • Measures the effectiveness of the extrinsic pathway. • NORMAL VALUE (10-15 SECS)				
	Bleeding time : PROVIDES ASSESSMENT COUNT AND FUNCTION (2-8 MINUTES)	OF PLATELET I NORMAL VALUE	 Thrombin time : A Measure of Fibrinolytic Pathway. NORMAL VALUE 9-13 SECS. 		
Bleeding disorders					
Definition	• Bleeding disorders are a group of disorders that share the inability to form a proper blood clot. They are characterized by extended bleeding after injury, surgery, trauma or menstruation.				
Primary hemostasis (only) disorders: Characterized by Mucocutaneous bleeding - Petechial rash - Epistaxis - Menorrhagia. <u>Thrombocytopenia? First ask to examine the peripheral blood smear</u>					
Disease	Etiology	Diagnosis		Treatment	
Quantitative					
Immune Thrombocytopen Purpura (ITP)	- Primary: Isolated thrombocytopenia due to immune platelet destruction (auto AB to megakaryocytes) - Secondary.	Diagnosis of exclusion. • CBC (isolated thrombocytopenia) • PBS (large platelet) • Antiplatelet antibodies (Anti-GpIIb/IIIa)		No bleeding, count > 50,000: NO treatment - 1st line: • Steroids & IVIG - 2nd line: Splenectomy & Rituximab - Refractory: Romiplostim.	
Qualitative					
Bernard soulier	Autosomal recessive Deficient platelet GP Ib-IX	Peripheral smear: Giant platelets ↓ Platelets Abnormal ristocetin cofactor assay 			
Glanzmann thrombasthenia	Autosomal recessive Deficient platelet GP IIb-IIIa	Normal platelets Abnormal results on platelet aggregation testing confirm the diagnosis.			
Secondary or Drug induced	Uremia (Renal disease) drugs: e.g. aspirin or clopidogrel	•		Treat underlying cause Stop the drug.	

Bleeding disorders cont.

Secondary hemostasis (only) disorders:

Characterized by hematomas, hemarthrosis, bruising, bleeding (mucosal, GI, GU, joint) deep bleeding.

Disease	Etiology	Diagnosis	Treatment	
Hemophilia A	 Congenital: Inherited deficiency of factor VIII an X-linked recessive disorder Secondary: Development of autoantibodies most commonly directed against FVIII (ass. with pregnancy, malignancy, advanced age). 	 Factor VIII Assay: low. Mixing study (corrected) Normal VWF & PT. 	 Replacement of the deficient coagulation Factor 	
Hemophilia B	Inherited deficiency of factor IX; also called Christmas Disease; an X-linked recessive disorder.	 Factor IX Assay: low Mixing study (corrected) Normal VWF & PT. 	 Desmopressin Antifibrinolytic agents (Tranexamic Acid, Aminocaproic Acid 	
Hemophilia C	Inherited deficiency of factor XI ; also called Rosenthal Syndrome; an autosomal recessive disorder (Ashkenazi Jews).	 Factor XI Assay: Low Normal PT & PTT 		
Factor XIII Deficiency		 Factor XIII Assay: FXIII Deficiency Normal PT & PTT 		

Baseline factor activity level

- **Severe Hemophilia** : defined as <1 % factor activity (<0.01 IU/mL).
- ★ Moderate Hemophilia : defined as a factor activity level ≥1 % of normal and <5 % of normal (≥0.01 <0.05 IU/mL).
- ★ Mild Hemophilia : defined as a factor activity level ≥5 % of normal and <40 % of normal (≥0.05 <0.40 IU/mL).

Disorders not specific to one step of hemostasis.

Clinical features: Bleeding of Mucous membranes, skin cuts, post-trauma or postoperative

Disease	Etiology	Diagnosis	Treatment		
	(most common bleeding disorder) Defect of Von Willebrand Factor: Quantitative (type 1 & 3) Qualitative (type 2) Clinical features: Bleeding of Mucous membranes, skin cuts, post-trauma or postoperative				
Von Willebrand Disease	Congenital: Autosomal dominant. Normal function of VWF: - Mediate platelet adhesion. Acquired :rare, caused by autoantibodies	Normal aPTT in (Type 1 & 2). Prolonged aPTT in (Type 2N, 2B, & 3) vWF: Ag. FVIII assay (low in 2N & 3). Plt count (low in 2M).	 Replacement of exogenous vWF concentrate. Desmopressin Antifibrinolytic agents (Tranexamic Acid, Aminocaproic Acid 		
Disseminated Intravascular Coagulation	Trauma Septic shock Malignancy (esp <mark>APML)</mark> Major trauma	Prolonged PT and aPTT. decreased fibrinogen. Low plt. High LDH. Low haptoglobin.	 Treat underlying process . fresh frozen plasma (FFP) Cryoprecipitate 		

L68- Bleeding Disorders (cont.)

How to differentiate between bleeding disorders?						
Disorder	Platelets	Bleeding time	INR	PT	aPTT	Other:
Thrombocytopenia	\downarrow	↑	Normal	Normal	Normal	-
Platelet dysfunction (e.g. aspirin therapy or uremia)	Normal	¢	Normal	Normal	Normal	-
Extrinsic pathway (e.g. Factor VII def.)	Normal	Normal	¢	¢	Normal	Specific factor assay: Low Mixing study: correctable
Intrinsic pathway (e.g. Hemophilia A, B & heparin therapy).	Normal	Normal	Normal	Normal	¢	-
Von Willebrand disease (vWD)	Normal	¢	Normal	Normal	Normal/ ↑	vWF assay: low (dominant) FVIII assay (low)
Disseminated intravascular coagulation (DIC)	Ļ	Ţ	¢	¢	¢	-

Feel free to vent here, no one will read it.

Introduction

• A group of malignant disorders affecting the blood and blood forming tissues and results in an accumulation of dysfunctional cells because of a loss of regulation in cell division.

Clinical Manifestations				
Bone marrow failure	Leukemic cells infiltrate patient's organs			
 Overcrowding by abnormal cells Inadequate production of normal marrow elements Anemia, thrombocytopenia, ↓ number and function of WBCs 	 Splenomegaly Hepatomegaly Lymphadenopathy Bone pain, meningeal irritation, oral lesions (chloromas) 			

Acute leukemias				
Overview	 Acute leukemias arise from the early stages of hematopoietic differentiation (Immature cells). Acute Leukemias carry high mortality but are CURABLE. Abrupt onset. 			
Cell line	Acute Myelogenous Leukemia (AML)	Acute Lymphocytic Leukemia (ALL)		
Characteris tics	 Leukemia characterized by proliferation of myeloid tissue (as of the bone marrow and spleen) and an abnormal increase in the number of granulocytes, myelocytes, and myeloblasts in the circulating blood. One fourth of all leukemias and (85%) (90%) of the acute leukemias in adults 	 More common in children and adolescents than in adults. It is the most common malignancy in children (25% of all cancers). 15% of acute leukemia in adults Lymphadenopathy, Splenomegaly, Hepatomegaly & CNS: 15% 		
Group	• Adults Males > Females	• Children Males > Females		
↑Risk:	• Cytotoxic chemo, Radiation, Benzene.	• Trisomy 21 (Down syndrome) 15-fold ↑ in risk		
Diagnosis	 >20% blasts in peripheral blood or BM. Blasts either by morphology (Auer rods) or phenotyping with flowcytometry, IHC, cytochemical: myeloperoxidase (MPO). In Acute Promyelocytic Leukemia (APL) - (PML-RARA) (M3): t(15,17) using FISH. "ProMyelocytic Leukemia-Retinoic Acid Receptor α" 	 Flow cytometry on peripheral blood. Acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL): if >25% BM blasts. Acute lymphoblastic LYMPHOMA (LBL): if <25% BM blasts + mass lesion. Absence of granules/ Auer rods 		
Manageme nt	 Induction (to achieve remission -defined < 5% blasts in a BM that is 20% or more cellular-): Chemotherapy. Consolidation or "post remission" therapy: Chemotherapy or Allogenic stem cell transplant. APL: Low risk: All trans retinoic acid (ATRA) + Arsenic (ATO) High risk: ATRA + Chemo <u>+</u> ATO. Relapse? Autologous transplant. 	 ALL & LBL are the same disease & treated the same: Induction 4-6 weeks > Consolidation 3 months > Late Intensification (re-induction) 3 months > Maintenance 2-3 years B-ALL should be checked for Philadelphia chromosome t(9,22); if positive TKI (Imatinib or Dasatinib) is added throughout therapy. All B-ALL should be checked for CD20 and if positive Rituximab should be added. Frequent IT MTX if documented CNS disease +/- cranial radiation. 		

L69- Acute & Chronic Leukemia

Chronic leukemias				
Overview	Chronic leukemias arise from late stages of differentiation (Mature cells)			
Cell line	Chronic Myelogenous Leukemia (CML)	Chronic Lymphocytic Leukemia (CLL)		
Characteris tics	 Chronic, stable phase followed by acute, aggressive (blastic) phase Philadelphia (Ph) Chromosome → BCR-ABL gene The chromosome abnormality that causes chronic myeloid leukemia (CML) (9 & 22) Genetic marker 	 Most common adult leukemia in Western countries. 		
Diagnosis	 Typical findings in blood and bone marrow > then confirmed by the demonstration of the Ph chromosome by conventional cytogenetics, FISH analysis, or RT-PCR. 	 CBC w/ diff → B-ALC >5000; "smudge cells" & small mature appearing lymphocytes w/ dense chromatin, scant basophilic cytoplasm Additional labs: Peripheral blood flow cytometry → CD19+, CD20+ (dim), CD5+, CD23+, κ/λ restricted, surface Ig+ (dim), CD10- BM bx unnecessary unless progressive cytopenias; 		
Manageme nt	 Imatinib: a Tyrosine-kinase inhibitor. Stem cell transplant for selected patients. 	 CLL is incurable Indications for tx: Disease-related sx "active disease". 		
Complicati ons		 Immunodeficiency, Autoimmune hemolytic anemia, Pure red cell aplasia, immune thrombocytopenia, Transformation 		
Other Leukemias				
	 Hairy Cell Leukemia: 2% of all adult leukemias Usually in males > 40 years old Cells have a "hairy" appearance Multiple myeloma, Aplastic anemia, 	Others: Myelodysplastic syndromes, Leukemoid reaction, Severe megaloblastic anemia, Lymphomas		

