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The editors will decide, as before, whether to also publish it in a future paper issue.

### Problems with scoring bruises

We write to draw attention to two problems with the recent study on a scoring system for bruising by Dunstan et al.1

Firstly, the authors did not publish confidence intervals for the likelihood ratios (LRs) derived from different score threshold values (table 3), thereby not allowing readers to judge whether the LRs are statistically—let alone clinically—significant.

Secondly, the authors neglect the phenomenon of spectrum bias. This is a well described feature of many tests, whereby sensitivity and specificity (and hence derived LRs) of a test vary with disease severity or prevalence. Examples of spectrum bias have been described with several tests including exercise stress testing2 and UTI diagnosis.3

The study population had a prevalence of physical abuse of 40%, much higher than the general paediatric population. Since test performance—that is, LR—is not independent of the pre-test probability, the LRs generated by a study done on this population cannot necessarily be used in a population with a much lower prevalence of abuse, as the authors have done in table 4. Since spectrum bias tends to reduce test performance as the pre-test probability falls,4 the LR for any given score threshold would be smaller than that quoted when applied to a population with a lower prevalence of physical abuse.

As most settings would expect to have a lower prevalence of physical abuse than the study, this reduces the value of the proposed scoring system as a clinical tool.

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### References


### Does cefotaxime eradicate nasopharyngeal carriage of *N meningitidis*

We enrolled 43 children admitted with an unequivocal clinical diagnosis of meningococcal sepsis into a study to determine whether cefotaxime eradicated nasopharyngeal carriage of *Neisseria meningitidis*. In 28 cases (70%) the diagnosis was confirmed by positive culture from blood, nose, throat, or skin scraping, detection of meningococcal DNA in blood by polymerase chain reaction, or convalescent meningococcal serology. All children were treated with intravenous cefotaxime for seven days. Nasopharyngeal swabs were obtained on the day of admission in 42 of these children, and all children had swabs repeated every day until there were at least two negative swabs.

On admission, the throat and nasopharyngeal swabs were both positive for meningococcus in two patients; in another two patients, the nasopharyngeal swab was positive while the throat swab was negative. In three patients the swabs became negative after 24 hours of treatment, and in one child it became negative after 48 hours. In these children and others in whom the swabs were negative from the day of admission, subsequent swabs remained negative.

Compared to a previous study1 that reported a nasopharyngeal carriage rate of 50% on admission and showed that the yield of meningococcus in throat swabs was unaffected by prior administration of penicillin, the yield from throat and nose swabs in this study (9.5%) was poor. This may reflect the fact that in practice many of these swabs were taken after the child had been given the first dose of cefotaxime. The finding suggests that cefotaxime, like ceftiraxone,5 is effective in eradicating nasopharyngeal carriage, and in children treated with cefotaxime, additional prophylaxis with rifampicin is not necessary. However, no recommendations for the use of cefotaxime alone can emanate from these findings as the sample size was small and study design did not compare cefotaxime with gold standard treatment (either rifampicin or ceftriaxone). We are keen to coordinate a follow up multicentre study this winter involving paediatric intensive care units across the country to compare the efficacy of ceftriaxone with cefotaxime on eradication of meningococcal carriage. Interested units are kindly requested to contact us.

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### References


### Pneumocystis carinii pneumonia in an infant with transient hypogammaglobulinaemia of infancy

Transient hypogammaglobulinaemia of infancy (THI) is characterised by prolongation of the physiological decline in serum immunoglobulin concentrations seen in the first six months of life. The incidence reported from an Australian paediatric centre was estimated as 23 per 100 live births. It has been reported that THI does not usually predispose to significant infection.

A male infant born at term to non-consanguineous parents presented at 3.5 months with cough, tachypnoea (70 breaths/minute), wheeze, crepitations, and hypoxia. A chest radiograph showed widespread infiltrate and patchy opacification in the hilar regions and upper lobes. *Pneumocystis carinii* was identified in bronchoalveolar lavage by toluidine blue staining. The immunological findings of this child were consistent with those of THI with an IgG level less than the fifth centile and absent serum IgA.6 Which resolved with age (IgG at presentation 3.9 g/l (normal: 1.39–8.04); at 5 months 2.23 (1.39–8.04); at 10 months 1.77 (2.02–11.76); at 17 months 7.51 (2.71–13.78); IgA at 5 months <0.07 g/l (normal: 0.14–0.69); at 13 months 0.14 (0.17–1.34)) and evidence of specific antibody production to tetanus, diphtheria, and *Haemophilus influenzae* type b following immunisation.1 T cell numbers (total lymphocytes 6.2 x 10⁹, CD3 68%, CD4 56%, CD8 15%) and phytohaemagglutinin induced proliferation were normal. At 3 years the child was well with normal IgG, IgA, and IgM levels.

*Pneumocystis carinii* pneumonia presenting in the first three months of life is an infection typically seen in patients with significant T cell immunodeficiencies and X linked hyper IgM. These were excluded by normal T cell number and function and by normal CD40 ligand expression and mutation analysis. There are reports of *Pneumocystis carinii* pneumonia in immunocompetent infants8 and agammaglobulinaemia.9 This is the first description of *Pneumocystis carinii* pneumonia in a patient with THI.

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### References


Procalcitonin as a prognostic marker in children with meningococcal septic shock

Carroll and coworkers confirm the findings from Karabocuglu et al who reported that procalcitonin (PCT) was higher in children with severe meningococcemia (fever, petechiae or purpura, and hemodynamic instability) than in children with systemic meningococcal infection without shock (291.29 ± 167 v 19.7 ± 23 mg/l, p<0.001). Unfortunately, information is lacking in the report of Carroll et al., namely: a clear definition of severe MCD (defined in their paper as a Glasgow Meningococcal Septicaemia Prognostic Score >8) and median PCT value (optimum (Fisher’s test; p=0.0004)).

For each severity index, a table and the figure.

In our study, PCT on admission was as accurate as the PRISM value and PRISM probability of death calculated within 24 hrs or at the time of death, and more accurate than the PRISM level in classifying survivors and nonsurvivors of MSS. These results accord with those of Hatherill et al who observed, in 37 children with MSS, that admission PCT levels (values not indicated) was higher in nonsurvivors (11%) than in survivors (p=0.04) and related to the severity of organ failure (p=0.02); however, in the whole group of children with septic shock, whatever the causative organism, admission PCT functioned worse than the PRISM score (AUC 0.73 (0.59-0.88) vs 0.71 (0.71-0.91); statistical comparison not performed). The PRISM score is accepted in PICUs worldwide and has been reported to accurately predict outcome of meningococcal disease.1

As, however, it is a 24 hrs observation period, it cannot be used as an inclusion criterion for clinical trials. Admitted PCT may represent a good alternative tool if further studies confirm its ability to predict mortality.

Table 1 Performance characteristics of PCT, CRP, and PRISM score in 35 children with MSS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Severity index (%)</th>
<th>PCT</th>
<th>CRP</th>
<th>PRISM value</th>
<th>PRISM probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sensitivity</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specificity</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive predictive value</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative predictive value</td>
<td>100</td>
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<td>100</td>
<td>91</td>
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<tr>
<td>Well classified</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

References


Incidence of severe and fatal reactions to foods

Although the article by Macdougall et al regarding the incidence of severe and fatal reactions to food would be seem to be reassuring, we would like to express some concerns and raise some questions about the data presented. The first question is whether the ascertainment of cases is really as complete as the authors suggest. We acknowledge that the UK medical system may allow better reporting and access to mortality data than that of the US. However, the records acquired as described seem to represent the same underreporting issues as those in the US. Is it really unlikely that the BPSSU misses a significant number of cases? Based upon a well characterised population in Olmstead county Minnesota and extrapolating the data to a US population of 280 million, it may be estimated that there are 200 deaths from anaphylaxis reactions to food each year.

A paper published in 2001, described methodology in which a National Registry had been established and was well publicised to US allergists.1 Very few reports were made by allergists and none by other physicians. No cases were initially reported by physicians who conduct research in food allergy. Nearly all the cases were ascertained from the premises. These news articles appeared in local newspapers and were not reported in media with a large regional or national circulation. In an earlier effort to account for all cases of food anaphylaxis, only in Colorado, a significantly
A second concern is the reporting of cases only up to age 15. In the paper mentioned above, of 32 fatalities 10 occurred in young-
sters up to age 15. An additional 10 occurred in adolescents aged 16 to 19. Why did MacDougall et al not include all adolescents?
A third question must always be raised when fatal food anaphylaxis is studied. Is it not possible that cases of fatal asthma were actually initiated by unidentified allergic reactions to food? All authors in this field are likely to agree that the ultimate cause of death may be irreversible airway obstruction, and all would agree that poorly controlled asthma increases the risk of fatal anaphylactic re-
tions to food, but we would suggest that the trigger responsible for individual asthma fatalities is not always determined. What about fatalities that never reach the emer-
gency department and are misclassified on death certificates as asthma fatalities? Indi-
viduals that die at home and are classified as asthma deaths are unlikely to be further investigated by either the US or the UK.
Fourthly, the authors’ definition of severity seems incomplete. Individuals with severe food reactions who self administer epine-
phrine often do not go to hospital, are less likely to have reactions that require hospitali-
sation or cause death, and often they do not report these reactions to their physicians unless specifically queried. Some survive the reaction without treatment, become convinced that they have a specific food, and never tell their physician. We could argue about the possible progression of these epi-
sodes to near fatal or fatal reactions, but the point of view we take is that there are cases not under reported. The fifth issue concerns the safe administration of epinephrine. We disa-
agree about the risk to children of the administration of a single dose of epinephrine as opposed to withholding that dose. We have no disagreement about aggressive treatment of asthma concurrently, and in fact we think that the ultimate cause of death, seems very small. Differ-
ent parents will come to different views about how to proceed faced by a severe but very small risk, just as we all do in many aspects of our lives.

References

Authors’ reply
We thank Bock et al for their interest in our article. We respect their views on the interpretation of the data but it is of course for each reader to come to their own opinion on these. We would like to respond to their com-
ments on the accuracy and validity of our data.
Did our paper under ascertain deaths? Bock et al base their concerns on our methods of case ascertainment and on comparison with another study. We cannot be certain about this but as the text indicated we used many sources and spoke to many experts in the field. We did not search local and newspapers but this would have been almost impossible as few were on CD-ROM in the 1990s. As mentioned, we did search national newspapers and all cases we came across were already known through one of our other sources. Finally, since publication, no-one has told us of a case we appear to have missed.
We specifically studied children up to 15 years because this is the group we were inter-
ested in. Many recommendations on risks to children are based on inferences from data covering all ages and we wanted to bring a proper paediatric perspective. Indeed the interpretation Bock et al give to the paper they cite is grossly misleading. They suggest extrapolation to a US population would lead to 200 deaths from food each year yet the paper, in which there is only one death (occurring during exercise), covers all ages and reactions to all allergens, not just food.

The issue of whether asthma deaths may have been precipitated by food 3 is an important question which we addressed “If a child’s symptoms are only asthmatic and no allergen is suspected, then there is no means for attributing such reactions to food or for knowing if a causal link exists”. Furthermore, such deaths will never have been reported in surveys of food allergy in other countries or in other age groups. No group has been able to address this question satisfactorily and it is a key area for further research.
We are not sure we agree that children, who have self administered epinephrine, often do not go to hospital. However we do not know the proportion and said as much, excluding this group from our definition of severity.
Finally we agree that education of profes-
sionals and the public should continue based on the best data available. This must include those parents whose children are truly at high risk as well as those many parents that think any immediate hypersensitivity reaction to food means their child is at high risk of an allergic asthma death; when in reality the risk, in the absence of asthma, seems very small. Differ-
ent parents will come to different views about how to proceed faced by a severe but very small risk, just as we all do in many aspects of our lives.
does not lie in assigning a maintenance fluid allotment. Rather, the source of error lies largely with failure to accurately estimate the volume of deficit and the tendency to automatically assume a severe degree of dehydration. From our experience with over 450 consecutive cases of dehydration, moderate and severe were DKA, and our weight gain data, severe DKA (le severe ketoacidemia) does not necessarily mean severe dehydration; the converse is also true. The degree of dehydration ranges from negligible (<1 %) to extreme (>20 %).

Severe ketoacidemia, however, does cause vasoconstriction which may be manifested peripherally by cool, mottled skin, and Kussmaul breathing which leads to visible cherry- or cranberries.

The striking appearance of a parched mouth and the presence of cool, even mottled skin without a critical assessment of vital signs and examination of distal (foot) pulses often results in an erroneous impression of shock and “severe dehydration.” A method for estimation of the volume of deficit was described in 1990 and we continue to use this attempt. Successful resuscitation usually requires not only gradual deficit replacement (evenly over 48 hours) but an accurate estimation of the volume of deficit along with correction of the clinical and biochemical response. If the deficit is assumed to be 10–15% but is actually only 3%, that patient will receive excess water independent of the more gradual timeframe and independent of the volume deficit. Guidelines that have proposed “safe” limits to fluid volumes administered such as 4 litres/m²/day or 50 ml/kg body weight/4 hours’ violate the concept of the individualised assessment of the degree of dehydration and will invariably overhydrate the mild to moderately dehydration child; the problem is compounded when actual body weight is used instead of ideal body weight in fluid calculations for the obese patient. On the other hand, certain patients, particularly those with complicating illness—for example, septic shock, pancreatitis—may require more than 20 ml/kg of fluid resuscitation in the first treatment hour and more than 50 ml/kg in the first four hours. Setting arbitrary fluid volume limits per hour or per day endanger particularly those patients at the mild and severe ends of the dehydration spectrum. Although the insult would be greater with hypotonic fluid, overhydration occurs readily with isotonic fluid as well when water requirements are overestimated.

DKA represents the effects of a complex disruption of normal metabolism, which leads to metabolic death if left untreated. Shock (decreased peripheral pulses, with or without hypotension), if present, should be corrected rapidly. Insulin should be given preferably by continuous, low dose, intravenous infusion, as soon as possible to begin correction of ketoacidemia/ketoacidosis. Regardless of the serum concentration of glucose, insulin is required to stimulate the hepatic fatty acid/carnitine cycle leading to ketoacid formation. A delay in insulin administration only serves to enhance and prolong ketoacidemia, thereby extending the period of time in which the patient is vulnerable to central nervous system and other complications.

Our proposed management strategy may not satisfy the call for simplicity but it is an easily learned approach. It requires an understanding of relevant, known pathophysiology, the monitoring of serial physical examination and laboratory studies with special attention to correction of acidemia and osmolality, and the anticipatory care that is inherent in the care of the critically ill. Physiologic management was first described between 1988 and 1990, and set forth with additional detail and data in 1994. It is rarely described in its complete form when referenced in texts; mere portions of our recommendations are being used without us in their entirety, but the recommendations simply are not old enough to be reflected in data over the past 20 years. We suspect that physiologic management is significantly underrepresented in the current literature which leads to very confusing and inaccurate recommendations. It is not unlikely that large numbers of patients outside our own institution have been managed using our guidelines in their entirety, but the follow-up is not available to determine whether the recommendations are sound enough to be reflected in data over the past 20 years. Whether or not shock is present, assumption of a large volume of deficit, planned rehydration in less than 48 hours with either 0.45% or 0.9% NaCl, with or without urinary output replacement. In a retrospective portion of our study in 1990 we compared these same therapies and found that no form of traditional therapy minimised the risk of brain herniation during treatment.

Comments regarding the administration of fluid. The base should be better defined. Rapid administration or “pushes” of hypertonic sodium bicarbonate should not be given. On the other hand, there is no evidence that administration of physiologic concentrations of base in the rehydration fluids will cause harmful or undesirable. In our experience, this practice mitigates the development of hyperchloremic acidosis during treatment.

As ours is a referral centre, most of our patients have some form of therapy initiated in outlying hospitals, sometimes in keeping with our recommended approach, and sometimes with our recommendations instituted only after initial contact. In this setting, we have managed certain patients with severe DKA who received resuscitation fluids in excess of what their physical examination and laboratory data would dictate. It is not unusual for such patients to require as little as a typical maintenance volume.

Our approach has been criticised because of the incidence of mannitol administration in our series. In our mannitol recipients, several of whom did not receive their initial management by us, there was no central nervous system morbidity or mortality. In another large series of patients there was a 50% failure rate of mannitol to reverse a deteriorating neurologic status, even when mannitol was given before respiratory arrest, with a near 100% failure rate when mannitol was given after respiratory arrest.11 It is possible that not all of our mannitol patients really had raised intracranial pressure. We believe, however, that the key to our good outcome is that the fluid and electrolyte therapy on which mannitol is superimposed is relevant to its success. It is erroneous to make the 100% success rate among our mannitol recipients would be reproducible in the setting of a therapy that violates the fundamental principles of rehydrating the hypertonic state of DKA.

To do the right therapy and “have it right”. We agree.

Our work regarding the management of the pediatric patient in moderate to severe DKA has spanned 14 years and nearly 500 consecutive prospectively managed episodes. We remain available to participate in any endeavour to continue to improve the care of the paediatric patient in DKA.

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References


justifies a recommendation for the use of the longer needle for immunisation in 4 month old infants.

We believe the non-significant difference in tenderness with the different needles must be interpreted with caution, and should not be taken as a rationale for ignoring the significant benefits in terms of reduced redness and swelling. Tenderness was in fact reduced by the same relative amount as redness, but as tenderness occurred less frequently, the results were not formally statistically significant. We have used Bayesian analyses (using an “uninformative” prior distribution) to formally compute the chance that there is a clinically significant reduction (of at least 25% as specified in the protocol) in tenderness between the long and short needles. At six hours the probability of a clinically significant decrease in tenderness with the longer needle is 73%, whereas the chance of a clinically significant increase is only 2%. The evidence is therefore clearly in the direction of the longer needle causing less harm.

We recognise the need for further evidence on which to base immunisation practice at each of the infant immunisation ages. To this end, we are now conducting a randomised controlled trial involving over 600 infants aimed at providing a definitive answer. In the meantime, we reiterate our recommendation to practitioners to use the longer needle for immunising 4 month old infants.

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Reference