Radiological sign of a long line in the ascending lumbar vein

We would like to draw attention to a useful radiological sign indicating that a percutaneous central venous catheter may be in the ascending lumbar vein. In our neonatal unit there have been two confirmed cases where the ascending lumbar vein had inadvertently been cannulated. In both these cases a loop in the line had been noted in the region of the ilio-femoral vein (see figs 1 and 2). This “looping” or bend in the line is also seen in the picture recently published by De,12 and in other papers.2

That this complication occurs almost exclusively on the left has been attributed to the unique anatomy of the left ilio-femoral vein compared to the right.1 We believe that the local anatomy of the left ilio-femoral vein may also explain why the line loops when inadvertently entering the left ascending lumbar vein (fig 3). One can appreciate that, when the ascending lumbar vein is seen on the lateral and lateral-oblique view,3 and compared with the anterior posterior view, the vein can be seen to descend into the pelvis and then enter the ascending lumbar vein at an angle. On an x ray the line will then project a loop or bend.


Another factor that may contribute to the appearance of the loop or bend is that it is probably difficult to advance the line up the narrow ascending lumbar vein, and therefore when trying to thread the line to its calculated length the line will “buckle” at this point.

Any loop or bend of a contrast filled line in the left ilio-femoral region should be regarded as a sign that the line has entered the ascending lumbar vein and pull the line back because the lumbar venous plexus will not always be visualised with contrast. There are serious complications of an unrecognised malpositioned long line.4 We feel that awareness of this radiological sign would facilitate early recognition and would prevent serious morbidity.

B C Schoonakker, D Harding
Department of Neonatology, UBHT, St Michaels, Bristol BS2 8BJ, UK; bernard.schoonakker@ubht.swest.nhs.uk

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Competing interests: none declared

References

Changing incidence of respiratory presentations in primary care fact or artefact?

Recently reported declines in asthma morbidity5 may be difficult to interpret as they could reflect not only changes in incidence, but also changing disease severity, patient expectations, healthcare provision, and efficacy of pharmacological management. Indeed, it has been suggested that general practitioners may choose differing diagnostic labels for respiratory disease to justify prescribing medication.6

In view of these apparent inconsistencies, we used 37 practices taking part in the Scottish Continuous Morbidity Recording project (CMR) to determine possible changes in diagnostic fashion. Changes in the yearly age specific incidence (per 1000 population) were ascertained for the recording of diagnoses and symptoms including asthma, wheeze, and other respiratory illnesses including acute bronchitis, bronchiolitis, lower respiratory tract infection (LRTI), croup, chest infection, and acute respiratory infections combined (Read codes (version 2) used listed in table 1). The CMR project’s data collection processes have been described previously.7 Two child age groups were defined, namely those aged under 5 years of age (n = 12 693 children) and those aged 5–14 years (n = 30 165 children). Trends of disease incidence for six 12-month periods starting 31 March 1996 and ending 31 March

LETTERS

www.archdischild.com
2002 were tested for linear association using the Mantel-Haenszel $\chi^2$ test, giving $p$ for trend using Epi Info version 6.0 (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, Georgia, USA). The study protocol was approved by the Scientific Advisory Group of the Primary Care Clinical Informatics Unit–Research, which is the registered guardian for these anonymised data.

In the youngest age group, there was a declining trend in the incidence of asthma ($p < 0.001$), with the rate of wheeze incidence more than doubling over the study period. There was a small increase over the study period in the number of patients presenting with both asthma and wheeze ($n = 16$). Increases in the six year study period were observed for all other diagnoses considered as an alternative diagnosis for asthma (diagnostic transfer) ($p < 0.001$).

Overall, there was an increase in incidence rates for those recorded as having any one study disease or symptom ($p < 0.001$). Similar trends for asthma and wheeze were found for children aged 5–14 years.

In the present study, physician diagnostic labelling has been shown to change with time. There was a clear reduction in the labelling of the incident cases of asthma and evidence was also found for an increase in other diseases and symptoms that could be used as alternative diagnostic labels for asthma. Although these changes may have been influenced by British asthma guidelines published in 1997, which reiterated the importance of a correct diagnosis, changes in computer coding procedures should not have occurred, as a standard Read code dictionary was used by trained CMR practice data operators throughout the study period. These trends may have implications for large scale population surveys or studies that utilise data collected from routine clinical activity, leading to the accidental reporting of artefact.

**Acknowledgements**

The authors are grateful to the general practitioners who provided practice data to the Primary Care Clinical Informatics Unit–Research.

C R Simpson, A J Lee, M W Taylor
Department of General Practice & Primary Care, The University of Aberdeen, Scotland, UK

P J Helms
Department of Child Health, University of Aberdeen, Scotland, UK

Correspondence to: Dr C R Simpson, Department of General Practice & Primary Care, Forresthill Health Centre, Westburn Road, The University of Aberdeen, Aberdeen AB25 2AY, Scotland, UK; c simp@abdn.ac.uk
doi: 10.1136/adc.2004.063834

Competing interests: Peter J Helms has performed consultancies for Glaxo-Wellcome, Astra-Zeneca, and Merck Sharp & Dohme. Michael Taylor, Amanda Lee, and Colin Simpson have no competing interests.

**References**


**Patient choice in medicine taking: religious sensitivities must be respected**

Children often do not have choice in medicine taking, as it is typically their parents who agree, on their behalf, to receive prescribed treatments. Exploring parents’ (and wherever possible also children’s) beliefs about choice of medication is however important, particularly so when strong religious beliefs about

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**Table 1** Respiratory illnesses studied; Read codes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respiratory disease</th>
<th>Read code</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acute bronchitis</td>
<td>H060 and below</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acute respiratory infections</td>
<td>H0 and below</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asthma</td>
<td>H33 and below</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bronchiolitis</td>
<td>H061 and below</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croup</td>
<td>H044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower respiratory tract infection</td>
<td>H062.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2** Annual incidence of asthma and wheeze and lower respiratory disease combined in children under 5 years and 5–14 years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diagnosis</th>
<th>Incidence per 1000</th>
<th>95% CI</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Under 5 years old</strong></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asthma*</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March 1997</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>19.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Diagnostic transfer*</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>19.4</td>
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<td>March 1997</td>
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<tr>
<td>March 2002</td>
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<tr>
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* Mantel-Haenszel $\chi^2$, p<0.05.
contents of medications may be present, as a failure to do so may result in unintended harm and negatively impact on compliance. In a multicultural context, it is essential that prescribers have a minimal level of awareness of parent’s religious sensitiveness so that these can be considered when prescribing (table 1). Jehovah’s Witnesses, for example, may choose to avoid blood derived products. Jewish law forbids any oral use of medication containing glycerol, starches, lactose, and porcine products. Similarly, Hindus and Sikhs may be offended by medication containing animal products, particularly bovine derived products (for example, gelatine containing capsules). Islamic rulings that prohibit any systemic ingestion of pork or alcohol also need to be considered in the context of prescribing decisions involving Muslims.

A practical way of ensuring that health professionals have sufficient information about treatment options available would be for the British National Formulary to clearly indicate which preparations contain blood, animal, and alcohol derivatives, and, where possible, suggest suitable alternatives. The proposed electronic health records will facilitate the seamless sharing of patient information among multiple healthcare providers. This will therefore offer an additional systematic approach for routinely collecting information, and through use of “prescribing alerts” can help inform clinicians about patient preferences in relation to medications.

But beliefs need to be balanced against clinical need. Recognising that many religious traditions offer a degree of relaxation of religious laws in extenuating circumstances, there may be a need to work pragmatically with faith leaders to find acceptable compromises in cases where suitable treatments or treatment regimens do not exist, for example in the case of pancreatic preparations, which are all porcine in origin (table 1).

Sterotyping must however be avoided. Arguably, even more important than knowledge of the main tenets of different faiths and access to information about the constituents of medicines then, is that prescribers have the skills and attitudes to explore patients’ own beliefs and preferences during prescribing consultations. Parents and children are not passive recipients of prescribing decisions; they have their own views which are a key influence on whether and how they take medicines and these must be respected.

A R Gatrad
Manor Hospital and Birmingham University, UK
G My nors
Medicines Partnership, London, UK
P Hunt
A Sheikh
Division of Community Health Sciences: GP Section, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK

Correspondence to: Dr A R Gatrad, Manor Hospital, Moat Road, Walsall WSS 2PS, UK; sec.gatrad@walsallhospitals.nhs.uk

Competing interests: ARG and AS have (voluntary) positions with the Research and Documentation Committee of Muslim Council of Britain. They, together with GM, were involved in the production of informed choice in medicine taking: drugs of porcine origin and clinical alternatives which was supported by an unrestricted educational grant from Sanofi-Synthelabo. Lord Hunt is Chairman of the National Patient Safety Agency.

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Lessons from an unsuccessful local attempt to tackle childhood overweight and obesity

While we greatly enjoyed Mary C J Rudolph’s “Best Practice” article on “The Obese Child”, we cannot agree with her conclusion that obesity fulfills most of the criteria for a condition that justifies screening. Our own local experience in Solihull, West Midlands, might illustrate this point.

Using a grant from the Children’s Fund (www.cypu.gov.uk/corporate/childrenstrust/index.cfm) we aimed to set up a “Fit Club” serving children aged 7–11 in seven wards in Solihull, with DETRII deprivation indices ranging from 7.53 to 54.49. All seven wards contain enumeration districts with deprivation indices in the worse 15% of the country. We attempted to recruit 20 children, for an initial consultation phase, in which they and their families would be able to discuss with our multidisciplinary team the kinds of services they would like to tackle the child’s weight. They would be able to try out various exercise programmes if they wished, as well as receiving dietetic advice, and as an incentive we also offered £10.00 worth of fresh fruit and vegetables. The only criterion for recruitment was that the child should be perceived to have a weight problem both by their family and professionals. We attempted to recruit children via contact with school nurses, recommendation from general practitioners, and an advertisement in the local paper. To our disappointment, we found that we were able to recruit only four of our children. GPs had forwarded seven names, of whom one actually made contact with the service, while the school nurses informally fed back that families felt that their child’s weight was not an issue on which they needed to take action. A final attempt at recruitment, based on one large primary school with support of teaching staff, was similarly completely unsuccessful. It would seem likely that a difference in perception of the seriousness of overweight and the need for action between parents and professionals explained our disappointing outcomes.

Our experience thus leads us to believe that detecting obese or overweight children for screening will not substantially alter the scale of these problems on a population basis, although services for those that do request them are clearly justified.

N Haisman, K A Matyka, A Stanton
Solihull Primary Care Trust, West Midlands, UK; haismann@hotmail.com

Author’s reply

Drs Haisman, Matyka, and Stanton describe their disappointing and frustrating experience of offering a programme for obese children. However this experience cannot be used to argue that screening would have no value.

My comment that obesity fulfills most of the criteria for screening was based on the fact that: it is a common condition with serious consequences; it can be identified in its early stages; and it is potentially reversible. If it was reversed the costs of identifying obese children would be more than offset by the savings in health care later. The big “but” is the one (and very major) problem that we cannot offer effective treatment. If we can resolve that, then undoubtedly we should be screening our school age population.

The Solihull experience is not universal. With current sympathetic media interest the climate is changing and we are finding that
families are seeking help. Our WATCH IT community based programme in Leeds has 65 children enrolled with good attendance and we now have a waiting list. Rather than dismiss the idea of screening at some point in the future, let us argue for more resources to develop clinically effective interventions.

M C J Rudolf
Department of Community Paediatrics, Belmont House, 3–5 Belmont Grove, Leeds LS17 8DR, UK; mary.rudolf@leedsth.nhs.uk

Patterns and risks in spinal trauma: the emergency transport perspective

The article by Martin and colleagues reviewing patterns and risks in spinal trauma highlights the increased incidence of spinal cord injury (SCI) and spinal cord injury without radiological abnormality (SCIWORA) in young children. They suggest that without clinical suspicion proper evaluation of the child’s spine may not occur, and refer to an audit by Skellet and colleagues that shows inadequate spinal immobilisation of paediatric trauma patients on arrival of the paediatric retrieval team.

Preventing secondary injury during transfer (movement of patients between hard surfaces in close proximity) and transport (patient movement between facilities) is particularly important.

There are a number of devices available to facilitate spinal immobilisation during transfer and transport. These include spinal board (SB), vacuum mattress (VM), patslide, and scoop device in combination with traditional hard collar, blocks, and tapes to provide cervical spine immobilisation.

We carried out a survey to identify the current practices in immobilisation, transfer, and transport of the paediatric trauma patient with actual or potential SCI. Postal questionnaires were sent to the retrieval coordinators in 18 UK paediatric ICUs asking about methods of spinal immobilisation during transfer and transport of paediatric trauma patients and existence of guidelines for management of that population.

There was a 100% response rate (postal plus follow up phone calls to two centres). Only 27% (5/18) of retrieval services employed practice guidelines. For patient transfer, 27% (5/18) of retrieval services utilised a patslide device alone and 50% (9/18) utilised a patslide in combination with a vacuum mattress and/or spinal board (table 1). For patient transport, 67% (12/18) of services had a consistent approach (table 2). A spinal board, either alone or with padding, was used by 72% (13/18) of services for at least some of their patient transports.

One hundred per cent of services used the traditional triad of hard collar, sandbags/block, and tape/straps for maintaining cervical spine immobilisation.

As Martin et al have described, SCI and SCIWORA occur more frequently in younger children. Without an obvious radiological abnormality, these injuries may potentially be overlooked. Prevention of secondary injury is thus important during transport of at risk patients. Our survey illustrates that there is a lack of a consistent approach to spinal immobilisation during transfer and transport of paediatric trauma patients. There is also continuing use of spinal boards despite evidence that they should only play a role during extrication of patients in the pre-hospital setting and that vacuum mattresses may confer benefits in terms of patient safety and comfort.

The development of best practice guidelines may lead to a more consistent approach.

A Russell, S W Hancock, M Quinton, R Moore
Sheffield Children's Hospital, UK

P Harrison
Princess Royal Spinal Injuries Unit, Sheffield, UK

Correspondence to: Dr S W Hancock, Consultant Paediatric Intensivist, Sheffield Children's Hospital Retrieval Service, UK; stephen.hancock@sch.nhs.uk
doi: 10.1136/adc.2005.072546
Competing interests: none declared

Dapsone therapy for Henoch-Schönlein purpura: a case series

Henoch-Schönlein purpura (HSP), first recognised by Heberden in 1801, is a systemic, IgA mediated vasculitis of small vessels that is usually self-limiting but may progress to gastrointestinal bleeding, intussusception, and nephropathy. A third of patients will experience recurrences.1 Currently treatment is confined to rest, analgesia, and steroids for refractory abdominal pain,2 and immunosuppressants for complications, especially renal disease.

Original reports, predominantly in adults, show that the symptoms of purpuric rash, abdominal pain, and arthritis in HSP respond to treatment with dapsone.

Even though the first case of HSP treated with dapsone was reported in 1983, it is still not generally recognised as a treatment for HSP. We describe eight children in whom, because of the severity or persistence of their symptoms, treatment with dapsone was commenced from among 41 patients diagnosed with HSP from January 1992 to May 2004. All gained a clinical response from treatment with the most beneficial effect on the skin rash. The demographic characteristics of the patients and their presenting clinical features as well as treatment are shown in table 1. The rash improved within 3 days to 1 week of starting treatment with dapsone in all patients. Six of eight relapsed when treatment was stopped, but responded again to treatment. The side effects are dose related and uncommon at doses commonly used (1–2 mg/kg daily).

Dapsone, an antileukocytic drug, used for a variety of dermatological conditions, appears to be of special value in diseases characterised by accumulation of neutrophils, notably with leukocytoclastic vasculitis, of which HSP is an example. There is evidence that it has antioxidant scavenger effects and may suppress the generation of toxic free radicals in neutrophils. It also inhibits prostaglandin D2 production and synthesis of IgG and IgA antibodies.3 It may also inhibit IgE-neutrophil interactions.4 Given the pathogenesis of HSP with IgA meditated vasculitis, treatment with dapsone represents an exciting form of treatment. The clinical course of our patients suggests that dapsone controls the cutaneous vasculitis rather than cures it. As steroids may mask the features of more ominous intestinal disease, dapsone can be a reasonable alternative. Nonetheless, to date there is no evidence of a positive effect on renal disease.

In conclusion, dapsone is a drug that may have a role in the treatment of HSP. In order to establish its usefulness it is necessary to conduct a multicentre, placebo, randomised controlled trial.

Informed consent was obtained from parents before starting treatment with dapsone.

H Iqbal, A Evans
Queen Elizabeth Hospital, London, UK

Correspondence to: Dr H Iqbal, Department of Paediatrics, Queen Elizabeth Hospital, Stadium Road, Woolwich, London SE18 4QH, UK; humai@tiscali.co.uk
doi: 10.1136/adc.2004.061598
Competing interests: none declared

References


If community paediatricians did not exist, it would be necessary to invent them

Since 1991 there has been talk of abolishing community paediatrics as a specialty. At that time, a group of related specialties was proposed: a specialty of child development and rehabilitation (neurodisability); child protection would be subsumed into general paediatrics and there would be child health support to education, social, and voluntary services, as well as child health per se. This new agenda requires exactly the skills community paediatricians have. If community paediatricians did not exist, it would be necessary to invent them to deliver the NSF.

The challenge of community paediatrics

Children do not come in neat packages, with diagnostic labels. They and their families need all their needs met. Hospital practice traditionally concentrates on the illness, not the patient, although this is becoming less with time and paediatricians have always been more holistic than adult counterparts. Hospital practice often deals with complex problems by having specialists for each problem. Our adult physician colleagues are beginning to realise that doesn’t work and people are beginning to realise that doesn’t work and that they have always thought and treated the newborn as a whole. This new agenda requires exactly the skills community paediatricians have. If community paediatricians did not exist, it would be necessary to invent them to deliver the NSF. The challenge is how we tackle it.

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Melatonin: a panacea for desperate parents? (Hype or truth)

Sleep disorders are common in children with neurodevelopmental disorder and are a major source of stress for the whole family. In children with neurodevelopmental disabilities the prevalence may be as high as 80%. The current literature is suggestive of circadian rhythm dysfunction, social difficulties, and abnormal melatonin levels in children with autism.

Hypnotics and sedatives can produce side effects and tolerance, so is melatonin the answer in children with sleep problems associated with severe developmental difficulties of social and communicating nature, which have not responded to behavioural and social measures? Previous studies and case reports have suggested that melatonin could be effective.

We retrospectively reviewed cases of nine autistic children with chronic sleep disorder, who were attending the Child Development Centre at Windmill Lodge. The age range of these children was 2–11 years. No additional non-pharmacological sleep intervention was instituted. They were started on 2.5–5 mg melatonin 45 minutes before their sleeping time. In four of these patients sleep latency was reduced. Our own experience of reduction in sleep latency is in accordance with literature. Five parents reported improvement in total duration of sleep.

Table 1 Demographic characteristics, presenting clinical feature, and treatment of the patients

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<th>7</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age at presentation</td>
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<td>8 y</td>
<td>8 y</td>
<td>5 (\frac{1}{2}) y</td>
<td>10 y</td>
<td>5 y</td>
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<tr>
<td>Vomiting</td>
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<tr>
<td>Swollen testicle</td>
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<tr>
<td>Haematuria</td>
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<td>Proteinuria</td>
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<td>Rectal bleeding</td>
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<tr>
<td>Length of presentation</td>
<td>1 d</td>
<td>2 d</td>
<td>2 d</td>
<td>1 d</td>
<td>5 d</td>
<td>4 d</td>
<td>5 d</td>
<td>1 d</td>
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<tr>
<td>Presentation to</td>
<td>10 d</td>
<td>14 m</td>
<td>4 m</td>
<td>18 m</td>
<td>5 d</td>
<td>8 d</td>
<td>11 d</td>
<td>1 m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment</td>
<td>Dose</td>
<td>1 mg/kg od</td>
<td>1.3 mg/kg od</td>
<td>1 mg/kg od</td>
<td>1.25 mg/kg od</td>
<td>0.75 mg/kg bd</td>
<td>1 mg/kg od</td>
<td>1 mg/kg od</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of first course</td>
<td>6 d</td>
<td>7 d</td>
<td>4 d</td>
<td>4 w</td>
<td>10 d</td>
<td>7 d</td>
<td>14 d</td>
<td>10 d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive response</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Relapse after first course</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total duration of treatment</td>
<td>6 d</td>
<td>7 d</td>
<td>4 d</td>
<td>2 (\frac{1}{2}) y</td>
<td>8 m</td>
<td>5 w</td>
<td>5 w</td>
<td>2 y</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: d, day; w, week; m, month; y, year; +, present; --, absent; od, once a day; bd, twice a day.


www.archdischild.com
three patients medication was stopped within a week because of no response. Four patients are still on melatonin for over a year without any side effects. We could not find the cause in non-responders.

To find out the real benefit of melatonin, the dose, short and long term side effects, and group of patients who will respond to melatonin, several authors have already identified the need for a double blind cross-over study.1 Previous studies have reported response rates of up to 80%,2 but it is seems likely that studies which group together children with “neurodevelopmental disorders” in a generic manner will not furnish the answer as to the true place of melatonin in the management of disturbed sleep patterns.

The Children Act 2004 sets out a new framework for children’s services with Directors of Children’s Service and Lead Members for children in each local authority.3 The government is establishing Children’s Trusts to drive the coordination and integration of planning, commissioning, and delivery of health, social care, and education services.

How are these agencies to work together more effectively?2 There are well recognised facilitators and barriers to coordinating multi-agency practice.2 Poor communication between agencies and a lack of understanding of each other’s roles and responsibilities has been a barrier and is a recurring feature in reports of children and child deaths.

An integrated care pathway (ICP) is a health sector concept that “determines locally agreed multidisciplinary practice based on guidelines and evidence, where available, for a specific patient user group. It forms all or part of the clinical record, documents the care given and facilitates the evaluation of outcomes for continuous quality improvement”.4 The ICP concept is multifaceted and complex but consists of both a process (of development and continuing maintenance) and a set of operational products. It can usefully be extended as a tool to improve multi-agency working.

An ICP to promote the health of looked after children has been developed in Birmingham. The products include a process map, updated health assessment documentation, and a variance reporting strategy.5 At its best an ICP can be a mechanism to enhance collaborative working across agencies for specific populations such as looked after children.

References


An integrated care pathway for looked after children can facilitate multi-agency coordination

Looked after children are a vulnerable population at risk of unidentified and unmet health needs. Coordinated input from health, social care, and education services for these children is required by government but is not easily achieved.

The focus of looked after children has sharpened with the Quality Protects programme, a major initiative launched in 1998 to improve their life chances. In 2002, the Department of Health (DH) published guidance on how to develop a health service for looked after children.1

“Children in special circumstances”, including looked after children, are prominent in the National Service Framework (NSF) for Children and Young People in Health and Social Care Services. Implementation of the DH guidance is explicitly required by the NSF.


BOOK REVIEWS

Spotting the sick child (DVD)

Edited by Fiona Davies. University Hospital of Leicester and Royal College of Paediatrics & Child Health, 2004, £8.99 single copy, or £6.46 for orders of six or more. ISBN 1 904039 11 1

This innovative joint project between the Department of Health and the Royal Colleges of Accident and Emergency Medicine and Paediatrics and Child Health is an extremely useful educational resource. The DVD was commissioned due to the concern of the Department of Health in England about door-to-door meningococcal disease in children. The aim was to set up a video teaching package for A&E doctors and paediatricians about recognition of serious illness in childhood. The original remit was extended to include paramedics, emergency care practitioners, and others assessing children. I noticed that all the consultants received a copy as part of the Children’s National Service Framework package and it looked interesting.

The DVD uses an interface which will be familiar to most. Seven menus, covering the top presenting emergency symptoms in childhood, function as gateways to symptoms based tutorials. This simple menu system is useful to get to a particular section quickly. But there is no opportunity to interact with clinical material or cases, or for making management decisions.

The opening sequence contains many of the images we will see during the DVD set to a symphony of crying, coughing, and calming background banter from parents, nurses, and doctors. It might put off healthcare professionals who are not used to this sort of decorum in a paediatric A&E, but it is a cute way to introduce the content. Following this there is a head-to-head edited interview with a TV doc” and an A&E consultant (you can skip the entire intro at the press of a button). The conversation makes interesting watching as the TV doc tries to justify why spotting a sick child is so important. The A&E consultant gives a far more grounded perspective to assessing children in the clinical setting. The TV doc suggests there is a culture of practicing defensive medicine, but the A&E consultant (much more the voice of reason) declares it is more to do with human nature that we try our best to spot the sick child and not miss something important. Surely safe medicine is defensible and that should be the focus.

There are many great video clips shown, often with explanatory narrative and some with a visual caption. Being involved in a similar project locally to capture video of acute presentations and clinical signs for teaching I can appreciate the time and effort put into obtaining useable footage as well as the goodwill of patients and their parents. Some of the clips within each section are repeated—the same breathless baby, croopy cough, or miserable infant. But that is reinforcement and a useful educational tool. The “red flags” are particularly useful although some are no more than a “talking head” explaining a worrying symptom or making a learning point without any video or visual aid to back up or reinforce the points. It is worth mentioning that although with excellent footage of symptoms, signs, and clinical evaluation is a lot of talk. The team of presenters use a formal and didactic delivery style with excessively read out autocue. The tone is serious which is appropriate for the topic material, but paediatrics can be a fun and up-beat specialty. Most sick children do get better!

I liked the 3 minute toolkit showing how an examination can be completed with the child on the mother’s knee. I always think is nice to ask younger children if I can examine them...
Immunization in practice, a practical guide for health staff


There have been some great successes in global immunisation in the last decade with the near eradication of polio and reductions in neonatal tetanus. In some developing countries childhood immunisation coverage is increasing, but in others it is still extremely low; for example, only 50% of infants in Sub-Saharan Africa compared to the United Nations goal of 90%. There is still great inequality between wealthy and low income countries in access to and delivery of safe vaccinations. Thus there are millions of the most vulnerable children at risk of life threatening and disabling diseases.

The challenge of global immunisation

Leaving political and economic problems aside, how can immunisation rates in developing countries be improved and sustained? This book aims to provide a resource of practical and management skills to health workers in developing countries to reach this goal, and could equally be used as a training manual. It is the result of work between many organisations including the WHO, Children’s Vaccine Program, and UNICEF. It covers the common target diseases and their vaccines, and aims to promote the use of underused vaccines such as Hib, yellow fever, and hepatitis B. The immunisation schedule is based on the “Expanded Programme on Immunisation” and includes combination vaccines, for example, DTP-HepB + Hib. The book also aims to be used in conjunction with up to date national policies and vaccine schedules, which vary between countries and are regularly changing as new vaccines are introduced. The book is divided into eight modules with summary tables to emphasise key points and clear diagrams. It covers the practical aspects of delivering effective immunisation in great detail, for example, the cold chain including details of transport and refrigeration. It explains how to make a homemade sharps container and how to dispose of them, from incorrect disposal to burying in a disposal pit. Information on the diseases, vaccines, and side effects is quite brief, but practical.

The module on holding an immunisation session emphasises safe practice to reduce needle stick injuries, including how to set up a clinic, injection techniques, and adopting autodisable syringes to prevent reuse. Strategies are listed to improve coverage by developing a district plan, fixed, outreach, and mobile clinics, estimating vaccine needs, and on building links with the local community. Further modules cover the monitoring and recording of data. This book is designed for developing countries and would be less useful for health professionals in the UK. It does not cover many of the new vaccines used in the UK, for example, conjugated pneumococcal or meningococcal vaccines, which are not priorities in developing countries. However, the practical sections on holding an immunisation session set clear quality standards which should be adopted by any organisation delivering an immunisation clinic. Up to date information on the UK immunisation schedule can be found online in the “Green Book” and its updates at http://www.immunisation.nhs.uk/ under the publications section. The full version of this book can be found online at http://www.who.int/vaccines-documents/DocTrng/h4iip.htm. Overall this book will be a valuable tool in the global challenge of delivering safe and effective immunisation to all children.

A Reece

Key topics in neonatology, 2nd edition


The second edition of Key topics in neonatology claims to provide a quick and very up to date summary of current concepts in neonatology, in a self contained and easily readable problem based format for neonatal trainees and nurses. The authors recommend the text as an ideal revision aid for MRCPCH and DCH candidates. The book is very compact and has just over 400 pages, with common neonatal problems arranged alphabetically, which we found easy to use.

The authors do acknowledge that some topics reflect their personal practice; however each topic ends with a useful reading list and related topics of interest, which encompasses other contemporary views. References to family support groups are also helpful.

The majority of sections give good, clear, concise advice and certainly fulfil the role of a revision tool. However, we felt that the topic of congenital androgen hyperplasia was poorly covered. The book could be used as a revision tool to see if it matched up with the authors’ claims that it is a quick reference book in the neonatal unit, by referring to the book, to guide us in management on a few admissions to the neonatal unit.

The first clinical scenario was a baby whose mother was diagnosed with maternal HIV after delivery. In less than a minute we had detailed information on perinatal HIV management along with web addresses of useful links—impressive indeed! Unfortunately in the five page chapter on HIV, only half a page was dedicated to neonatal prophylaxis. There is no mention about the ethical and legal issues when a mother tests positive for postnatal HIV testing. The text did not help in the management of the baby in this case; however the cited excellent website of “Bliva” came to the rescue in deciding what postnatal treatment needs to be started. The second scenario was a baby with pulmonary hypertension where we wanted check formulas for oxygenation index and Aad2O2. Again within seconds, everything was in front of us. Although we were required to check the length to which umbilical arterial catheter should be inserted for this baby, we were disappointed as there was no mention of a formula anywhere.

The third scenario was the counselling of a mother with antenatally diagnosed ventriculomegaly in the fetus. Unfortunately this was not mentioned anywhere in the book. However, there was very detailed information on the “Epicure study” and neurodevelopmental outcome of babies born at extremes of viability. This will be very handy information for neonatal registrars in counselling expectant mothers in preterm labour.

The final scenario that the book was to be used in conjunction with up to date national policies and vaccine schedules, which vary between countries and are regularly changing as new vaccines are introduced. The book is divided into eight modules with summary tables to emphasise key points and clear diagrams. It covers the practical aspects of delivering effective immunisation in great detail, for example, the cold chain including details of transport and refrigeration. It explains how to make a homemade sharps container and how to dispose of them, from incorrect disposal to burying in a disposal pit. Information on the diseases, vaccines, and side effects is quite brief, but practical.

The module on holding an immunisation session emphasises safe practice to reduce needle stick injuries, including how to set up a clinic, injection techniques, and adopting autodisable syringes to prevent reuse. Strategies are listed to improve coverage by developing a district plan, fixed, outreach, and mobile clinics, estimating vaccine needs, and on building links with the local community. Further modules cover the monitoring and recording of data. This book is designed for developing countries and would be less useful for health professionals in the UK. It does not cover many of the new vaccines used in the UK, for example, conjugated pneumococcal or meningococcal vaccines, which are not priorities in developing countries. However, the practical sections on holding an immunisation session set clear quality standards which should be adopted by any organisation delivering an immunisation clinic. Up to date information on the UK immunisation schedule can be found online in the “Green Book” and its updates at http://www.immunisation.nhs.uk/ under the publications section. The full version of this book can be found online at http://www.who.int/vaccines-documents/DocTrng/h4iip.htm. Overall this book will be a valuable tool in the global challenge of delivering safe and effective immunisation to all children.
lymphohistiocytosis and ARC syndrome made us acutely aware that the book is from Birmingham!

In summary, this book would be a useful edition to neonatal units as a rapid reference guide, particularly for the excellent web links. The layout of the book is very practical and in a problem-oriented style. The lists given under “aetiology” of most conditions are extensive and theoretical, but will be a helpful revision aid for junior doctors and nurses.

S Thayyil, A L Ogilvy-Stuart

Prevention of allergy and allergic asthma: World Allergy Organization project report and guidelines


Edited by two Scandinavian experts in the field, this book is the result of a working group of the World Allergy Organization (WAO) and the WHO. With contributions by authors from 21 countries it presents a contemporary international overview and consensus of what is known and not known about prevention (primary, secondary, and tertiary) of allergic disorders.

The introduction includes clear definitions of some terms such as allergy and hypersensitivity. It also sets out the useful instruction to all the authors to include an evidence base category with all references—and this book cannot be criticised for a lack of references.

The genetics of allergy are then reviewed in detail that is moderately technical but highlights some of the problems with the results from research to date, such as the varying definitions of atopy (that is, phenotype definition) used in different studies. Despite much effort and the advance of molecular biology, there are still few new certainties about the inheritance of allergy, but strategies for future work are described.

Unsurprisingly, the longest chapter in the book analyses proposed environmental influences causing asthma and allergy. Various dietary factors from fish oils to food additives are discussed. Topical issues such as the hygiene hypothesis, the influence of immunisations, antibiotics, and probiotics (live microbial food components) are all examined and the data presented concisely. What is known about the benefits of breast feeding and weaning is also summarised. The clearest conclusion is that environmental tobacco smoke is bad for allergic airways disease and more governmental action is required.

Another chapter reviews the fascinating issue of immunological influences on the fetus and neonate, showing that significant immune responses occur in utero, influenced by passage of allergen from mother to fetus. Subsequently, the interventions in infants at high risk of developing allergy are concisely analysed with regard to altering maternal diet during pregnancy and lactation and reducing household aeroallergens. Of clinical relevance is the conclusion that there is no evidence of a preventative benefit of soy based compared with cows’ milk formulae.

“Can I do anything to stop my child getting asthma and/or eczema” is a concern of an increasing number of parents. Paediatricians, who are often faced with this question, do not have easy access to specialist allergy opinion at present, because allergy as a medical speciality in the UK could itself be considered to suffer from “failure to thrive”. Any paediatrician or clinician with an interest in asthma, eczema, or food allergy (are there any who don’t?) will find this book helpful. For anyone drafting local ward and/or community guidelines for nutrition, weaning, and allergy, it provides an evidence base and also some suggested information sheets and guidelines.

A minor criticism is that the subject index suffers from restricted development.

In conclusion, this book would be a useful resource for those interested in allergy within specialist departments and also for reference to the general paediatrician with an interest.

I Pollock

Book reviews in Fetal and Neonatal edition

The following book reviews are published in this month’s Fetal and Neonatal edition:

- Managing newborn problems: a guide for doctors, nurses and midwives
- Neonatal respiratory disorders, 2nd edn

CORRECTION

doi: 10.1136/adc.2003.032052corr1

Kendrick D, Royal S. Cycle helmet ownership and use; a cluster randomised controlled trial in primary school children in deprived areas (Arch Dis Child 2004;89:330–5). There were two errors in the sample size calculation for this article. The correct figures should be 93% (not 90% in the calculation for helmet owning) and 48.5% (not 44.5% in the calculation for helmet wearing). Therefore, the sample size calculation should read:

The study had 80% power to detect a difference in the percentage of children owning a helmet from 81% to 93% between the 2 treatment groups.

and

It had 80% power to detect a difference in the percentage of children always wearing a helmet from 34% to 48.5%, at the 5% significance level.