# Trimethoprim-Sulphamethoxazole in Enteric Fevers

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ummary: Clinical improvement was rapid in all 13 patients with enteric fever and one with Brucella infection treated with sulphamethoxazole. There were no side-effects of the treatment and it was found easy to administer to toxic and delirious patients.

Trimethoprim-sulphamethoxazole has been successfully used in the treatment of urinary tract infections (Gruneberg and Kolbe, 1969; Reeves et al, 1969), gonorrhoea (British Medical Journal, 1969), chronic bronchitis (Hughes, 1969), and Gramnegative septicaemia (Noall et al., 1962). Except for one report from Nigeria by Akinkugbe et al. (1968) there have been few well-controlled studies on its use in typhoid fevers. We report here on use of the substance in the treatment of 13 patients with enteric fever and one patient with proved Brucella abortus septicaemia.

### Materials and Methods

The study was conducted during the last three weeks of February 1970. Of the 14 patients included in the study 7 were males and 7 were females; all lived in Cairo. Their ages ranged from 5 to 16 years. All were very sick and toxic before treatment was started, and all had a temperature of 104°F. (40°C.) or above. In every case examination revealed a thickly-coated white tongue, abdominal distension with tympanitis, and a soft tender palpable spleen.

Blood cultures were performed on double-phase Castaneda bottles (Castaneda, 1947) and on ox bile (Kaye et al., 1966), and urine and stool cultures were made on selective media on selenite broth. Three blood specimens, one urine, and one stool specimen were obtained before starting treatment. Subsequentiy, blood, urine, and stool cultures were performed twice weekly during treatment and for three weeks after treatment.

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Treatment was started 24 hours after admission to hospital. P ients 12 years of age and over were given two tablets of t' nethoprim-sulphamethoxazole (80 mg. of trimethoprim and 4 J mg. of sulphamethoxazole) every 12 hours, and those 1 .der 12 years of age one tablet every 12 hours. Treatment was continued for 10 days for all patients.

## Results

The clinical, serological, and bacteriological data are given in the Table. Twelve patients had positive blood cultures; eight had salmonella typhi infection, two a Salm. paratyphi B, one a Salm. paratyphi C, and one a Br. abortus infection. The two remaining patients had rising Widal titres with positive stool cultures—one for Salm. paratyphi B and one for Salm. typhi.

Clinical improvement was rapid in all patients, and within 36 to 48 hours abdominal distension, tympanitis, and toxicity had practically disappeared. All the patients became afebrile within two to six days of starting treatment. None complained of nausea or vomiting, and no other side-effects were noted.

### Comment

Akinkugbe et al. (1968) treated six patients with Salm. typhi infection with trimethoprim-sulphamethoxazole, and considered their results to be superior to those produced by chloramphenicol. The present study confirms the remarkable effectiveness of trimethoprim-sulphamethoxazole in the treatment not only of Salm. typhi but also of Salm. paratyphi B and C infections and in one patient with Br. abortus infection. The response to treatment in all 14 patients was rapid toxicity was relieved within 48 hours and all the patients became afebrile within six days.

Though blood, urine, and stool cultures were performed twice weekly during treatment and for at least three weeks after the end of treatment, no positive cultures were obtained once treatment was started, and none of the patients relapsed clinically. The patient with proved Br. abortus infection was followed up for two months and had not relapsed at the time of writing.

No side-effects to the drug treatment were noted and the

Clinical, Serological, and Bacteriological Data on 14 Patients Treated with Trimethoprim-Sulphamethoxazole

Case No.		Age Before Treatment	Highest Widal Titre	Blood Culture	Stool Culture	No. of Days to Become Afebrile	Comments
1	F. 15 M. 5 F. 12 F. 11 F. 5 M. 13 F. 6	11 6 7 15 4 4 5 9 12 6 11 6 7 13 7 10 6 16 7 13 10 10 11 1 3 10 11 1 3	N 1/640 1/640 1/640 1/640 1/640 1/640 1/640 1/640 1/640 1/640 1/640 1/640	Br. abortus Salm. typhi Salm. typhi Salm. typhi Salm. paratyphi B Salm. typhi Salm. typhi Salm. typhi Salm. paratyphi B Salm. pyphi Salm. pyphi Salm. typhi Salm. typhi Salm. typhi Salm. typhi	N N N N N N Salm. paratyphi B N Salm. typhi	4 4 2 5 4 5 5 3 6 2 2 2 2 3	Brucella aggl. 1/640  Delirious, very toxic  Delirious, very toxic  Delirious, very toxic

<sup>\*</sup>Admission Widal was negative. Cases 5, 9, and 10 were siblings. N = Negative.

ease of its administration made it very acceptable to the delirious and toxic patients.

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### Addendum

Two additional patients were treated with trimethoprimsulphamethoxazole (two tablets every 12 hours for 10 days). The first patient was a young man aged 15 who was admitted to hospital acutely sick, with a temperature of 104°F. (40°C.); his blood culture was positive for Salm. paratyphi A. The second patient was a woman aged 16 years who gave a history of recurrent febrile attacks of one year's duration. Her brucella agglutination titre was 1/1640 and her blood culture was positive for Brucella melitensis. Both patients responded promptly to treatment, were asymptomatic and afebrile within five days of starting therapy, and have remained well up to the time of writing, three weeks after the end of treatment.

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# Preliminary Communications

# Simple Method for Determining Isoniazid **Acetylator Phenotype**

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Summary: Methods have been developed for estimating acetylisoniazid and increased acetylisoniazid and isoniazid in urine without a spectrophotometer. In experiments with volunteers the ratio of acetylisoniazid to isoniazid in urine samples collected the morning after three spaced oral doses each of 100 mg. was bimodally distributed.

## Introduction

The rate at which administered isoniazid disappears from the circulation is genetically determined. The two major phenotypes, rapid and slow inactivators (Hughes et al., 1954; Harris et al., 1958), differ in the rate of hepatic acetylation of the drug (Evans and White, 1964; Goedde et al., 1964). The acetylator phenotype does not affect the outcome of tuberculosis treatment with standard dosage regimens (Evans et al., 1960). Rapid inactivators, however, respond less well to a once-weekly dosage regimen (Menon, 1968), and develop isoniazid resistance sooner, than slow inactivators (Tripathy, 1968). Thus there is increasing interest in determining acetylator phenotype. Some new methods have been proposed (Evans, 1969; Tiitinen, 1969) but simpler techniques suitable for routine screening in developing countries are still required.

The ratio of acetylisoniazid to isoniazid (A:I) in the urine after an oral dose of the drug distinguishes rapid from slow inactivators (Peters et al., 1965). A method is here described for estimating this ratio by simple colour tests. The ratio is bimodally distributed in volunteers receiving isoniazid daily. On the basis of these results a simple method for acetylator phenotyping is proposed.

## SUBJECTS AND METHODS

Healthy adult volunteers swallowed: 100 mg. of isoniazid three times daily after meals for five days. On the second and following days morning urine was collected and analysed.

Analysis for Acetylisoniazid.—The method used adapted from that of Venkataraman et al. (1968). Urine (4 drops) was placed in a test-tube, internal diameter 0.8 cm., and treated with 10% w/w potassium cyanide (4 drops), followed after mixing by 10% w/w chloramine T (9 drops). After one minute the contents were again mixed. One minute later acetone (0.2 ml.) was added. After remixing, the concentration of acetylisoniazid was determined by comparison with standards of acetylisoniazid in normal drug-free urine (320, 160, 80, 40, 20, and 0  $\mu$ g./ml.) which were treated in the same way. To each sample was allotted a nominal acetylisoniazid concentration equal to that of the standard which it matched or immediately exceeded in depth of colour. Thus a sample intermediate in colour between the 80 and 160  $\mu$ g./ml. standards was allotted a nominal concentration of 80 μg./ml. The actual colour varied between pink and orange, depending on the concentration of the urine; comparison was made with respect to depth of colour rather than hue.

Analysis for Free Isoniazid.—The method used was adapted from that of Dymond and Russell (1970) for determining isoniazid in blood. The sample (20 drops) was treated with 50% (w/w) dipotassium hydrogen phosphate (10 drops) followed by a solution (1.25%) of 2,4,6-trinitrobenzenesulphonic acid in methyl isobutyl ketone (0.25 ml.) The contents were mixed vigorously for 10 seconds, allowed to stand for two minutes, mixed again vigorously for 20 seconds, and briefly centrifuged. The concentration of isoniazid in the sample was determined by comparison with standards of isoniazid in normal drug-free urine (64, 32, 16, 8, 4, 2, and 0  $\mu$ g./ml.), which were treated in the same way. The orange colour due to isoniazid was in the upper phase; the lower phase was ignored. To each sample a nominal isoniazid concentration was allotted in the same way as for acetylisoniazid.

Notes on the Methods.—Aqueous reagents were measured from Pasteur pipettes held at an angle of approximately 45°. One pipette was used for all urine samples and standards and one for each aqueous reagent. For organic liquids a graduated pipette was used. Mixing was done with a Vortex Genie mixer (Scientific Industries, Springfield, Mass., U.S.A.). For each sample a "nominal A: I ratio" was calculated from the nominal concentrations.