

IgM antibodies. Often, there will be chorioretinal scars, and reactivation can occur on the edge of a previous lesion, making diagnosis easier. However, the active area can cover a scar, particularly if it is small, making it difficult to see the original scar. Rising titers of IgG do not occur with ocular reactivation. There is increasing evidence that patients acquire this infection postnatally rather than by congenital transmission [18], and it is not yet known whether the most common source of infection is undercooked infected meat [19] or cats [20].

REFERENCES

1. Franceschi S, Dal Maso L, La Vecchia C. Advances in the epidemiology of HIV-associated non-Hodgkin's lymphoma and other lymphoid neoplasms. *Int J Cancer* 1999; 83: 481–5.
2. Diebold J, Raphael M, Prevot S, Audouin J. Lymphomas associated with HIV infection. *Cancer Surv* 1997; 30: 263–93.
3. Schanzer MC, Font RL, O'Malley RE. Primary ocular malignant lymphoma associated with the acquired immune deficiency syndrome. *Ophthalmology* 1991; 98: 88–91.
4. Batisse D, Eliazewicz M, Zazoun L, Baudrimont M, Pialoux G, Dupont B. Acute retinal necrosis in the course of AIDS. study of 26 cases. *AIDS* 1996; 10: 55–60.
5. Jacobson MA, Zegans M, Pavan PR *et al.* Cytomegalovirus retinitis after initiation of highly active antiretroviral therapy *Lancet* 1997; 349: 1443–5.
6. Macdonald JC, Karavellas MP, Torriani FJ *et al.* Highly active antiretroviral therapy-related immune recovery in AIDS patients with cytomegalovirus retinitis. *Ophthalmology* 2000; 107: 877–81.
7. Zegans ME, Walton RC, Holland GN, O'Donnell JJ, Jacobson MA, Margolis TP. Transient vitreous inflammatory reactions associated with combination antiretroviral therapy in patients with AIDS and cytomegalovirus retinitis. *Am J Ophthalmol* 1998; 125: 292–300.
8. Young S, Bom S, Lightman S. An unusual case of retinitis. *Lancet* 2000; 18(355): 984.
9. Edwards JE Jr, Bodey GP, Bowden RA *et al.* International Conference for the Development of a Consensus on the Management and Prevention of Severe Candidal Infections. *Clin Infect Dis* 1997; 25: 43–59.
10. Pomerantz RJ, Kuritzkes DR, de la Monte SM *et al.* Infection of the retina by human immunodeficiency virus type 1. *N Engl J Med* 1987; 24(317): 1643–7.
11. Mitchell SM, Fox JD, Tedder RS, Gazzard BG, Lightman S. Vitreous fluid sampling and viral genome detection for the diagnosis of viral retinitis in patients with AIDS. *J Med Virol* 1994; 43: 336–40.
12. Ganatra JB, Chandler D, Santos C, Kuppermann B, Margolis TP. Viral causes of the acute retinal necrosis syndrome. *Am J Ophthalmol* 2000; 129: 166–72.
13. Mitra RA, Pulido JS, Hanson GA, Kajdacsy-Balla A, Brummitt CF. Primary ocular Epstein-Barr virus-associated non-Hodgkin's lymphoma in a patient with AIDS: a clinicopathologic report. *Retina* 1999; 19: 45–50.
14. Garweg J, Boehnke M, Koerner F. Restricted applicability of the polymerase chain reaction for the diagnosis of ocular toxoplasmosis. *Ger J Ophthalmol* 1996; 5: 104–8.
15. Jones CD, Okhravi N, Adamson P, Tasker S, Lightman S. Comparison of PCR detection methods for B1, P30, and 18S rDNA genes of *T. gondii* in aqueous humor. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2000; 41: 634–44.
16. Cochereau-Massin I, LeHoang P, Lautier-Frau M *et al.* Ocular toxoplasmosis in human immunodeficiency virus-infected patients. *Am J Ophthalmol* 1992; 114: 130–5.
17. Renold C, Sugar A, Chave JP *et al.* Toxoplasma encephalitis in patients with the acquired immunodeficiency syndrome. *Medicine (Baltimore)* 1992; 71: 224–39.
18. Gilbert RE, Dunn DT, Lightman S *et al.* Incidence of symptomatic toxoplasma eye disease: aetiology and public health implications. *Epidemiol Infect* 1999; 123: 283–9.
19. Cook AJ, Gilbert RE, Buffalano W *et al.* Sources of toxoplasma infection in pregnant women: European multicentre case-control study. European Research Network on Congenital Toxoplasmosis. *BMJ* 2000; 321: 142–7.
20. Stiles J, Prade R, Greene C. Detection of *Toxoplasma gondii* in feline and canine biological samples by use of the polymerase chain reaction. *Am J Vet Res* 1996; 57: 264–7.

Clinical microbiological case: sore throat and painful bilateral lymph nodes

J. R. Blanco, C. Gutierrez, M. Zabalza, J. Salcedo, I. Erdozain and J. A. Oteo

Please refer to the article on pages 637–638 of this issue to view the questions to which these answers refer.

1. Oropharyngeal tularemia. This clinical case may be confused with other infectious and non-infectious diseases affecting cervical lymph nodes, such as streptococcal angina, infectious mononucleosis, tuberculosis and lymphoma [1].
2. Oropharyngeal tularemia results from ingestion of potentially infected animals or fruits (hare, strawberries); however, sometimes there is no risk factor present (68.5%) [1,2]. In our case, the patient and his mother had no previous history of tick bite, and the possible routes were direct contact (skinning by hand) and inhalation. Both of them had skinned a wild boar, but the incubation period was too long for this to be the cause, and neither of them had had wounds or ulcers on their hands. They also denied having eaten other wild animals, river crabs or wild fruits, or having drunk water from springs. The similarity of the clinical picture in the patient and his mother suggested a common source of infection, but its etiology could not be established.
3. The laboratory diagnosis is generally based on the positivity of agglutinating antibodies to *Francisella tularensis*. Our patient developed seroconversion with a maximum titer of 1:2560. Another microbiological technique for the diagnosis of tularemia is PCR [3]. In this case, a sample of the fluid obtained was positive for *F. tularensis* by PCR (performed by Dr Pedro Anda, Instituto Carlos III, Spain).
4. Because *F. tularensis* antibodies may cross-react with *Brucella* sp., as well as with other microorganisms such as *Proteus* OX19 and *Yersinia* sp. [2,4].

5. Treatment is usually empirical. Streptomycin is the drug of choice, although the percentage of cure of tularemia with streptomycin and gentamicin is similar [5]. Therapy must be continued for 10–14 days, but the duration of the fever is the best indicator of response [2,5]. Because our patient declined therapy with intramuscular streptomycin, treatment with intravenous gentamicin was started (6 mg/kg per day, divided every 8 h, for 14 days).

DISCUSSION

Tularemia is caused by *F. tularensis*, a small, Gram-negative coccobacillus. Two main types of *F. tularensis* have been described, type A and type B, which have differences in their epidemiology and virulence. Type A is the predominant biovar found in North America; type B, a less virulent biovar, occurs in Europe, Asia and North America [6]. In Spain, this is a rare illness with sporadic reports, with the exception of a recent epidemic tularemia outbreak in Valladolid [7].

The most important reservoirs are hares and ticks, although other wild animal can be reservoirs of this illness. It is transmitted to human by tick bite, direct contact with infected animals (skinning of dead animals), and inhalation and ingestion of contaminated water or food [1,2,8]. A bimodal distribution of cases has been described. Tick-associated disease occurs from May to September, whereas rabbit-associated disease is most common from November to February [2].

The clinical presentation depends on the route of inoculation and the lymphadenopathy is used to determine the site and mode of inoculation. After mammal exposure, 65% of lymphadenopathy occurred in the axilla; but after tick bite, 64% of lymphadenopathy occurred in the inguinal area. Because there was no previous tick bite history in our patient, the possible routes were skinning and inhalation. Oropharyngeal tularemia is due to ingestion of potentially infected animals or fruits (hare, strawberries) or contaminated water ingestion; however, sometimes there is no risk factor present (68.5%) [1,2,8].

Six classical forms of tularemia have been described in humans, based on clinical presentation of the illness: ulceroglandular, glandular, oculoglandular, oropharyngeal, typhoidal and pneumonic [2,9]. The most common clinical form of tularemia is ulceroglandular, with a primary ulcer on the skin and corresponding regional lymphadenopathy. Glandular tularemia, in which no primary ulcer is seen, is less common [1,2,7]. Among all the clinical pictures of tularemia, oropharyngeal tularemia appears to represent about 3% [1]. It is possible that this type of tularemia, without other manifestations, could remain undiagnosed, and its diagnosis is more a fortuitous finding than a primary suspicion [8]. In Spain, during the report of the first 65 cases of an epidemic tularemia outbreak in Valladolid, no cases of oropharyngeal tularemia were diagnosed [7].

The usual incubation period is 3–5 days (range, 1–21 days). Tularemia usually begins abruptly. Fever, chills, headache, malaise, anorexia and fatigue are quite common. Persistent lymphadenopathy could be present for a long time, even years, without appropriate treatment [1,2]. About 50% of patients have a history of sore throat, but, on examination, this is not clinically infected. These patients are often referred to a specialist, because the symptoms do not subside with β -lactam antibiotics [1].

Laboratory parameters are unremarkable [2]. The laboratory diagnosis is generally based on the positivity of agglutinating antibodies to *F. tularensis*. A fourfold increase in titer between two determinations is considered to be diagnostic, but a single titer of 1:160 or higher in a patient suspected of tularemia is very suggestive. Because of the infectious risk for laboratory workers, routine culture of *F. tularensis* is not indicated. When there is a suspicion of tularemia, laboratory workers should be notified. Another useful microbiological technique for the diagnosis of tularemia is PCR [3], but this is not available in all laboratories.

F. tularensis antibodies may cross-react with *Brucella* sp., *Proteus* OX19 and *Yersinia* sp. [2,4]. In patients with tularemia, slide tests for heterophilic antibodies (Monotest) may be positive. Therefore, cases of oropharyngeal tularemia may be misdiagnosed as mononucleosis if the tularemia agglutination titer is not determined [1,2].

If a biopsy specimen (node or abscess) shows a combination of abscess and caseous type of necrosis with an infiltration of numerous polymorphonuclear leukocytes, tularemia should be considered [1].

Treatment is usually empirical. Streptomycin is the drug of choice (1 g every 12 h IM for 7–14 days). The percentages of cure of tularemia with streptomycin and gentamicin are 97% and 86%, respectively. Additional factors could have contributed to failure in gentamicin therapy (i.e. inclusion of severe illness or presence of underlying diseases), so the efficacies of streptomycin and gentamicin are similar against tularemia [5]. The therapy must be continued for 10–14 days, but the duration of the fever is the best indicator of response [2,5]. During pregnancy and when the use of streptomycin is not possible, gentamicin is an effective alternative. The use of once-daily gentamicin for the treatment of tularemia has been suggested, but there is little evidence available, so further studies will be necessary to determine its efficacy. Other alternative regimens are doxycycline, quinolones (ciprofloxacin), and even imipenem–cilastatin [5,7].

In areas where tularemia has been described, this should be included among differential diagnoses of oropharyngeal infection when β -lactam antibiotics are not successful [1,8].

Chemoprophylaxis for risk groups is not recommended, and antibiotic prophylaxis after tick bite is not indicated. Avoiding exposure to the microorganism is the best way to prevent

tularemia (not skinning or dressing the animal without gloves, mask and glasses, avoiding tick bites, and removing ticks as quickly as possible with tweezers) [2].

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors wish to thank Dr Pedro Anda for performance of the PCR. We are grateful to Ana Garcia for her revision of the English translation of our study.

REFERENCES

1. Luotonen J, Syrjälä H, Jokinen K, Sutinen S, Salminen A. Tularemia in otolaryngologic practice. An analysis of 127 cases. *Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg* 1986; 112: 77–80.
2. Evans ME, Gregory DW, Schaffner W, McGee ZA. Tularemia: a 30-year experience with 88 cases. *Medicine (Baltimore)* 1985; 64: 251–69.
3. Long GY, Oprandy JJ, Narayanan RB, Fortier AH, Porter KR, Nacy CA. Detection of *Francisella tularensis* in blood by polymerase chain reaction. *J Clin Microbiol* 1993; 31: 152–4.
4. Behan K, Klein GC. Reduction of *Brucella* species and *F tularensis* cross-reacting agglutinins by dithiothreitol. *J Clin Microbiol* 1982; 16: 756–7.
5. Enderlin G, Morales L, Jacobs RF, Cross JT. Streptomycin and alternative agents for the treatment of tularemia: review of the literature. *Clin Infect Dis* 1994; 19: 42–7.
6. Olsufiev NG, Emelyanova OS, Dunayeva TN. Comparative study of strains of *B. tularensis*. II. Evaluation of criteria of virulence of *Bacterium tularensis* in the old and the new world and their taxonomy. *J Hyg Epidemiol Microbiol Immunol* 1959; 3: 138–49.
7. Bachiller Luque P, Pérez Castrillón JL, Martín Luquero M *et al.* Preliminary report of an epidemic tularemia outbreak in Valladolid. *Rev Clin Esp* 1998; 198: 789–93.
8. Tärnvik A, Sandström G, Sjöstedt A. Infrequent manifestations of tularemia in Sweden. *Scand J Infect Dis* 1997; 29: 443–6.
9. Plourde PJ, Embree J, Friesen F, Lindsay G, Williams T. Glandular tularemia with typhoidal features in a Manitoba child. *Can Med Assoc J* 1992; 146: 1953–5.