

RATIONAL USE OF ANTIBIOTICS

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GENERAL PRINCIPLES IN THE USE OF ANTIBIOTICS

Introduction

Antibiotics are one of the most commonly prescribed drugs today. Rational use of antibiotics is extremely important as injudicious use can adversely affect the patient, cause emergence of antibiotic resistance and increase the cost of health care. Prescribing an antibiotic comprises several phases:

- i) perception of need - is an antibiotic necessary ?
- ii) choice of antibiotic - what is the most appropriate antibiotic ?
- iii) choice of regimen : what dose, route, frequency and duration are needed ?
- iv) monitoring efficacy : is the treatment effective ?

Is an antibiotic necessary?

Antibiotics are generally only useful for the treatment of bacterial infections. It is important to remember that not all fevers are due to infections and not all infections are caused by bacteria. The majority of infections seen in general practice are of viral origin and antibiotics can neither treat viral infections nor prevent secondary bacterial infections in these patients. Even where a bacterial aetiology is established, an antibiotic may not be always necessary. Many bacterial infections resolve spontaneously. Minor superficial skin infections may be more suitably treated with a local antiseptic. Collections of pus should be drained surgically and if drainage is adequate, antibiotics are often not required.

Choice of an antibiotic

The successful outcome of therapy would depend very much on the choice of the antibacterial agent. In the process of selecting an antibiotic, three main factors need to be considered; the aetiological agent, the patient and the antibiotic.

The aetiological agent

Determination of the aetiological agent depends on a combination of clinical acumen and laboratory support. In many instances an antibiotic prescription has to be made based on the clinical diagnosis (empirical therapy). Even where a bacteriology report is available it is necessary to interpret the report. Bacterial isolates from culture specimens may represent normal flora, colonisers or contaminants rather than true pathogens. Sensitivity results when available are at best only a guide to treatment. Laboratory reports should always be viewed in the light of clinical findings.

The patient

Several patient factors have to be considered in selecting an antibiotic. Age is an important factor. The very young and the very old tend to be more prone to the adverse effects of the antibiotics. Neonates have immature liver and renal functions which affect their ability to

metabolise or excrete antibiotics. Antibiotics and their metabolites may adversely affect growing tissues and organs in children. Elderly patients are more likely to suffer from nephrotoxicity and allergic reactions. Dosage modifications would also have to be made in those patients with hepatic or renal impairment. Antibiotics can also give rise to severe toxic reactions in patients with certain genetic abnormalities eg sulphonamides in patients with glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency. Antibiotics should as far as possible be avoided in pregnancy and when it is necessary to use an antibiotic, betalactam antibiotics and erythromycin are probably the safest. A history of allergy to antibiotics should always be sought before administration. Routine intradermal test doses for penicillin allergy is of little value and may even be dangerous. If in doubt avoid betalactams and use a macrolide or tetracycline (in adults) instead. In serious infections like meningitis and bacteraemic shock the immediate institution of the best available antibiotic for the suspected pathogen(s) is imperative as delay in treatment will increase both mortality and morbidity. In less serious situations such as otitis media where spontaneous recovery is common, an antibiotic that covers for the predominant organisms is adequate.

The antibiotic

The clinician should have adequate knowledge of the pharmacokinetic properties of the antibiotic he uses. Antibiotics vary in their ability to be absorbed orally or to cross the blood brain barrier and these factors will affect their routes of administration. The ability of the antibiotic to achieve therapeutic concentrations at the site of infection is another important consideration thus antibiotics used for treating urinary infections should ideally be concentrated in urine. Some antibiotics have very severe toxic effects and are best avoided in certain conditions. The doctor should also be aware of drug-drug interactions since many antibiotics can interact with other non-antibiotic drugs. Finally the cost of the antibiotic is also of major concern. In calculating costs it is perhaps more reasonable to take into account the total cost of treatment rather than just the actual cost of antibiotic per dose. The route of administration, the necessity for monitoring antibiotic levels and the patient's length of stay in hospital can affect the cost of treatment as well. The patient's compliance to medication is an important factor for consideration in the choice of antibiotics.

Choice of regimen

Parenteral or oral

Whether the route of administration should be oral or parenteral would depend on whether the patient is able to take oral treatment reliably. In cases of severe sepsis where rigors, hyperthermia/hypothermia, tachycardia and hypotension are present, intravenous therapy should be instituted. When in doubt it would be safer to commence intravenous treatment and review the treatment daily.

Duration of treatment

Except for a few conditions, the optimum duration of antibiotic treatment is unknown. Many antibiotics are often prescribed for a duration of 5-7 days. Nevertheless it is reasonable to discontinue therapy even after a shorter period if the patient's symptoms have resolved. There are however certain infections where prolonged treatment is necessary (Table I). In some conditions eg uncomplicated cystitis in women and gonococcal urethritis in males, single dose regimens have been shown to be effective.

Table I. Conditions where a minimum duration of treatment has been established.

Infection	Minimum duration of treatment
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Tuberculosis	4 -6 months
Empyema and lung abscess	4 - 6 weeks
Endocarditis	4 weeks
Osteomyelitis	4 weeks
Atypical pneumonia	2 - 3 weeks
Pneumococcal meningitis	7 days
Pneumococcal pneumonia	5 days

Monitoring efficacy

Early review of response

A routine early review (3 days after commencing treatment) of the patient's response is important in order to ensure that the patient is receiving appropriate treatment. After review the doctor will have to decide whether to:

- i) continue with the present regimen
- ii) increase the level of treatment by changing from oral to parenteral; increasing the dose or changing to a broader spectrum antibiotic
- iii) decrease the level of treatment by changing from parenteral to oral, decreasing the dose or changing to a more specific narrow spectrum antibiotic
- iv) stopping the antibiotic if the infection has resolved; the objective of treatment is achieved or the diagnosis has been changed.

Inconsistent microbiology reports

If the patient is responding there is no necessity to change antibiotic even when the laboratory reports a resistant organism. The isolate in question could have been a coloniser or a contaminant. Infections may resolve spontaneously and the antibiotic could have affected the bacteria in a way that makes it more susceptible to the host's immune defenses.

If the patient's condition fails to improve, a change in antibiotic may be necessary even when the laboratory reports a sensitive organism.

Causes of non-response to antibiotics

A patient may fail to respond to an antibiotic for a number of reasons which include:

- i) the aetiological agent is resistant to the antibiotic
- ii) the diagnosis is incorrect
- iii) the choice of antibiotic is correct but the dose and/or route of administration is wrong
- iv) the antibiotic cannot reach the site of infection
- v) there is a collection of pus that should be drained surgically or a foreign body/devitalised tissue that should be removed

- vi) there is secondary infection
- vii) antibiotic fever
- viii) non-compliance of the host

Changing from intravenous to oral

Wherever feasible intravenous therapy should be changed to oral therapy. The oral antibiotic (not necessarily the oral preparation of the intravenous antibiotic) should be selected based on clinical and laboratory findings. Similarly one should not hesitate to revert to intravenous therapy if the patient's condition warrants it.

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GUIDELINES ON ANTIBIOTIC THERAPY

The following guidelines are issued for the more common infections only. However even for common infections they may not apply to certain patients. When in doubt always seek a second opinion. The recommendations for first and second choice regimens are based on a global assessment of efficacy, adverse effects, prevailing sensitivity patterns and cost. It should also be noted that guidelines such as these have to be reviewed and updated from time to time.

NOTE :

1. Erythromycin may be substituted for by a newer macrolide.
2. Gentamicin may be substituted for by another aminoglycoside depending on the local prevailing sensitivity pattern.
3. Where ampicillin is recommended amoxicillin may also be used.
Ampicillin/amoxicillin may be substituted for by a betalactam/betalactamase inhibitor combination depending on the local prevailing sensitivity pattern.
4. Cloxacillin is the drug of choice for severe methicillin-sensitive *Staphylococcus aureus*. For oral therapy flucloxacillin is preferred to cloxacillin as the former is more reliably absorbed and achieves higher tissue levels. In some children who cannot tolerate cloxacillin a first or second generation cephalosporin may be used.
5. Quinolones are not recommended in children.

Abbreviations:

- 1o : First generation**
- 2o : Second generation**
- 3o : Third generation**

Table 1. RESPIRATORY INFECTIONS

Condition	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)	Notes
Acute pharyngitis/tonsillitis,	Penicillin V	Erythromycin	The majority of sore throats are viral in

<p>scarlet fever (<i>Streptococcus pyogenes</i> suspected or proven)</p>			<p>origin and antibiotics are not indicated for treatment or prevention of secondary bacterial infections.</p>
<p>Diphtheria (<i>Corynebacterium diphtheriae</i>)</p>	<p>Benzylpenicillin</p>		<p>Antibiotics are not the mainstay of treatment. Antitoxin and supportive treatment are critical in management. Close contacts should receive erythromycin. Non-immunised contacts should be immunised.</p>
<p>Acute otitis media and acute sinusitis (<i>Strep pneumoniae</i>, <i>Haemophilus influenzae</i> & <i>Moraxella catarrhalis</i>)</p>	<p>Ampicillin or Betalactam/ betalactamase inhibitor combination</p>	<p>New macrolides</p>	<p>Most strains of <i>Strep pneumoniae</i> and <i>Haemophilus influenzae</i> in Malaysia are sensitive to ampicillin. However many strains of <i>Moraxella catarrhalis</i> are resistant to ampicillin.</p>
<p>Acute epiglottitis (<i>Haemophilus influenzae</i>)</p>	<p>Chloramphenicol</p>	<p>Ampicillin or 3o cephalosporin</p>	<p>Acute epiglottitis is a medical emergency and hospitalisation with aggressive therapy is required</p>
<p>Pertussis (<i>Bordetella pertussis</i>)</p>	<p>Erythromycin</p>		<p>Antibiotic treatment does not significantly alter the course of disease. If given early it helps to eradicate oropharyngeal organisms thus</p>

			interrupting transmission.
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Condition	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)	Notes
Acute bronchitis (2o bacterial infections due to <i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i> & <i>Hae-mophilus influenzae</i>)	Ampicillin	Erythromycin or Doxycycline (adults only)	Acute bronchitis is primarily a viral infection and antibiotics are not indicated . However 2o bacterial infection may occur in severe cases. Erythromycin is preferred if <i>Mycoplasma</i> is suspected on epidemiological or other grounds.
Acute exacerbations of chronic bronchitis (<i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i> , <i>Hae-mophilus influenzae</i> , <i>Moraxella catarrhalis</i>)	Ampicillin or Betalactam/ betalacta-mase inhibitor combination	Erythromycin or Doxycycline (adults only)	
Acute bronchial asthma	Antibiotics are not indicated		There is no evidence that antibiotics will significantly alter outcome.
Pneumonia Community acquired pneumonia - mild to moderate (<i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i> , <i>Hae-mophilus influenzae</i> , <i>Mycoplasma</i>)	Benzympenicillin or Ampicillin or Erythromycin		Erythromycin is preferred when <i>Mycoplasma</i> is suspected.
Community acquired	Benzympenicillin and Gentamicin	Betalactam/ betalacta-mase	When <i>Staph aureus</i> is suspected or demonstrated

<p>aerobic gram negative bacilli)</p> <p>immunosuppressed (aerobic gram negative bacilli and <i>Staphylo-coccus aureus</i>)</p>	<p>a 3o Cephalosporin</p> <p>Gentamicin and a 3o Cephalosporin or Ureidopenicillin or Carbapenem</p>		<p>Pneumonia in the immunocompromised may also be caused by a variety of non-bacterial agents eg fungi (<i>Candida</i>, <i>Aspergillus</i>), <i>Toxoplasma</i>, <i>Pneumocystis</i> and viruses.</p>
<p>Lung abscess/ empyema (mixed infection of anaerobes, <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>, <i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i> and aerobic gram negative bacilli)</p>	<p>Benzylpenicillin and Gentamicin and Metronidazole</p>		<p>Empyema in childhood is nearly always due to staphylococci. Where staphylococci is suspected substitute cloxacillin for benzyl penicillin</p>

Table 2. URINARY TRACT INFECTIONS

Condition	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)	Notes
<p>Acute urinary tract infection (<i>E. coli</i>, <i>Staphylococcus saprophyticus</i>)</p>	<p>Cotrimoxazole or Trimethoprim or Ampicillin or Nitrofurantoin</p>	<p>1o/2o cephalosporin</p>	<p>Many hospital acquired pathogens are now resistant to ampicillin. In uncomplicated cystitis in adults 4 tabs cotrimoxazole in a single dose has been shown to be effective.</p>

			In pregnancy ampicillin should be given for 10 days
Pyelonephritis and complicated urinary tract infection (<i>E. coli</i> , other <i>Enterobacteriaceae</i>)	2o Cephalosporin and Gentamicin or a quinolone		In all cases an attempt should be made to exclude any underlying abnormality
Recurrent urinary infection (<i>E. coli</i> , other <i>Enterobacteriaceae</i> , enterococci)	Cotrimoxazole 1 tab nightly or Nitrofurantoin 50 mg nightly	Ampicillin 500 mg nightly or Cephalexin 250 mg nightly or Nalidixic acid 500 mg nightly	Recurrent urinary tract infections may require very prolonged prophylaxis. Female patients should be advised on perineal hygiene and micturition after intercourse. Treat current infection before starting on prophylaxis. Cotrimoxazole should be avoided during the 3rd trimester of pregnancy.
Catheter associated infections (<i>Enterobacteriaceae</i> , <i>Pseudomonas</i> and <i>Enterococcus</i>)	Treat according to culture & sensitivity report		Isolation of bacteria in urine culture per se is not an indication while catheter is in-situ. Antibiotics will not eradicate the bacteria and may promote resistance instead. Treatment is only necessary if systemic signs are present and based on the most recent culture. Catheter care is all important. Bladder irrigation is generally not useful and may introduce infection. The catheter should be removed as early

			as it is possible. If the catheter is changed in the presence of bacteriuria, a single prophylactic dose of antibiotic should be given 30 minutes before the procedure.
Acute urinary infection in children (<i>E. coli</i> and other <i>Enterobacteriaceae</i>)			In all cases assessment of renal function (cystograms, ultrasound of kidneys, ureters and bladder) should be performed. Prophylactic antibiotics for children < 4 years is recommended in cases where anatomical abnormalities are detected.
Mild	Cotrimoxazole or Ampicillin or Oral 1o cephalosporin		
Severe	2o/3o cephalosporin or aminoglycoside		

Table 3. SKIN AND SOFT TISSUE INFECTIONS

Condition	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)	Notes
Impetigo (<i>Strep pyogenes, Staph aureus</i>)	Penicillin	Erythromycin or Cloxacillin and Penicillin or Cephalexin	Mupirocin ointment may be considered for topical use in cases of MRSA infections.
Boils and carbuncles (<i>Staph aureus</i>)	Erythromycin	Cloxacillin or Cephalexin	Surgical drainage is the definitive mode of treatment and antibiotics may not be necessary if

			drainage is adequate.
<p>Cellulitis/Erysipelas/ Lymphangitis (<i>Strep pyogenes</i>) Severe cases</p> <p>Mild to moderate cases</p> <p>Facial and orbital cellulitis in children (<i>Haem influenzae</i>)</p>	<p>Benzylpenicillin or Procaine penicillin</p> <p>Penicillin V or Erythromycin</p> <p>2o or 3o Cephalosporin</p>		<p>Change to oral therapy once patient's condition improves.</p> <p>If staphylococci suspected or proven use a combination of penicillin and cloxacillin</p>
<p>Decubitus ulcers (<i>Enterobacteriaceae, Pseudomonas, Enterococcus, anaerobic bacteria</i>)</p>	<p>Antibiotics are not indicated unless systemic symptoms are present.</p>		<p>2o Cephalosporin and Metronidazole may be used in cases with systemic symptoms</p>
<p>Diabetic foot infections (Polymicrobial infection - <i>Enterobacteriaceae, Staph aureus, streptococci, anaerobic bacteria</i>)</p>	<p>2o or 3o Cephalo-sporin and Metronidazole or Betalactam-betalactamase inhibitor combination</p>	<p>Cloxacillin and Gentamicin and Metronidazole</p>	<p>Diabetic foot infections may involve extensive tissue and bone necrosis.</p> <p>Surgical debridement is often necessary.</p> <p>The duration of treatment depends on the response.</p>
<p>Infected bites (animal bites : <i>Pastuerella multocida, staphylococci</i>)</p> <p>human bites : mouth flora)</p>	<p>Ampicillin and/or Cloxacillin</p>	<p>Erythromycin</p>	<p>Tetanus toxoid should be administered to patients requiring a booster.</p> <p>The value of antibiotic prophylaxis in clinically</p>

			<p>uninfected bites is not proven. For hand wounds and extensive injuries a 5 day course of antibiotics is advised.</p> <p>Human bites may have medicolegal implications and proper documentation including photographs may be necessary.</p>
Umbilical sepsis			<p>Antibiotics are generally not indicated. Where there is evidence of spread a course of cloxacillin is recommended.</p>
Lymphadenitis (<i>Staph aureus</i> , <i>Strep pyogenes</i>)	<p>Cloxacillin or Erythromycin or 1oCephalosporin</p>		

Table 4. MUSCULOSKELETAL INFECTIONS

Condition	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)	Notes
<p>Acute osteomyelitis (<i>Staph aureus</i> - commonest; others include <i>Enterobacteriaceae</i>, <i>Pseudomonas</i>)</p> <p>In children < 5 yr staphylococci,</p>	<p>Cloxacillin</p>	<p>Fusidic acid</p>	<p>For children < 5 yr use a combination of cloxacillin and 2o/ 3o Ceph- alosporin</p>

streptococci and Haem influenzae			
Chronic osteomyelitis (<i>Staph aureus</i> , <i>Enterobacteriaceae</i> , <i>Pseud aeruginosa</i>)	Cloxacillin	Fucidic acid and Rifampicin <i>or according to culture report</i>	Where MRSA is suspected or proven, fucidic acid and rifampicin should be 1st choice antibiotics. For cases due to <i>Pseud aeruginosa</i> , an antipseudomonal fluroquinolone may be considered.
Septic arthritis (> 5 years : <i>Staph aureus</i> ; < 5 years : <i>Staph aureus</i> , <i>Haem influenzae</i>)	Cloxacillin		For children < 5 yr use a combination of cloxacillin and 2o/ 3o Ceph- alosporin
Compound fractures (<i>Staph aureus</i> , gram negative bacilli) Grade I fractures Grade II fractures Grade III fractures	2o or 3o Ceph- alosporin 2o or 3o Ceph- alosporin and Gentamicin 2o or 3o ceph- alosporin and Gentamicin and Metronidazole		The optimum duration of antibiotic administration has not been established. No differences have been shown in 1,3 or 5 day courses. Infection is more likely in Grade 3 fractures with severe soft tissue and vascular injuries. Routine cultures should be taken and the antibiotics changed if necessary. This especially so for cases where surgery is delayed. Early surgical debridement and adequate fracture stabilisation within 6-8 hours of injury is the most important aspect of treatment.
Gas gangrene (<i>Clostridium</i> sp)	Benzylpenicillin		Use 4 mega 6 hrly

<i>Enterococcus</i> and <i>Bacteroides</i>)	and methronidazole	Metronidazole	
Antibiotic associated colitis (<i>Clostridium difficile</i>)	Vancomycin (oral) or Metronidazole		
Enteric fever (<i>Salmonella typhi</i> , <i>Salmonella paratyphi</i>)	Chloramphenicol or Cotrimoxazole or Ceftriaxone	Ampicillin or Quinolone	The majority of strains of <i>Salmonella typhi</i> isolated in Malaysia are still sensitive to chloramphenicol. The newer fluoroquinolones have been shown to be effective for the treatment of carriers.
Acute uncomplicated diarrhoeas (viruses, <i>E. coli</i> , <i>Salmonella sp</i> , <i>Shigella sp</i> , <i>Campylobacter</i>)	No antibiotic necessary		Oral rehydration salt solutions (ORS) should be given for replacement therapy. <i>Salmonella</i> sepsis is not uncommon in severely ill infants and a 3 rd cephalosporin is indicated when suspected.

Condition	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)	Notes
Cholera (<i>Vibrio cholerae</i> O1, O139)	Doxycycline for 4 days		Replacement of fluids and correction of electrolyte imbalances are the mainstay of treatment. Use syrup tetracycline in children.
Bacterial dysentery (<i>Shigella</i> , <i>Salmonella</i> , enteroinvasive <i>E. coli</i>)	Cotrimoxazole (Only in severe dysentery)		<i>Shigella</i> in Malaysia is often resistant to multiple antibiotics. For such strains the use of a quinolone may be considered.

Amoebic dysentery (<i>Entamoeba histolytica</i>)	Metronidazole	Tinidazole	
Liver abscess Pyogenic (coliforms, staphylococci, micro-aerophilic streptococci)	Ampicillin and Metronidazole	2o or 3o cephalosporin and Metronidazole	
Amoebic (<i>Entamoeba histolytica</i>)	Metronidazole	Tinidazole	

Table 6. GENITOURINARY INFECTIONS (INCLUDING SEXUALLY TRANSMITTED DISEASES)

Note : For all sexually transmitted diseases every effort should be made for contact tracing and treatment of the sexual partners.

Condition	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)	Notes
Pelvic inflammatory disease (anaerobic bacteria, streptococci, <i>Enterobacteriaceae</i> , chlamydia, <i>Neisseria gonorrhoeae</i>) Mild to moderate	Doxycycline and Gentamicin and Metronidazole		
Severe	Doxycycline and 2o or 3o cephalosporin and		

	Metronidazole		
Vaginitis Candidal <i>(Candida albicans, Candida tropicalis, other Candida spp)</i>	Nystatin or Clotrimazole	Fluconazole or Ketoconazole or Itraconazole	Metronidazole should be avoided during the first trimester. With recurrent infections consider treatment for the sexual partner as well.
Trichomonal <i>(Trichomonas vaginalis)</i>	Metronidazole or Tinidazole		
Bacterial vaginosis <i>(Gardnerella vaginalis, Mobiluncus, Bacteroides sp)</i>	Metronidazole or Tinidazole	Ampicillin	
Gonorrhoea <i>(Neisseria gonorrhoeae)</i> Uncomplicated urethritis, rectal and pharyngeal gonorrhoea	Spectinomycin or Ceftriaxone or Ciprofloxacin		For uncomplicated urethritis, rectal and pharyngeal gonorrhoea single dose treatment is sufficient.
Pelvic inflammatory disease	Spectinomycin or 2o or 3o Cephalosporin		For other forms of gonorrhoea, three day courses are required.
Adult gonococcal ophthalmia	Ceftriaxone or Spectinomycin		In gonococcal ophthalmia parenteral antibiotics should be accompanied by hourly conjunctival
Gonococcal ophthalmia neonatorum			

			irrigation with saline or antibiotic eyedrops.
Non-gonococcal urethritis (<i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i> , <i>Ureaplasma urealyticum</i>)	Doxycycline or Erythromycin		Doxycycline or erythromycin should be given for at least seven days. With certain newer macrolides single dose regimens have been shown to be effective.
Inclusion conjunctivitis (adults) (<i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i>)	Doxycycline or Erythromycin		Duration of treatment should be fourteen days.
Syphilis (<i>Treponema pallidum</i>)			For patients allergic to penicillin
Early	Procaine penicillin (10 days) or Benzathine penicillin (2 weekly doses)		Erythromycin or doxycycline for 30 days
Late	Procaine penicillin (21 days) or benzathine penicillin (3 weekly doses)		Erythromycin or doxycycline for 30 days
Neurosyphilis			Doxycycline for 30 days
Congenital syphilis	Procaine or Benzyl penicillin (21 days) Benzyl-penicillin		Asymptomatic babies born of syphilitic mothers should also be treated
Chancroid (<i>Haemophilus ducreyi</i>)	Cotrimoxazole or Ceftriaxone		Bubos should be aspirated, not incised and drained.

Table 7. CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM INFECTIONS

Condition	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)	Notes
<p>Meningitis (<i>Haemophilus influenzae</i>, <i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i>, <i>Neisseria meningitidis</i>)</p> <p>Adult</p> <p>Children</p> <p>Neonatal meningitis</p>	<p>Benzyllin and Chloramphenicol or 3o Cephalosporin</p> <p>Ampicillin and Chloramphenicol or 3o cephalosporin</p> <p>Ampicillin and gentamicin or 3o cephalosporin</p>		<p>When the pathogen is known the antibiotic of choice for pneumococcal and meningococcal meningitis is benzyle penicillin. For haemophilus meningitis chloramphenicol or a 3o cephalosporin is the drug of choice.</p> <p>Meningitis caused by penicillin resistant pneumococci and ampicillin/chloramphenicol resistant haemophilus are still uncommon in Malaysia.</p> <p>Many laboratories have rapid diagnostic kits and results can often be obtained within a few hours.</p>
<p>Cryptococcal meningitis (<i>Cryptococcus neoformans</i>)</p>	<p>Amphotericin B and 5 Flu-cytosine</p>		<p>Fluconazole may be considered as an alternative drug for cryptococcal meningitis.</p>
<p>Brain abscess (adults) (<i>Streptococci</i>, anaerobic organisms)</p>	<p>Benzyllin and</p>	<p>3o Cephalosporin</p>	<p>Surgical drainage is the definitive</p>

Brain abscess (children) (Staphylococci, streptococci, gram negative aerobic bacilli and anaerobic organisms)	Metronidazole Cloxacillin and 3 ^o cephalosporin and Metronidazole	and Metronidazole	treatment for brain abscess.
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Table 8. CARDIOVASCULAR INFECTIONS

Condition	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)	Notes
<p>Endocarditis Non-intravenous drug user (Streptococcus viridans group)</p> <p>Intravenous drug user (<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>)</p> <p>Post-surgical endocarditis (Staphylococci, diphtheroids)</p>	<p>Benzympenicillin and Gentamicin</p> <p>Cloxacillin and Gentamicin</p> <p>Cloxacillin and Gentamicin</p>		<p>Dosage: Penicillin 2-3 mega iv, 4-6 hrly for 4-6 weeks Gentamicin 1.0 mg/kg iv, 8 hrly for 2-6 weeks Cloxacillin 2 g iv, 4hrly for 6 weeks. After 4 weeks of iv penicillin, replacement with oral penicillin plus probenecid can be considered. When endocarditis is shown to be due to <i>Enterococcus</i> use ampicillin 2 g iv 6hrly and gentamicin for 6 weeks. Endocarditis in IDUs often involves the tricuspid valves and associated with pneumonia/lung abscess. Endocarditis in IDUs may occasionally be caused by gram negative bacilli in which case treatment should be based on the sensitivity report. For MRSA infections use vancomycin or a combination of fucidic acid and rifampicin. <i>Staphylococcus epidermidis</i></p>

			<p>is often resistant to cloxacillin thus vancomycin may have to be used instead.</p> <p>Other bacteria and fungi can also cause post-surgical endocarditis and treatment will be according to culture report.</p> <p>Surgical intervention is often necessary for prosthetic valve infection.</p>
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Table 9. BACTERAEMIA AND SEPTICAEMIA

Condition (According to most likely focus)	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)	Notes
<p>Urinary (community acquired - <i>Enterobact-eriaceae, Enterococcus)</i></p> <p>Urinary (hospital acquired - <i>Pseudomonas</i> and other gram negative aerobic bacilli)</p>	<p>Ampicillin and Gentamicin</p> <p>2o or 3o generation Cephalo-sporin and Gentamicin</p>		
<p>Gall bladder/bowel (<i>Enterobacteriaceae, Enterococcus, anaerobic organisms)</i></p>	<p>3o generation Cephalo-sporin and Metronida-zole</p>	<p>Gentamicin and Metronida- zole or Betalactam- betalactamse inhibitor combination and gentamicin</p>	
<p>Female pelvis (<i>Enterobacteriaceae, Enterococcus,</i></p>	<p>Gentamicin and Metronida-zole</p>	<p>2o or 3o generation Cephalo- sporin</p>	

Neutropaenic	3 ^o generation Cephalosporin and Gentamicin	Ureidopenicillin or carbapenem and Gentamicin	In a significant proportion of neutropaenic patients cultures are negative. Many authorities would recommend commencement of antifungal treatment if there is no response after 3 - 5 days of antibacterial treatment.
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Table 10. OTHER INFECTIONS

Condition	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)	Notes
Scrub typhus (<i>Rickettsia tsutsugamushi</i>)	Tetracycline (to be given until at least 48 hours after fever has subsided) or Doxycycline for 3 days		If treatment is initiated before the fifth day of clinical disease, a further 3 day course 4 days later is required to prevent relapse.
Melioidosis (<i>Burkholderia pseudomallei</i>)	Ceftazidime for 14-21 days followed by Doxycycline or Cotrimoxazole or Amoxicillin/clavulanic acid for 3 months		Treatment for longer than 3 months may be necessary for some cases

Table 11. INFECTIONS ASSOCIATED WITH PREGNANCY

Antibiotics should be used with care in pregnancy. Beta-lactam antibiotics and macrolides are probably the safest antibiotics to use in pregnancy.

Condition	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)	Notes
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Asymptomatic bacteriuria/ Cystitis (<i>E. coli</i>)	Ampicillin or Cephalexin		
Acute pyelonephritis (<i>E. coli</i>)	2o or 3o generation Cephalo- sporin	Ampicillin	
Condition	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)	Notes
Chorioamnionitis/ Prolonged rupture of membranes (Group B streptococci, anaerobes, <i>Enterobacteriaceae</i>)	2o or 3o generation Cephalosporin and Metronidazole	Ampicillin and Gentamicin and Metronidazole	
Puerperial and post-abortion sepsis (Streptococci, <i>Entero-coccus</i> , staphylococci, <i>Enterobacteriaceae</i> , anaerobes)	2o or 3o generation Cephalosporin and Metronidazole	Ampicillin and Gentamicin and Metronidazole	

Table12. CHEMOPROPHYLAXIS FOR SELECTED MEDICAL CONDITIONS

Condition	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)	Notes
Rheumatic fever	Benzathine penicillin 1.2 mega every 4 weeks	Penicillin V 250 mg 12 hrly or Erythromycin 250 mg 12 hrly	Prophylaxis should be maintained for many years. Children should continue to receive prophylaxis until the age of 25 years and adults for at least 5 years whichever is the longer.
Cholera	Tetracycline 1 g daily for 5 days or		

	Doxycycline 200 mg stat dose		
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Condition	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)	Notes
<p>Bacterial endocarditis For dental and upper respiratory procedures</p> <p>For patients who have prosthetic valves or previous endocarditis undergoing dental and upper respiratory procedures; and for patients undergoing genitourinary manipulation</p> <p>For patients with prosthetic valves undergoing cardiac catheterisation, pace-maker insertion and skin biopsy</p>	<p>Amoxicillin 3 g oral 1 hour before procedure or Ampicillin 1 g iv just before procedure followed by 500 mg 6 hrs later</p> <p>Ampicillin 1 g iv just before procedure followed by 500 mg 6 hrs later and Gentamicin 1.5 mg/kg iv just before procedure and I dose 6 hr later</p> <p>Cloxacillin 1 g iv and Gentamicin 1.5 mg/kg iv just before procedure</p>		<p>Patients allergic to penicillin Erythromycin 1.5 g orally 1 hour before procedure followed by 500 mg 6 hours later or Vancomycin 1 g iv just before procedure</p> <p>Dosages for children: Amoxicillin 50mg/Kg before and 25 mg/Kg after Gentamicin 2 mg/Kg before Cloxacillin 50 mg/Kg before</p> <p>Clindamycin is preferred in patients on long term penicillin</p>

Post splenectomised children	Penicillin V 250 mg 12 hrly or Benzathine penicillin 1.2 mega monthly		Pneumococcal vaccine should be given to the patient one month before splenectomy
Close contacts of meningococcal and haemophilus meningitis patients	<p>Adults (meningococcal only)</p> <p>Rifampicin 600 mg 12 hrly for 2 days</p> <p>Children (Meningococcal and haemophilus)</p> <p>Rifampicin 10 mg/kg/day 12 hrly for 4 days</p>		In meningococcal meningitis treatment of the patient with penicillin may not reliably clear the nasopharynx of meningococci. A prophylactic course of rifampicin is advised for the convalescent patient before discharge back to the family circle.

SURGICAL CHEMOPROPHYLAXIS

The use of antibiotic prophylaxis has been shown to prevent post-surgical wound infections. When employed rationally significant reductions in morbidity and mortality and savings in resources can be achieved. However when used excessively and in situations when its benefit has not been proven, perioperative antibiotics can lead to unjustifiably high costs of medical care. Single dose regimens or very short courses are unlikely to lead to emergence of bacterial resistance but routine prolonged courses have been clearly associated with increased rates of resistance.

Surgical operations can be divided into four broad categories :

- clean (eg breast, thyroid and hernia operations)
- clean contaminated (eg upper gastrointestinal and biliary)
- contaminated (eg colorectal and trauma surgery within 4 hours of injury)
- dirty (eg perforated intestinal viscus, trauma surgery after 4 hours of injury)

Prophylaxis is generally recommended for clean-contaminated and contaminated operations. In clean operations prophylaxis maybe justified if the consequence of infection is very serious eg in cardiac operations and orthopaedic implants.

Another factor which should be considered in determining probability of infection is the patient himself. Factors that reduce host defenses eg old age, malignancy, malnutrition, steroid therapy, etc will increase the risk of infection.

In using antibiotics for surgical chemoprophylaxis the following principles should be adhered to:

1. It is important to distinguish between prophylaxis and treatment. Prophylaxis is given when no infection exists previously. When an infection is already present, even when clinically not evident, treatment should be given.
2. Prophylaxis should be given only in certain conditions where the benefits clearly outweigh the risks. The cost of prophylaxis should also be considered.
3. The antibiotic should be directed at the most likely contaminating organism for that particular procedure. Choice of antibiotic will also depend on whether the patient has been in hospital for a prolonged period and the current pattern of antibiotic resistance in the hospital. In general the agent selected should (a) be of low toxicity (b) have an established safety record (c) reach a useful concentration in the relevant tissues.
4. The route of administration, timing and duration of giving the antibiotic is planned to achieve the maximum concentration of the antibiotic in the tissues during and shortly after the operation. Antibiotics are preferably given by the intravenous route at the time of induction of anaesthesia. In most instances a single pre-operative dose would suffice. Where surgery is prolonged additional intraoperative doses may be given. There is no evidence that there is any benefit in extending prophylaxis beyond 24 hours after the operation.
5. Topical antibiotics are not recommended with the exception of ophthalmic surgery and cases of extensive skin loss.
6. Surgical chemoprophylactic regimens should be reviewed regularly and changes made if necessary.

GUIDELINES FOR SURGICAL ANTIBIOTIC PROPHYLAXIS

Gynaecologic surgery

Operative procedure	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)
Caesarean section (anaerobes, streptococci,	2o or 3o cephalosporin	1. Gentamicin and Metronidazole

aerobic gram-negative bacilli)		2. Ampicillin and Metronidazole
Hysterectomy (anaerobes, streptococci)	2o or 3o cephalosporin	Ampicillin and Metronidazole

General Surgery

Operative procedure	1st Choice antibiotic (s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)
Cholecystectomy (open and laparoscopic) (Aerobic gram-negative bacilli, enterococci, anaerobes)	2o or 3o cephalosporin	1. Beta-lactam/beta-lactamase inhibitor 2. Gentamicin
Oesophageal/gastric surgery (Aerobic gram-negative bacilli, streptococci)	2o or 3o cephalosporin	Beta-lactam/betalactamase inhibitor
Colorectal surgery (Anaerobes, aerobic gram-negative bacilli, enterococci)	2o or 3o cephalosporin and Metronidazole	Gentamicin and Metronidazole
Appendicectomy (Anaerobes, aerobic gram-negative bacilli, enterococci)	2o or 3o cephalosporin and Metronidazole	Gentamicin and Metronidazole

Vascular Surgery

Operative procedure	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)
Arterial replacement/ by-pass surgery	2o cephalosporin	Cloxacillin and Gentamicin

Cardiac Surgery

Operative Procedure	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)
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Valve replacement and coronary grafts	2o or 3o cephalosporin	
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Thoracic Surgery

Operative Procedure	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)
Lobectomy and pneumonectomy	2o or 3o cephalosporin	

Orthopaedic Surgery

Operative Procedure	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)
Arthroplasty and joint replacements (Staphylococci)	Cloxacillin and Gentamicin	2o cephalosporin
Open reduction of fractures (Staphylococci)	Cloxacillin and Gentamicin	2o cephalosporin

ENT Surgery

Operative Procedure	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)
Major oral, head and neck surgery (streptococci, anaerobes, aerobic gram-negative bacilli)	2o or 3o cephalosporin and Metronidazole	

Neurosurgery

Operative Procedure	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)
Craniotomy (Staphylococci)	2o cephalosporin	Cloxacillin and Gentamicin

Shunt procedures (Staphylococci)	2o cephalosporin	Cloxacillin and Gentamicin
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Urological surgery

Operative Procedure	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)
Stone surgery and prostatectomy (Enterobacteriaceae)	2o or 3o cephalosporin	Gentamicin

Endoscopic procedures

Antibiotic prophylaxis for endoscopic procedures are given for 2 main reasons:

- 1) to prevent endocarditis (see table below for degree of risk)
- 2) to prevent infective complications

Operative Procedure	1st Choice antibiotic(s)	2nd Choice antibiotic(s)
Hepatobiliary, pancreatic <i>in the presence of obstruction</i> (Enterobacteriaceae)	2o or 3o cephalosporin	Gentamicin
Cystoscopy, nephroscopy and stents (Enterobacteriaceae)	2o or 3o cephalosporin	Gentamicin
Arthroscopy (Staphylococci)	2o cephalosporin	Cloxacillin and Gentamicin

Estimated risk of endocarditis associated with preexisting cardiac disorders.
(From New Engl J Med 1995, 323:39)

Relatively high risk	Intermediate risk	Very low or negligible risk
Prosthetic heart valves Previous endocarditis Cyanotic congenital heart failure	Mitral valve prolapse with regurgitation Pure mitral stenosis Tricuspid valve disease	Mitral valve prolapse without regurgitation Trivial valvular regurgitation on

Patent ductus arteriosus Aortic regurgitation Aortic stenosis Mitral regurgitation Mitral stenosis and regurgitation Ventricular septal defect Coartation of the aorta Surgically repaired intracardiac lesions with residual haemodynamic abnormality	Pulmonary stenosis Asymmetric septal hypertrophy Bicuspid aortic valve or calcific aortic sclerosis with minimal haemodynamic abnormality Degenerative valvular disease in elderly patients Surgically repaired intracardiac lesions with no haemodynamic abnormality, less than 6 months after the operation	echocardiography without structural abnormality Isolated atrial septal defect Arteriosclerotic plaques Coronary artery disease Cardiac pacemaker Surgically repaired intracardiac lesions, with minimal or no haemodynamic abnormality, more than six months after operation
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ANTIBIOTIC DOSAGES FOR ADULTS

Note : The following dosing guidelines are the usually recommended regimens. They may not apply to all patients nor to all infections. When in doubt always consult a specialist.

Antibiotic	Usual oral regimen	Usual parenteral regimen
Amphotericin B		0.25 - 1.5 mg/kg/day
Amikacin		7.5 mg/kg 8 hrly
Amoxicillin	250 - 500 mg 8 hrly	
Amoxicillin-Clavulanate	250 - 500 mg 8 hrly (based on amoxicillin)	
Ampicillin	250 - 500 mg 6hrly	1 - 2 g 6 hrly
Ampicillin-sulbactam (Sultamicillin)	375 - 750 mg 12hrly	1 - 2 g 6hrly or 8 hrly
Azithromycin	500 mg dly	
Bacampicillin	400 - 800 mg 12 hrly	
Carbenicillin	500 mg - 1 g 6 hrly	5 - 6 g 6 hrly
Cefoperazone		1 - 2 g 8 - 12 hrly

Cefotaxime		1 - 2 g 8 - 12 hrly
Ceftazidime		1 - 2 g 8 - 12 hrly
Ceftriaxone		500 mg - 1 g 12 - 24 hrly
Cefuroxime	250 mg 12 hrly	750 mg - 1.5 g 8 - 12 hrly
Cephalexin	250 mg - 1 g 6 hrly	
Chloramphenicol	250 - 750 mg 6 hrly	250 mg - 1 g 6 hrly
Ciprofloxacin	250 - 750 mg 12 hrly	400 mg 12 hrly
Clarithromycin	250 - 500 mg 12 hrly	
Clindamycin	150 - 300 mg 6 hrly	300 - 900 mg 6 - 8 hrly
Cloxacillin	500 mg - 1 g 6 hrly	1 - 2 g 6 hrly
Doxycycline	100 mg 12 hrly	
Erythromycin	250 - 500 mg 6 hrly	1 g 6 hrly
Fluconazole	100 - 200 mg per day	100 - 200 mg per day
Flucytosine	37.5 mg/kg 6 hrly	
Fusidic acid	500 mg 8 hrly	500 mg 8 hrly
Gentamicin		1.5 - 2 mg/kg 8 hrly
Imipenem/Cilastatin		500 mg - 1 g 6hrly
Itraconazole	100 - 200 mg per day	
Kanamycin		5 - 7.5 mg/kg 8 hrly
Ketoconazole	200 - 400 mg 12 - 24 hrly	
Metronidazole	250 - 750 mg 8 hrly	500 mg 8 hrly
Nalidixic acid	1 g 6hrly	
Netilmicin		1.5 - 2 mg/kg 8 hrly

Nitrofurantoin	50 mg - 100 mg 6 - 8 hrly	
Norfloxacin	400 mg 12 hrly	
Nystatin	0.5 - 1 million units 6 hrly	
Ofloxacin	200 - 400 mg 12 hrly	
Pefloxacin	200 - 400 mg 12 hrly	
Penicillin G (Benzylpenicillin)		1 - 4 mega 4 - 6 hrly
Procaine penicillin		0.6 - 1.2 mega 12 - 24 hrly
Benzathine penicillin		0.6 - 1.2 mega monthly
Penicillin V	250 - 500 mg 6 hrly	
Piperacillin		3 - 4 gm 4 - 6 hrly
Rifampicin	600 mg 24 hrly	600 mg 24 hrly
Tetracycline	250 - 500 mg 6 hrly	
Tobramycin		1.5 - 2 mg/kg 8hrly
Trimethoprim-sulphamethoxazole (Cotrimoxazole)	800 mg (based on sulphamethoxazole) or 2 tabs 12 hrly	
Vancomycin		250 - 500 mg 8 - 12 hrly

Aminoglycoside dosing : There is now evidence to show that once daily dosing is as effective as multiple dosing.

ANTIBIOTIC DOSAGES FOR NEONATES WITH SERIOUS INFECTIONS

Note : The following dosing guidelines are for intravenous administration.

Antibiotic	Full term neonate	Premature neonate
Amikacin	<7 days : 20mg/kg div. 12 hrly	15 mg/kg div. 12 hrly

	>7 days : 30 mg/kg div. 12 hrly	
Ampicillin	<7 days : 150 mg/kg div. 8hrly >7 days : 200 mg/kg div. 6 hrly	100 mg/kg div. 12 hrly
Cefotaxime	<7 days : 100 mg/kg div. 12 hrly >7 days : 150 mg/kg div. 8hrly	100 mg/kg div. 12 hrly
Ceftazidime	<7 days : 100 mg/kg div. 12 hrly >7 days : 150 mg/kg div. 8 hrly	100 mg/kg div. 12 hrly
Ceftriaxone	<15 days : 20-50 mg/kg once daily >15 days : 20-80 mg/kg once daily	<15 days : 20-50 mg/kg once daily >15 days : 20-80 mg/kg once daily
Chloramphenicol	<2 weeks : 25 mg/kg div. 8 hrly >2 weeks : 50 mg/kg div. 8 hrly	25 mg/kg div. 8hrly
Clindamycin	20 mg/kg div. 8 hrly	15 mg/kg div. 8 hrly
Cloxacillin	<10 days : 200 mg/kg div. 8 hrly >10 days : 200 mg/kg div. 6 hrly	<10 days (<2.5 kg) : 100 mg/kg div. 8hrly; >10 days (<2.5 kg) : 100 mg/kg div. 8 hrly
Gentamicin	<7 days : 5 mg/kg div. 12 hrly >7 days : 7.5 mg/kg div. 8 hrly	5 mg/kg div. 8 hrly
Imipenem	<7 days : 40 mg/kg div. 12 hrly >7 days : 60 mg/kg div. 8 hrly	40 mg/kg div. 12 hrly
Kanamycin	<7 days : 20 mg/kg div. 12 hrly >7 days : 30 mg/kg div. 8 hrly	<3 days : 10 mg/kg once daily >3 days : 20 mg/kg div. 12 hrly

Metronidazole	15 mg/kg loading dose, then 15 mg/kg div 12 hrly	
Netilmicin	<7 days : 5 mg/kg div. 12 hrly >7 days : 7.5 mg/kg div. 8 hrly	5 mg/kg div. 8 hrly
Penicillin G (Benzylpenicillin)	<7 days : 250,000 U/kg div. 8 hrly >7 days : 400,000 U/kg div. 6 hrly	250,000 U/kg div. 12 hrly
Tobramycin	<7 days : 5 mg/kg div. 12 hrly >7 days : 7.5 mg/kg div. 8 hrly	5 mg/kg div. 8 hrly
Vancomycin	<7 days : 30 mg/kg div. 12 hrly >7 days : 45 mg/kg div. 8 hrly	30 mg/kg div. 12 hrly

ANTIBIOTIC DOSAGES OF ORAL ANTIBIOTICS FOR NEONATES

Antibiotic	Daily dosage
Amoxicillin	20-40 mg/kg div. 8 hrly
Ampicillin	50-100 mg/kg div 8 hrly
Cephalexin	50 mg/kg div 6 hrly
Chloramphenicol	< 14 days : 25 mg/kg div 8 hrly > 14 days : 50 mg/kg div. 6 hrly
Clindamycin	20 mg/kg div. 6 hrly
Cloxacillin	> 2.5 kg : 50-100 mg/kg div. 6 hrly < 2.5 kg : 50 mg/kg div. 8 hrly
Erythromycin	< 7 days : 20 mg/kg div. 12 hrly > 7 days : 20-40 mg/kg div. 6 hrly
Metronidazole	25 mg/kg div. 12 hrly

Penicillin V	50,000 U/kg div. 8 hrly
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PARENTERAL ANTIBIOTIC DOSAGES FOR SERIOUS INFECTIONS IN INFANTS AND CHILDREN

Antibiotic	Daily dosage
<i>Aminoglycosides</i> Amikacin Gentamicin Kanamycin Netilmicin Streptomycin Tobramycin	22 mg/kg div. 8 hrly 7.5 mg/kg div. 8 hrly 30 mg/kg div. 8 hrly 7.5 mg/kg div. 8 hrly 20 mg/kg div. 12 hrly 5 mg/kg div. 8 hrly
<i>Cephalosporins</i> Cefoperazone Cefotaxime Ceftazidime Ceftriaxone	> 12 years : 150 mg/kg div. 8 hrly 200 mg/kg div. 6 hrly 150 mg/kg div. 8 hrly 100 mg/kg once daily
Chloramphenicol	100 mg/kg div. 6 hrly
Clindamycin	40 mg/kg div. 6 hrly
Erythromycin	40 mg/kg div. 6 hrly
Imipenem	40-60 mg/kg div. 6 hrly
Metronidazole	30 mg/kg div 6 hrly
<i>Penicillins</i> Penicillin G Benzathine penicillin Procaine penicillin Ampicillin Cloxacillin Piperacillin	400,000 U/kg div. 6 hrly 50,000 U/kg single dose im. 50,000 U/kg div. 12 hrly im. 200 mg/kg div. 6 hrly 200 mg/kg div. 6 hrly 200 - 300 mg/kg div. 6 hrly
Rifampicin	10 - 20 mg/kg div. 12 hrly
Trimethoprim- sulphamethoxazole (Cotrimoxazole)	20 mg TMP/100 mg SMX/kg div. 6 hrly
Vancomycin	40 mg/kg div. 6 hrly

ANTIBIOTIC DOSAGES OF ORAL ANTIBIOTICS FOR INFANTS AND CHILDREN

Antibiotic	Daily dosage
Azithromycin	10 mg/kg dly
Cephalosporins Cefuroxime Cephalexin Cefaclor Cefadroxil Cephradine	30 mg/kg div 12 hrly 25 - 50 mg/kg div. 6 hrly 20 - 50 mg/kg div 8 hrly 30 mg/kg div 12 hrly 25 - 50 mg/kg div 12 hrly
Chloramphenicol	50-100 mg/kg div. 6 hrly
Clindamycin	25 mg/kg div. 6 hrly
Macrolides Clarithromycin Erythromycin	15 mg/kg div. 12 hrly 25 - 50 mg/kg div. 6 hrly
Metronidazole	25 mg/kg div 6 hrly
Nalidixic acid	50 mg/kg div 6 hrly
Nitrofurantoin	7 mg/kg div 6 hrly 2 mg/kg single dose dly (prophylaxis)
Penicillins Penicillin V Amoxicillin Ampicillin Cloxacillin Amoxicillin-clavulate Sultamicillin	<10kg : 125 mg 8 hrly; >10 kg : 250 mg 8 hrly 20 - 40 mg/kg div. 8 hrly 50 - 100 mg/kg div. 6 hrly 50 - 100 mg/kg div. 6 hrly 20 - 40 mg/kg div. 8 hrly 25 - 50 mk/kg div 12 hrly
Rifampicin	20 mg/kg div. 12 hrly
Trimethoprim-sulphamethoxazole (Cotrimoxazole)	6-20 mg TMP/30-100 mg SMX/kg div. 12 hrly