

infection demonstrated higher survival rates with clindamycin treatment than with β -lactam antibiotic therapy. Hyperbaric oxygen treatment also may be useful in gas gangrene due to clostridial species. Antibiotic treatment should be continued until all signs of systemic toxicity have resolved, all devitalized tissue has been removed, and granulation tissue has developed (Chaps. 173, 179, and 201).

In summary, infections of the skin and soft tissues are diverse in presentation and severity and offer a great challenge to the clinician. This chapter provides an approach to diagnosis and understanding of the pathophysiologic mechanisms involved in these infections. More in-depth information is found in chapters on specific infections.

157 Infectious Arthritis

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Although *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*, and other bacteria are the most common causes of infectious arthritis, various mycobacteria, spirochetes, fungi, and viruses also infect joints (Table 157-1). Since acute bacterial infection can destroy articular cartilage rapidly, all inflamed joints must be evaluated without delay to exclude noninfectious processes and determine appropriate antimicrobial therapy and drainage procedures. For more detailed information on infectious arthritis caused by specific organisms, the reader is referred to the chapters on those organisms.

Acute bacterial infection typically involves a single joint or a few joints. Subacute or chronic monoarthritis or oligoarthritis suggests mycobacterial or fungal infection; episodic inflammation is seen in syphilis, Lyme disease, and the reactive arthritis that follows enteric infections and chlamydial urethritis. Acute polyarticular inflammation occurs as an immunologic reaction during the course of endocarditis, rheumatic fever, disseminated neisserial infection, and acute hepatitis B. Bacteria and viruses occasionally infect multiple joints, the former most commonly in persons with rheumatoid arthritis.

APPROACH TO THE PATIENT: Infectious Arthritis

Aspiration of synovial fluid—an essential element in the evaluation of potentially infected joints—can be performed without difficulty in most cases by the insertion of a large-bore needle into the site of maximal fluctuance or tenderness or by the route of easiest access. Ultrasonography or fluoroscopy may be used to guide aspiration of difficult-to-localize effusions of the hip and, occasionally, the shoulder and other joints. Normal synovial fluid contains <180 cells (predominantly mononuclear cells) per microliter. Synovial cell counts averaging 100,000/ μ L (range, 25,000–250,000/ μ L), with >90% neutrophils, are characteristic of acute bacterial infections. Crystal-induced, rheumatoid, and other noninfectious inflammatory arthritides usually are associated with <30,000–50,000 cells/ μ L; cell counts of 10,000–30,000/ μ L, with 50–70% neutrophils and the remainder lymphocytes, are common in mycobacterial and fungal infections. Definitive diagnosis of an infectious process relies on identification of the pathogen in stained smears of synovial fluid, isolation of the pathogen from cultures of synovial fluid and blood, or detection of microbial nucleic acids and proteins by nucleic acid amplification (NAA)-based assays and immunologic techniques.

ACUTE BACTERIAL ARTHRITIS

PATHOGENESIS

Bacteria enter the joint from the bloodstream; from a contiguous site of infection in bone or soft tissue; or by direct inoculation during surgery, injection, animal or human bite, or trauma. In hematogenous infection, bacteria escape from synovial capillaries, which have no limiting basement membrane, and within hours provoke neutrophilic infiltration of the synovium. Neutrophils and bacteria enter the joint space; later, bacteria adhere to articular cartilage. Degradation of cartilage begins within 48 h as a result of increased intraarticular pressure, release of proteases and cytokines from chondrocytes and synovial macrophages, and invasion of the cartilage by bacteria and inflammatory cells. Histologic studies reveal bacteria lining the synovium and

TABLE 157-1 DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF ARTHRITIS SYNDROMES

Acute Monoarticular Arthritis	Chronic Monoarticular Arthritis	Polyarticular Arthritis
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	<i>Mycobacterium tuberculosis</i>	<i>Neisseria meningitidis</i>
<i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i>	Nontuberculous mycobacteria	<i>N. gonorrhoeae</i>
β -Hemolytic streptococci	<i>Borrelia burgdorferi</i>	Nongonococcal bacterial arthritis
Gram-negative bacilli	<i>Treponema pallidum</i>	Bacterial endocarditis
<i>Neisseria gonorrhoeae</i>	<i>Candida</i> spp.	<i>Candida</i> spp.
<i>Candida</i> spp.	<i>Sporothrix schenckii</i>	Poncet's disease (tuberculous rheumatism)
Crystal-induced arthritis	<i>Coccidioides immitis</i>	Hepatitis B virus
Fracture	<i>Blastomyces dermatitidis</i>	Parvovirus B19
Hemarthrosis	<i>Aspergillus</i> spp.	HIV
Foreign body	<i>Cryptococcus neoformans</i>	Human T-lymphotropic virus type I
Osteoarthritis	<i>Nocardia</i> spp.	Rubella virus
Ischemic necrosis	<i>Brucella</i> spp.	Arthropod-borne viruses
Monoarticular rheumatoid arthritis	Legg-Calvé-Perthes disease	Sickle cell disease flare
	Osteoarthritis	Reactive arthritis
		Serum sickness
		Acute rheumatic fever
		Inflammatory bowel disease
		Systemic lupus erythematosus
		Rheumatoid arthritis/Still's disease
		Other vasculitides
		Sarcoidosis