BJMS Borneo Journal of Medical Sciences

CASE REPORT

Strongyloides Hyperinfection Syndrome in an Immunosuppressed Patient

Cheo Seng Wee¹, Tan Yee Ann², Low Qin Jian³

- ¹ Department of Internal Medicine, Hospital Lahad Datu, Sabah, Malaysia
- ² Department of Internal Medicine, Hospital Queen Elizabeth, Sabah, Malaysia
- ³ Department of Internal Medicine, Hospital Sultanah Nora Ismail, Batu Pahat, Johor, Malaysia
- * Corresponding author's email: cheosengwee@gmail.com

Received: 20 August 2018

Accepted: 29 October 2018

Keywords: Strongyloides stercoralis, hyperinfection syndrome, immunosuppressed patient

ABSTRACT

Strongyloides stercoralis is an intestinal nematode which is endemic in tropical and subtropical countries. The global prevalence of Strongyloides is unknown. Strongyloidiasis is found more frequently in the socioeconomically disadvantaged, in institutionalized populations, and in rural areas. The spectrum of disease varies. It may cause asymptomatic infection, mild eosinophilia or hyperinfection syndrome in the most severe form. Here we reported a case of Strongyloides hyperinfection syndrome in an immunosuppressed patient. This patient is a 54-year-old man with myasthenia gravis on long term azathioprine and prednisolone. He presented with fever associated with diarrhoea and was in septic shock. His blood culture was positive for Klebsiella pneumoniae. Strongyloides stercoralis larvae were detected in his sputum and stool sample. He was diagnosed to have Strongyloides hyperinfection and was treated with subcutaneous ivermectin. He recovered well. Our case demonstrated the association of Strongyloides hyperinfection with superimposed gram-negative sepsis as a consequence of prolonged immunosuppression. A high index of suspicion is needed in approaching patient with risk factors of hyperinfection syndrome.

INTRODUCTION

Strongyloidiasis is caused by *Strongyloides* stercoralis. Strongyloidiasis is often asymptomatic. Eosinophilia and larvae in stools being the only indication of infection¹. Opportunistic disseminated strongyloidiasis

is an important cause of morbidity and mortality in immunocompromised patients. In Malaysia, cases of Strongyloides hyperinfection have been reported previously². Risk factors for Strongyloides hyperinfection include congenital immunodeficiency, malignancy, malnutrition, immunosuppression, alcoholism and haematopoietic stem cell transplantation³. In general, immunosuppression is defined as suppression of body immune system to fight off infection, prevent graft rejection or as treatment of autoimmune diseases. It may occur as a result of disease or deliberately by immunosuppressive drugs such as azathioprine, methotrexate, cyclophosphamide, etc.².

CASE PRESENTATION

А 54-year-old man with underlying myasthenia gravis on long-term prednisolone and azathioprine, hypertension and welldiabetes controlled mellitus presented with fever associated with diarrhoea for 3 days. He was on 2 years of azathioprine and prednisolone for his myasthenia gravis and 1 year of metformin for his diabetes prior to this. On arrival to emergency department, he was in shock, blood pressure was 60/37 mmHg. His pulse rate was 104 beats per minute and his temperature was 37°C. His respiratory and abdominal examination were unremarkable.

Initial blood investigation showed anaemia, haemoglobin of 8.7 g/dl, leukocytosis of 20×10^{9} /L. His renal profile was impaired with urea of 6.2 mmol/L and creatinine of 118 **µmol**/L. He had metabolic acidosis with pH of 7.41 and bicarbonate of 14.4 mmol/L (Table 1). He had low albumin level with albumin of 9 g/L and his C-Reactive Protein (CRP) was 87 mg/L. His chest radiograph was normal. His provisional diagnosis was Gramnegative sepsis in septic shock. He was then given boluses of intravenous crystalloids, noradrenaline and intravenous meropenem.

After 48 hours, his blood culture grew *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, his sputum was positive for *Strongyloides stercoralis* larvae and stool was positive for rhabditidiform larvae (L1). Antibiotic was deescalated to intravenous amoxicillin-clavulanic acid and started on oral albendazole 400 mg and subcutaneous ivermectin. Diagnosis was revised to *Klebsiella pneumoniae* septic shock with *Strongyloides* hyperinfection syndrome. He made good clinical recovery and discharged 2 weeks later. He was prescribed monthly subcutaneous ivermectin for 6 months.

	Unit	Normal range	Day 1	Day 2	Day 7	Day 8	Day 14
Haemoglobin	g/dL	13 – 18	8.7	10.8	7.6	9	9
Total white	10^9/L	4.0 - 10.0	20.7	30	8.69	12	12.6
blood cell							
Platelet	10^9/L	150 – 400	102	57	84	358	358
Sodium	mmol/L	135 – 148	129	133	136	137	137
Potassium	mmol/L	3.5 – 5.1	3.8	3.5	2.7	4.1	4.3
Urea	mmol/L	2.8 – 7.8	6.2	5.5	2.1	7	3.8
Creat	µmol/L	61 – 110	118	86	61	59	36
рН		7.35 – 7.45	7.41	7.337	-	_	-
PCO2	mmHg	33 – 48	22	34	-	_	_
PO2	mmHg	80 – 100	206	45	-	-	-
НСОЗ	mmol/L	23 – 29	14.4	14.4	-	_	-
Total bilirubin	µmol/l	0 – 17	19	11	10	9	9.1
ALT	IU/L	0 - 41	12	22	35	32	32
AST	IU/L	0 - 40	26	23	34	30	20
ALP	IU/L	40 – 129	171	366	260	203	233
Albumin	g/L	34 - 48	9	12	14	22	22
Globulin	g/L	20 – 35	25	26	25	33	33

Table 1 Blood investigation of the patient

DISCUSSION

Strongyloides stercoralis infection was first reported in 1876 in French soldiers on duty in Vietnam⁴. The first report of disseminated infection dates back to 1966, with occurrence of fatal strongyloidiasis with immunosuppression⁵. Strongyloides is unique among helminths due to its persistence and ability for autoinfection. Risk factors for Strongyloides hyperinfection include congenital immunodeficiency, malignancy, immunosuppression, etc. In our patient, we believe that his risk factor for hyperinfection syndrome was long-term azathioprine and prednisolone for 2 years which rendered him to be immunosuppressed.

The lifecycle of *Strongyloides stercoralis* begins with rhabditiform larvae in the intestine excreted in the stool. The rhabditiform larvae then developed into infective filariform larvae or develop through succeeding rhabditiform stages into free-living adults. It infects adult human by penetrating intact skin⁶. The filariform larvae can enter the circulation, transported to the lung, penetrated the

alveolar and swallow into digestive tract of human. Rhabditiform larvae can develop into infective filaform in the gastrointestinal tract and trigger off autoinfection.

The clinical manifestation of strongyloidiasis may vary depending on organs involved. Patient may develop local reaction at the site of entry of the larvae. Respiratory symptoms such as cough, dyspnoea, haemoptysis and tracheal irritation can occur when the larvae migrate through respiratory system⁷. In the gastrointestinal tract, patient may complain of diarrhoea, constipation, abdominal pain and loss of appetite⁸. Sometimes it may cause intestinal obstruction, haemodynamically significant gastrointestinal bleeding or ileus.

In the hyperinfection syndrome, the classic life cycle of *Strongyloides stercoralis* from skin to lungs and gastrointestinal tract is accelerated with increased reproduction leading to excessive worm burden. The clinical symptoms of hyperinfection syndrome can vary. Fever with chills and rigors are not typically

present. We should look for presence of Gramnegative infection when there is fever with chills and rigors⁹. The likelihood of developing hyperinfection is increased in patient with impaired cell-mediated immunity¹⁰.

Diagnosis of strongyloidiasis is made by detecting rhabditiform larvae in stool or by serological method¹¹. However, the sensitivity of a single stool examination to make the diagnosis is only about 50%¹². Hence, stool study alone is inadequate for diagnosing hyperinfection syndrome. There have been reports of hyperinfection syndrome with negative screening stool exams and the larvae are excreted intermittently. Other techniques such as Beaermann and formalin-ethyl acetate concentration techniques and Harada-Mori filter paper technique have been used to improve the sensitivity¹³.

In term of treatment, thiabendazole has been the treatment of choice in the past. The efficacy of thiabendazole in treating chronic strongyloidiasis is said to be around 67 - 81% if given at a dose of 25 mg/kg twice a day for 3 days¹⁴. However, in recent days, the recommended choice of treatment is ivermectin with albendazole as alternative. Two single dose of 200 mcg/kg of ivermectin is usually administered on two consecutive days for uncomplicated infection.

The optimal treatment for hyperinfection is still uncertain. Some experts give 3 to 11 doses of ivermectin in disseminated disease and certain experts give a combination of ivermectin and albendazole until patient shows clinical response¹⁵. Besides that, treatment and screening of *Strongyloides* should be done until faecal cultures are negative for at least two weeks as the autoinfective cycle lasts at least two weeks. The same apply to those who have positive urine or sputum samples.

In term of prevention of hyperinfection syndrome, measures such as wearing shoes and screening of family members will be helpful in endemic area¹⁶. Patient also should be screened for asymptomatic *Strongyloides* infection, either by serological testing or stool examination¹⁷. For patient who requires prompt initiation of immunosuppression, empirical treatment for strongyloidiasis may be administered to prevent hyperinfection syndrome.

CONCLUSION

Strongyloides hyperinfection is a treatable condition but can cause potentially lifethreatening infection. This present case has illustrated the association of strongyloides hyperinfection with superimposed gram negative sepsis as a consequence of prolonged immunosuppression. Clinicians should often have high index of suspicion of possible hyperinfection when treating patients with risk factors. Aggressive treatment is often warranted and immunosuppressant need to be adjusted.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors would like to thank the Director of Health Malaysia for the permission to publish this paper.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare that they have no competing interests in publishing this case.

CONSENTS

Written informed consent was obtained from the patient to publish the case. A copy of written consent is available for review by the Chief Editor.

REFERENCES

- Genta RM. (1989). Global prevalence of strongyloidiasis: Critical review with epidemiologic insights in to the prevention of disseminated disease. Rev Infect Dis 11 (5): 755 – 767.
- Azira NM, Zeehaida M. (2010). Strongyloides stercoralis hyperinfection in a diabetic patient: Case report. Trop Biomed 27: 115 – 119.
- Reddy IS, Swarnalata G. (2005). Fatal disseminated strongyloidiasis in patients on immunosuppressive therapy: Report of two cases. Indian J Dermatol Venereol Leprol 71: 38 – 40.
- Siddiqui AA, Berk SL. (2001). Diagnosis of Strongyloides stercoralis infection. Clin Infect Dis 33: 1040 – 1047.
- Cruz T, Reboucas G, Rocha H. (1966). Fatal strongyloidiasis in patients receiving Corticosteroids. N Engl J Med 275: 1093 – 1096.
- Cross JH. (1996). Enteric Nematodes of Humans. In: Baron S, editor. Medical Microbiology (4th edition). Galveston (TX): University of Texas Medical Branch at Galveston.
- Vadlamudi RS, Chi DS, Krishnaswamy G. (2006). Intestinal strongyloidiasis and hyperinfection syndrome. Clinical and Molecular Allergy 4: 8. doi: 10.1186/1476-7961-4-8.
- Najafi N, Soleymani E, Sarvi S et al. (2016). Disseminated Strongyloidiasis in an Iranian Immunocompromised Patient: A Case Report. Iranian Journal of Parasitology 11 (2): 279 – 283.
- Keiser PB, Nutman TB. (2004). Strongyloides stercoralis in the Immunocompromised Population. Clinical Microbiology Reviews 17 (1): 208 – 217.

- Lam CS, Tong MK., Chan KM et al. (2006). Disseminated strongyloidiasis: A retrospective study of clinical course and outcome. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 25: 14.
- Ericsson CD, Steffen R, Siddiqui AA et al. (2001). Diagnosis of *Strongyloides stercoralis* Infection. Clinical Infectious Diseases 33 (7): 1040 – 1047.
- Al Maslamani MA, Al Soub HA, Al Khal ALM, et al. (2009). Strongyloides stercoralis hyperinfection after corticosteroid therapy: a report of two cases. Annals of Saudi Medicine 29 (5): 397 – 401.
- Requena-Méndez A, Chiodini P, Bisoffi Z et al. (2013). The Laboratory Diagnosis and Follow Up of Strongyloidiasis: A Systematic Review. PLOS Neglected Tropical Diseases 7 (1): e2002.
- Grove DI. (1982). Treatment of strongyloidiasis with thiabendazole: An analysis of toxicity and effectiveness. Trans. R. Soc. Trop. Med. Hyg. 76: 114 – 118.
- Barrett J, Broderick C, Soulsby H et al. (2016). Subcutaneous ivermectin use in the treatment of severe Strongyloides stercoralis infection: Two case reports and a discussion of the literature. J Antimicrob Chemother 71 (1): 220 – 225.
- Santiago M, Leitão B. (2009). Prevention of strongyloides hyperinfection syndrome: A rheumatological point of view. Eur J Intern Med 20 (8): 744 – 748. doi: 10.1016/j. ejim.2009.09.001. Epub 2009 Sep 27.
- Mejia R, Nutman TB. (2012). Screening, prevention, and treatment for hyperinfection syndrome and disseminated infections caused by Strongyloides stercoralis. Current opinion in infectious diseases 25 (4): 458 – 463. doi: 10.1097/QCO.0b013e3283551d