CASE REPORTS

Community-acquired pneumonia in adults with Down syndrome. Three clinical cases and a review of the literature

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Abstract

John Langdon Down first described this genetic disorder known today as Down syndrome (DS), due to a trisomy of chromosome 21. The frequent appearance of respiratory infections in DS is attributed to structural and functional anomalies of the respiratory system, the presence of congenital heart malformations and IgG deficits. We present three clinical cases of adult DS patients with community-acquired pneumonia, and a review of the literature regarding: epidemiology, prevalence, symptomatology, laboratory and radiographic findings, morbidity, mortality, clinical evolution and the importance of prevention of pneumonia in DS patients. These patients presented symptoms of acute infection of the lower respiratory tract: high fever, scanty productive cough with or without sputum, pleuritic chest pain, dyspnea, fatigue, myalgia, and other atypical symptoms. Chest radiography showed focal inflammatory condensation in the affected lung and bilateral alveolo-interstitial infiltrate. Laboratory tests showed increased values of leukocytes and C-reactive protein, deficiency of IgG and low lymphocyte CD4+.

Patients with DS are highly susceptible to lower and higher respiratory tract infection. Community physicians should take exceptional precautions on detecting respiratory symptoms in these patients, since they may result in pneumonia and bronchopneumonia. Presentation may be atypical and the complications may even lead to mortality.

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Introduction

Down syndrome (DS) is named after Dr. John Langdon Down who first described it and is the most frequent cause of mild-moderate mental retardation as well as other medical problems. It occurs in 1 out of every 800 births, in all races and socioeconomic levels. DS is due to a chromosomal abnormality caused by an error in cell division that results in the presence of a third chromosome, constituting a trisomy of chromosome 21.

Community-acquired pneumonia (CAP)

CAP is defined as an infection of the alveoli, distal airways and lung interstitium that occurs outside the hospital. It is clinically characterised by fever, chills, cough, pleuritic chest pain, expectoration and minimal lung opacity on chest x-ray. CAP presents in five different patterns: lobar pneumonia (covers a pulmonary lobe), bronchopneumonia (scattered areas of consolidation over several lobes), interstitial pneumonia (with inflammation in the interstitium, including the alveolar wall and connective tissue surrounding the bronchovascular tree) and miliary pneumonia (numerous small lesions originating from haematogenous spread).

CAP diagnosis

The most frequent symptoms of CAP include cough, fever, chills, fatigue, dyspnea and pleuritic chest pain. Depending on the causative pathogen, the patient may have persistent and/or dry cough, with or without expectoration. Other symptoms may include headache and myalgia. Certain aetiologic agents, such as Legionella, produce gastrointestinal symptoms.

At physical examination, the patient may present with dull chest percussion, crepitant rales during auscultation, bronchophony, egophony and fremitus. The patient may also be tachypneic.

No characteristic radiographic patterns have been shown that forecast the aetiology of pneumonia. However, some studies suggest that differences can be established, for example, pneumonias with homogeneous consolidation are less common in infections of Mycoplasma pneumoniae, Chlamydia pneumoniae and respiratory viruses. Additionally, multilobar pneumonia and the presence of pleural effusion are more frequent in bacteremic pneumococcal infection.

Aetiopathogenesis of CAP

Causative pathogens and routes of entry

These are represented by Streptococcus pneumoniae (approximately 50% of all CAP cases that require hospitalisation) as well as by Haemophilus influenzae, Staphylococcus aureus, M. pneumoniae, C. pneumoniae, Moraxella catarrhalis, Gram-negative aerobic bacteria, as well as anaerobic organisms and Gram-negative bacilli (Mycobacterium tuberculosis), aerosolised pathogens.
(Legionella), and pathogens disseminated haematogenically (S. aureus from endocarditis) or disseminated by contiguity with other organs. Viral agents such as influenza virus, adenovirus, respiratory syncytial virus and other rare microorganisms such as: Hantavirus, Nipah virus, Hendra virus, Metapneumovirus, acute respiratory distress syndrome virus, and non-viral microorganisms: fungal (Pneumocystis) agents acquired for bioterrorism (anthrax), Q fever, tularemia, plague, etc.1.

Aetiopathogenic factors of CAP include micro and macro aspirations of oropharyngeal secretions colonised with pathogenic microorganisms (S. pneumoniae, H. influenzae), especially in patients with central nervous system disorders, consciousness alterations (alcoholism, drug addiction through parenteral administration), anaesthetized endotracheal intubation, the virulence of the germ (encapsulated organisms, which include S. pneumoniae, H. influenzae, Neisseria meningitidis), the host’s condition: immunosuppression, multiple myeloma, nephrotic syndrome, noting that pneumococcal CAP is particularly common among HIV-positive patients5.

Patients with DS are very likely to respiratory tract infections, particularly during the first two years of life although they can also suffer such infections at older ages. Among the determining factors are their immune deficiencies6.

The presentation of our three clinical cases aims to aware health professionals who treat patients with DS of the importance of being alert to the respiratory infection profiles in these patients, given the high risk of developing pneumonia and its associated high mortality/morbidity rate.

Clinical observations

Case 1

Male, 44 years old, with DS and epilepsy. He visited the emergency service due to respiratory difficulty, fever, coughing and pain in the right hemithorax, 5 days after onset of symptoms. The physical examination revealed an anxious patient with dry skin and mucous; cardiac auscultation: tachycardia, systolic murmur grade II/IV more audible in the mitral area; respiratory auscultation: decreased respiratory sounds at the base of the right lung, with crepitants at that level, no cyanosis, and no tachypnea. Vital signs: blood pressure (BP), 110/60 mmHg; heart rate (HR), 112/min; O₂Sat, 95%; temperature, 38.2 °C; cardiac output (CO), 109 mg/dl. In chest X-rays, the AP and lateral views revealed a condensation focus in the right lower lung compatible with right basal pneumonia (Figure 1). He was referred to a hospital where he was admitted. The blood test showed leukocytosis of 13.7 10³/μL with 78% polymorphonuclear neutrophils, 13% lymphocytes, 6% monocytes, 1% eosinophils; haemoglobin, 14.1 g/dl; platelets: 359 10³/μL; globular sedimentation rate (VSG), 44 mm; C-reactive protein (CRP), 1.2 mg/dL; negative tuberculin test, sputum culture for bacteria, negative BAAR and fungi; immunoglobulins: IgG, 632.0 mg/dL, with normal Iga and IgM, normal CD4+ lymphocyte count, negative serology for Mycoplasma pneumoniae, Chlamydia psittaci, Chlamydia pneumoniae and Coxiella burnetti. After 12 days of hospitalisation and treatment with wide spectrum antibiotics, the patient was discharged and referred to his family doctor.

Case 2

Male, 47 years old, DS, hypothyroidism, hepatic steatosis, hypercholesterolemia, frequent episodes of psychomotor agitation, previous history of bronchitis and pneumonia. He visited the emergency service for cough with yellow expectoration, high fever and dyspnea after having outpatient treatment for 10 days with azithromycin 500 mg/24 h/4 days, moxifloxacin 400 mg/24 h/6 days, acetylcysteine 600 mg/24 h, bronchodilators and inhaled corticosteroids for respiratory infection, without improvement. Physical examination showed tachypnea, no cyanosis, somewhat dry skin and mucous, soft abdomen, no tenderness during palpation, no visceromegalies, no tumours, no signs of peritoneal irritation; cardiac auscultation: tachycardia; respiratory auscultation: subcrepitant rales and dispersed hoarse rales. Constants: BP, 80/42 mmHg; HR, 109/min; respiratory frequency (RF), 28/min; temperature, 39.5 °C; O₂Sat, 91%; BG, 114 mg/dl. In the AP and lateral chest x-ray: bilateral alveolar-interstitial infiltrates, more pronounced in the right lung, with inflammatory lesions in the lower and middle lobes (Figure 2). The electrocardiogram showed sinus tachycardia. The patient was admitted to hospital where he remained for 10 days. Blood analysis: leucocytes, 13.7 10³/μL; haemoglobin, 15.4 g/dl; platelets, 359 10³/μL; VSG, 48 mm; CRP, 1.15 mg/dL; coagulogram and normal D-dimer; Na, 118 mmol/l; arterial blood gases: FiO₂, 0.4; pH, 7.40; PCO₂, 38; PO₂, 65; CO₂H, 24; O₂Sat, 93%. Negative tuberculin test, sputum culture for bacteria, negative BAAR and fungi; immunoglobulins: IgM and reduced IgG; IgM, 55.7 mg/dL.
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(60-280); IgG, 714.0 mg/dl (800-1,800); lowered CD4+ lymphocytes, serology for *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*, *Chlamydia psittaci*, *Chlamydia pneumoniae* and *Coxiella burnetti* IgM negative.

The patient was diagnosed with CAP, respiratory failure and hyponatremia. A broad-spectrum antifungal antibiotic treatment was indicated, which evolved favourably resulting in the patient’s discharge after 10 days.

**Case 3**

Male, 45 years of age, with DS and hypercholesterolemia. He visited the emergency service reporting general malaise, arthralgia, myalgia, cephalgia, productive cough, high fever and chills. Physical examination showed good skin and mucous colour, good hydration, hyperemic pharynx, soft abdomen, not tender, no visceromegalies, no peritoneal reaction, respiratory auscultation: slightly decreased vesicular murmur in both lungs, no rales; cardiac auscultation: tachycardia. Vital signs: BP, 100/60; HR, 115/min; O₂ Sat, 94%; BG, 104 mg/dl; temperature, 39 °C. AP and lateral chest x-ray: condensation in the periphery of the middle lobe of the left lung (Figure 3).

He is admitted to hospital, where a blood test was taken: leukocytes, 12.3 10³/μl; VSG, 36 mm; CRP, 1.8; coagulogram and D-dimer, normal; Na, 137 mmol/l; arterial blood gases: FiO₂, 0.4; pH, 7.32; PCO₂, 31; PO₂, 65; CO₂H, 24; O₂Sat, 93%; normal urine analysis; negative tuberculin test. Sputum culture for bacteria, BAAR and fungi: negative. Negative serial blood cultures. Evaluation of immunoglobulin (IgM, IgG and IgA) was normal. Normal CD+ lymphocytes. Negative serology for *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*, *Chlamydia psittaci*, *Chlamydia pneumoniae* and *Coxiella burnetti*. The patient was diagnosed with CAP. After treatment with wide spectrum antibiotics, the patient had a favourable clinical evolution and was discharged and referred to his family doctor.

**Discussion**

**Prevalence of CAP in patients with DS**

Pirez et al⁷ studied 697 children hospitalised with CAP and observed that DS was one of the associated conditions (12 children, 1.72%), surpassed by neurological diseases that impact the respiratory function (29 children, 4.16%) and congenital heart defects (22 children, 3.15%).

In another study involving 109 patients with DS, it was observed that respiratory infections affected 61 patients (55.96%), upper respiratory tract infections occurred more often in children under 1 year, associating with congenital heart defects in 34 patients (31.42%), 19 patients (31.15%) suffered from bronchopneumonia, 6 (9.83%) from bronchitis and 2 (3.30%) from pneumonia⁸.

**Diagnosis of CAP in patients with DS**

In the general population, a patient that complains of fever (>37.8 °C), cough, sputum production, tachypnea (>25 breaths/min), myalgia and night sweats, in the absence of odynophagia and rhinorrhea, would most likely have CAP⁹. This clinical predictor model has a sensitivity of 91% and a specificity of 40%. If we analyse the clinical features from such patients, this model could include populations with DS⁹.

A study conducted in 19 Canadian hospitals for a 6 month period is representative of the usefulness of blood culture for diagnosis of pneumonia. The percentage of positive blood cultures was only 6.2% and the authors observed no influence on the severity of the CAP. Another prospective study showed
that blood cultures were positive in 10.5% of patients with CAP. After analysing different outcomes, the various clinical guidelines recommend blood cultures for patients hospitalised with CAP, but not in outpatients, which results were negative. Hence its value has been questioned10.

CAP due to Mycoplasma pneumoniae is associated with high morbidity and mortality in patients with DS, as shown in cases reported by Orlicek et al11. These authors describe clinical and radiological features of CAP in three children affected with DS and who developed high fever, productive cough, chills, irritability and tachypnea. The chest x-ray showed bilateral infiltrates and the patients developed respiratory distress, which required hospital admission. Laboratory studies showed infection by Mycoplasma pneumoniae. Mycoplana infection in these children may be serious because patients with DS have immune disorders. With children that have DS and who suffer from pneumonia, one must consider this microorganism as a possible aetiologic agent. Corretger et al12 published a case of a patient with DS who developed severe pneumonia with Mycoplasma pneumoniae as the aetiologic agent.

There are also reports in the literature of pneumonia cases caused by Bordetella bronchiseptica in patients with DS. This germ is responsible for tracheobronchitis, bronchopneumonia, rhinitis and otitis media in animals. It colonises the animals’ upper respiratory tract and oropharynx, rarely infecting humans, and may cause subacute endocarditis and mild pertussis in children. It has also been described in immunocompromised patients as a cause of sepsis peritonitis, bronchitis and pneumonia13.

Patients with DS who have immune deficiencies tend to develop pneumonia from unusual microorganisms7,8,11, including viral agents. One study describes a case of pneumonia caused by human coronavirus (HCoVs)-OC43 in a child with DS and leukaemia who developed fever and leukopaenia. Both the recently discovered HCoVs NL63 or HKU1 and the prototype HCoV-OC43 and HCoV-229E strains are considered respiratory pathogens in immunocompromised paediatric patients with cancer13.

These patients may also develop fungal pneumonia, according to the publication of a case with pneumonia and pleural effusion caused by Aspergillus in a two-year-old Japanese child with DS14.

Evaluation of the factors associated with recurrent pneumonia and respiratory infections in patients with DS

Immunosuppression
Ribeiro et al15 studied patients with DS who suffered from recurrent respiratory infections, evaluating the epidemiological, clinical and laboratory aspects as well as the immune status of these patients. They examined the distribution by gender (1.6 male:1 female) and the age distribution (from 1 year to 12 years and 10 months). Congenital cardiopathies were present in 62.2% of the patients, who developed recurrent pneumonia. The immunologic evaluation showed 2 cases with IgG2 deficiency, 2 with CD4+ lymphocyte deficiency, 5 cases had reduced function of NK cells and 22 of the 36 cases analysed (61.1%) were positive for cytomegalovirus. The authors concluded that the deficiency of the immune response must be taken into account patients with DS, as it makes them more vulnerable to infections as compared to the general population.

Other authors found deficits in serum immunoglobulins, namely IgG16.

Structural and functional abnormalities of the respiratory system
The frequent occurrence of respiratory infections is due to the presence of structural and functional abnormalities in the respiratory system, which is typical in children with DS, including: reduction of the anteroposterior diameter of the nasopharynx, which inhibits adequate drainage17, poor development of the sinuses and nasal mucosa; decreased ciliary activity for keeping the nasal mucosa clean, as well as the MHC presence, which predisposes the child to pulmonary vascular congestion with subsequent bronchial congestion17.

Cardiac diseases
Congenital cardiac disease are considered a risk factor of respiratory infections in patients with DS17,9. Approximately 40% of newborns present with congenital cardiac disease. During adolescence and early adulthood, heart valve defects may appear, the most common of which is the mitral valve prolapse18, which occurred in one of our patients (Case 2).

Oropharyngeal aspiration
Weit et al19 stated that pneumonia is significantly associated with bronchial asthma, gastroesophageal reflux, DS, history of lower respiratory infections, productive cough, and supplemental oxygen therapy. In this study, the authors concluded that the effect of oropharyngeal aspiration in the development of pneumonia should be considered a risk factor.

Foreign body aspiration
A case was published of a 39-year-old male patient with DS who was admitted to hospital due to lower left lobe pneumonia with 2 months evolution, resistant to wide-spectrum antibiotic treatment. After CT scan, bronchoscopy and biopsy for suspected bronchial carcinoma, a diagnosis was achieved of a foreign body in the distal left main bronchus20.

Other causes
Along with the previously mentioned factors, the mental retardation and craniofacial dysmorphism that these patients have increase their likelihood to respiratory infections21.

Mortality and morbidity
Dyce Gordon et al22, in their study of respiratory infections in children with DS (n = 93), reported 16 deaths (14.67%), which mostly occurred during the first years of life and were caused by bronchopneumonia associated with congenital heart disease. No published series were found on pneumonias in adult patients with DS.
Differential diagnosis

Patients with SD are immunodeficient and commonly suffer from respiratory infections. Two children were evaluated for recurrent pneumonia with persistent radiographic infiltrate. In both cases, the radiological abnormalities were due to Morgagni hernias. Therefore, when a child with DS presents images of persistent radiographic infiltrate, the possibility of diaphragmatic defects must be considered22.

Prevention

Immunisations

Healthy children with DS should receive routine vaccines as other children. However, the immunological and morphological characteristics of children with DS and the severity and recurrence of these infections justifies the recommendation of certain selective immunisations, which include pneumococcal vaccination. The obvious causal role of pneumococcus in these processes suggests that a particular attention must be paid to its prevention and, consequently, there is interest in administering a conjugate pneumococcal vaccine, even in newborns.

We must also keep the influenza vaccination in mind. Abnormalities have been documented in the immune response of children with DS to the influenza virus. Its role in promoting otitis media and bacterial bronchopulmonary superinfections has been well demonstrated. The preventive value of the influenza vaccination on these infectious pathologies takes particular importance in patients with DS, whose immunogenicity is demonstrated.

The scope of these recommendations is universal, although they may be influenced by local variations in the immunisation schedule. Just as there is no single vaccination schedule for the Spanish state, there is no uniform version for the population with DS. Synchronising the guidelines for both situations is a desirable objective23-25.

The American Academy of Pediatrics through its Committee on Infectious Diseases, the Spanish Association of Pediatrics and the Standards Committee of the Spanish Society of Neonatology have drawn recommendations for the prevention of respiratory infections due to respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), which is increasingly frequent. Because some of the infant population with DS falls within the population at risk as defined by these bodies, one must consider taking measures to prevent this infection, both hygienic and immunoprophylaxis with palivizumab (R), which have managed to lower the number of patients infected with RSV26.

References