

PediatricsinReview®

Enterovirus Infections

L. Pasquinelli

Pediatrics in Review 2006;27:e14

DOI: 10.1542/pir.27-2-e14

The online version of this article, along with updated information and services, is located on the World Wide Web at:

<http://pedsinreview.aappublications.org/content/27/2/e14>

Pediatrics in Review is the official journal of the American Academy of Pediatrics. A monthly publication, it has been published continuously since 1979. Pediatrics in Review is owned, published, and trademarked by the American Academy of Pediatrics, 141 Northwest Point Boulevard, Elk Grove Village, Illinois, 60007. Copyright © 2006 by the American Academy of Pediatrics. All rights reserved. Print ISSN: 0191-9601.

American Academy of Pediatrics

DEDICATED TO THE HEALTH OF ALL CHILDREN™



In Brief

Enterovirus Infections

L. Pasquinelli, MD
Eastern Virginia Medical School
Norfolk, Va.

Author Disclosure

Drs Pasquinelli and Byington did not disclose any financial relationships relevant to this In Brief.

Enterovirus Infections. Zaoutis T, Klein J. *Pediatr Rev.* 1998;19:183–191

Nonpolio Enterovirus Infections: A New Era. Casey J, Pichichero M. *Contemp Pediatr.* 2001;6:82

Enterovirus Infections: A Review of Clinical Presentation, Diagnosis, and Treatment. Stalkup J, Chilukuri S. *Dermatol Clin.* 2002;20:217–223

Enterovirus (Nonpoliovirus) Infections. In: Pickering LK, ed. *Red Book: Report of the Committee on Infectious Diseases.* 26th ed. Elk Grove Village, Ill: American Academy of Pediatrics; 2003:269–271

Enterovirus infections are common infections in infants and children. They are often referred to as “summer viruses” because of their increased prevalence in the warmer months (May through October) in the temperate northern hemisphere, but they may be found throughout the year in the tropics. These single-stranded RNA viruses belong to the *Picornaviridae* family and include polioviruses, coxsackieviruses, and echoviruses.

Most cases involve children younger than 5 years of age due to their lack of prior exposure, but all age groups are at risk for infection. Humans are the only known natural hosts, and fecal-oral is the most common route of transmission. Once exposed, the virus enters the

body via the oral or respiratory route, where it replicates in the lymph nodes of the respiratory or gastrointestinal system. An initial minor viremia results in spread to secondary sites, with subsequent viral replication at distant sites that may include the heart, liver, and skin. Infection of the central nervous system (CNS) is usually the result of a second major viremia. As antibodies develop, the viremia ends, and the patient's clinical recovery begins.

Most patients infected with enteroviruses become mildly ill and recover completely, but some develop serious illness, rarely suffering a fatal outcome. In general, enteroviral infections manifest as febrile illness, viral exanthem, vomiting, diarrhea, and malaise. Manifestations associated with specific viral agents include hemorrhagic conjunctivitis, pharyngitis, pleurodynia, herpangina, hand-foot-and-mouth disease, paralysis, hepatitis, myocarditis, pericarditis, encephalitis, aseptic meningitis, and multiorgan failure.

Neonates are at high risk for developing a severe disseminated infection. Infection can occur during birth or be acquired from an infected clinician. The clinical presentation often is difficult to differentiate from that of a bacterial cause. Severe manifestations may include hepatitis, pneumonitis, meningitis, encephalitis, disseminated intravascular coagulation, and multiorgan failure.

Poliovirus infection has nearly been eliminated from the wild due to vaccination. When recognized, poliovirus infection presents as three clinical syndromes: 1) abortive poliomyelitis, 2) aseptic meningitis, and 3) paralytic poliomyelitis. Clinical manifestations of abortive poliomyelitis may include fe-

ver, headache, sore throat, malaise, nausea, and vomiting without CNS involvement. Paralytic poliomyelitis begins as a minor febrile illness followed by a short asymptomatic period of 2 to 3 days, then sudden onset of a flaccid paralysis with no significant sensory loss. Lower motor neuron damage from infection may result in temporary or permanent flaccid paralysis.

Confirmation of enteroviral infection may be necessary in some clinical situations. Viral culture, polymerase chain reaction (PCR), and serologic diagnosis are three laboratory methods for identifying the causative organism. Viral culture of stool (not rectal swab), throat, blood, cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), or tissue can be obtained. The highest rates of positive culture come from cultures of stool and throat, with isolation from CSF being infrequent. The time required for growth in culture can make this method less appealing. PCR, a molecular method that uses nucleic acid probes where sequences are common to all enterovirus serotypes, can be accomplished with a small sample, and results can be available in less than 5 to 24 hours. PCR examination of CSF is 100% sensitive and 97% specific for detection of enterovirus. Unfortunately, this method is not widely available. Serologic diagnosis is based on a four-fold increase in neutralizing antibody titer. However, due to variations in individual titers and the number of enterovirus serotypes, this technique is difficult and impractical.

Treatment of enteroviral infection usually is supportive, although antiviral drug treatments that target enteroviral replication are under investigation. Pleconaril, an antiviral that prevents viral uncoating and attachment to host cells,

has shown beneficial effects in clinical trials, but its clinical applicability to treatment of enteroviral infection remains under investigation. Immune globulin intravenous (IGIV) may be of benefit for immunodeficient patients who have persistent enterovirus infection.

To prevent spread of infection, contact precautions should be used while patients are hospitalized. The benefits of hand washing should be stressed, particularly after diaper changes.

Comment: Enteroviruses are common causes of pediatric illness and hospitalization. (1)(2) In hospitalized patients, diagnostic testing by PCR has been associated with decreased intravenous antibiotic use, ancillary testing, and hospital length of stay. (3)(4)(5) In addition, identification of enteroviral illness allows for appropriate patient isolation, especially in the neonatal intensive care unit and, in certain situations, allows directed antiviral therapy. (6)(7)(8) Since one enterovirus PCR was withdrawn from the market, access to PCR testing in the United States has been limited. However, recent improvements in PCR technology, including development of multiplex assays and real-time PCR, have made this technology faster, more efficient, and more affordable. (9)(10)(11) Undoubtedly, this will allow more clinical laboratories to offer PCR testing in the future. In addition,

some laboratories might opt for enhanced cell cultures by using shell-vial technology combined with monoclonal antibody testing for enteroviruses. These enhanced cultures can yield results in 48 hours compared with the usual 8 to 10 days required for traditional viral culture. (12) Diagnosing enteroviral disease can improve patient care significantly. Pediatricians and others who care for children should work closely with their clinical microbiology laboratories to assure that rapid testing for enterovirus is available.

Carrie Byington, MD
University of Utah
Salt Lake City, Utah

References

1. Byington CL, Taggart EW, Carroll KC, Hillyard DR. A polymerase chain reaction-based epidemiologic investigation of the incidence of nonpolio enteroviral infections in febrile and afebrile infants 90 days and younger. *Pediatrics*. 1999;103:E27. Available at: <http://pediatrics.aappublications.org/cgi/content/full/103/3/e27>
2. Rotbart HA, McCracken GH Jr, Whitley RJ, et al. Clinical significance of enteroviruses in serious summer febrile illnesses of children. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 1999;18:869–874
3. Ramers C, Billman G, Hartin M, Ho S, Sawyer MH. Impact of a diagnostic cerebrospinal fluid enterovirus polymerase chain reaction test on patient management. *JAMA*. 2000;283:2680–2685
4. Robinson CC, Willis M, Meagher A, Giesecke KE, Rotbart H, Glode MP. Impact of rapid polymerase chain reaction results on management of pediatric patients with enteroviral meningitis. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 2002;21:283–286
5. Stellrecht KA, Harding I, Woron AM, Lepow ML, Venezia RA. The impact of an enteroviral RT-PCR assay on the diagnosis of aseptic meningitis and patient management. *J Clin Virol*. 2002;25(suppl 1):S19–S26
6. Rotbart HA, Webster AD. Treatment of potentially life-threatening enterovirus infections with pleconaril. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2001;32:228–235
7. Aradottir E, Alonso EM, Shulman ST. Severe neonatal enteroviral hepatitis treated with pleconaril. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 2001;20:457–459
8. Bauer S, Gottesman G, Sirota L, Litmanovitz S, Levi I. Severe coxsackievirus B infection in preterm newborns treated with pleconaril. *Eur J Pediatr*. 2002;161:491–493
9. Rabenau HF, Clarici AM, Muhlbauer G, et al. Rapid detection of enterovirus infection automated RNA extraction and real-time fluorescence PCR. *J Clin Virol*. 2002;25:155–164
10. Verstrepen WA, Bruynseels P, Mertens AH. Evaluation of a rapid real-time RT-PCR assay for detection of enterovirus RNA in cerebrospinal fluid specimens. *J Clin Virol*. 2002;25(suppl 1):S39–S43
11. Watkins-Riedel T, Woegerbauer M, Hollemann D, Hufnagl P. Rapid diagnosis of enterovirus infections by real-time PCR on the LightCycler using the TaqMan format. *Diag Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2002;42:99–105
12. Lipsen SM, David K, Shaikh F, Qian L. Detection of precytopathic effect of enteroviruses in clinical specimens by centrifugation-enhanced antigen detection. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2001;39:2755–2759

Enterovirus Infections
L. Pasquinelli
Pediatrics in Review 2006;27:e14
DOI: 10.1542/pir.27-2-e14

Updated Information & Services

including high resolution figures, can be found at:
<http://pedsinreview.aappublications.org/content/27/2/e14>

References

This article cites 12 articles, 2 of which you can access for free at:
<http://pedsinreview.aappublications.org/content/27/2/e14#BIBL>

Permissions & Licensing

Information about reproducing this article in parts (figures, tables) or in its entirety can be found online at:
</site/misc/Permissions.xhtml>

Reprints

Information about ordering reprints can be found online:
</site/misc/reprints.xhtml>

American Academy of Pediatrics

DEDICATED TO THE HEALTH OF ALL CHILDREN™

