

In conclusion, there is a limited role for ultrasound in the diagnosis of TB. However, at a time of crisis in academic and rural medicine in South Africa, calls for use of existing investigations in new ways should be qualified by careful costbenefit analysis. We should also point out that our study was performed in an HIV-positive population at very high risk of TB.⁴ Experience elsewhere may differ, possibly resulting in ultrasound being even less useful.

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Massive hepatomegaly due to visceral leishmaniasis

To the Editor: In 1908 Leishman and Donovan¹ described the protozoan *Lesishmania donovani* in splenic tissue. Almost a century later leishmaniasis has emerged in new regions and new settings.¹ Recent interest in the disease has been prompted by recognition of cases in returning US Gulf War veterans and people with HIV infection.² We describe a case of visceral leishmaniasis diagnosed on bone marrow aspirate in a patient presenting to a tertiary hospital in KwaZulu-Natal.

A 42-year-old Mozambican national, who works as a marine merchant, was referred from a local hospital with fever, hepatosplenomegaly and pancytopenia. He had a 6-month history of gradual weight loss of approximately 10 kg with intermittent fever and rigors. He was treated for hepatic tuberculosis in a Mozambican hospital. A liver biopsy was not done before commencement of antituberculosis therapy and the patient did not improve after completion of this treatment.

He had been treated for malaria several years previously while living in Mozambique. He travelled to Brazil, Argentina, Italy and Portugal between 1995 and 1998.

On examination, the patient was febrile (39.8°C). He was pale and had no lymphadenopathy. He had a hepatomegaly that extended 10 cm below the costal margin and a 3 cm splenomegaly.

The full blood count showed haemoglobin 8 g/dl (normochromic, normocytic anaemia), platelets $132 \times 10^{\circ}$ /l and white blood cell count $1.8 \times 10^{\circ}$ /l. Liver function tests revealed a hyperglobulinaemia. He had an erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR) of 113 mm/h, and his urea and electrolytes were normal. HIV and hepatitis screens were negative. The chest radiograph was normal. Ultrasound of the abdomen detected no additional abnormalities. A bone marrow aspirate and trephine were done in the first instance to investigate the pancytopenia. A liver biopsy was scheduled, but this was deferred when the results of the bone marrow aspirate and

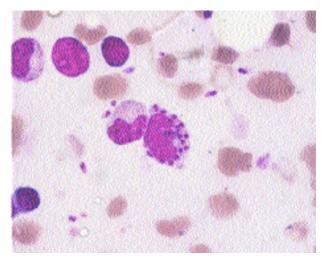


Fig. 1. Bone marrow aspirate — Gram stain showing intracellular 'dot-like' microorganisms (magnification 1 000). Courtesy of Dr P Sturm.

trephine were received. Fig. 1 is a photomicrograph of the marrow aspirate showing the characteristic intracellular amastigotes of leishmaniasis. This was confirmed on the trephine biopsy.

The patient was treated with intravenous amphotericin B (60 mg/kg/day) for 20 days. Renal impairment and thrombophlebitis complicated his therapy. The renal function improved when amphotericin B was stopped. At 3 months after treatment the hepatosplenomegaly had resolved and a repeat bone marrow aspirate was normal.

Discussion

This case highlights the importance of considering exotic diseases associated with common clinical presentations, given



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the movement of people within sub-Saharan Africa. The diagnosis was not suspected clinically but established by a stepwise approach to investigation. Secondly, this case highlights the pitfalls of the all too frequent use of empirical antituberculosis therapy without establishing a microbiological diagnosis or setting goals for the empirical therapeutic trial.

Leishmaniasis is endemic in areas of the tropics, subtropics and southern Europe, in settings ranging from rain forests in the Americas to deserts in Western Asia and from rural to periurban areas.¹ A total of 200 million people are at risk and an estimated 500 000 new cases occur worldwide each year.¹

The protozoan is an obligate intracellular organism of the genus *Leishmania* (order *Kinetoplastida*). *Leishmania* is a vectorborne parasite transmitted by the bite of a female phelobotomine sandfly. Parenteral and congenital transmission also occur. In most cases, humans are the incidental host of infection, but in India and East Africa humans appear to be the major reservoir where peripheral parasites are taken up via the bite of sandflies.³

Several clinical syndromes are described. These include visceral, cutaneous and mucosal leishmaniasis. Visceral leishmaniasis is caused by infection with L. donovani or L. infantum, which is increasing in incidence and causing major epidemics and high mortality.1 Visceral leishmaniasis encompasses a wide range of manifestations and can follow an acute, subacute or chronic course. The classic kala-azar syndrome (Hindi for black sickness or fever) is exemplified by a life-threatening disease after an incubation period of weeks to months. Features include fever, cachexia, hepatosplenomegaly, pancytopenia, and hypergammaglobulinaemia with hypoalbuminaemia, all of which were present in our patient. The differential diagnosis includes malaria, schistosomiasis, cirrhosis with portal hypertension, African trypanosomiasis, miliary tuberculosis, typhoid fever, bacterial endocarditis, histoplasmosis, lymphoma and leukaemia.

The diagnosis depends on demonstrating the intracellular amastigote in infected tissue (spleen, lymph node, and bone marrow) using Giemsa's stain. Other methods of parasitological diagnosis include culture of infected tissue or animal inoculation, e.g. hamster. Molecular-based applications are currently being tested in order to avoid invasive methods. These include the detection of immunoglobulin G (IgG) antibody to *Leishmania* antigen or for parasite DNA.⁴

While our patient was HIV-negative, it is worth noting that visceral leishmaniasis is an emerging opportunistic infection in HIV-infected patients.⁵ A major surface molecule, the lipophosphoglycan of *L. donovani*, induces HIV transcription in CD4 cells.¹ *Leishmania* may be newly acquired via vector-borne transmission or contaminated syringe transmission and may reactivate after years of latency.¹

There is a high mortality rate if untreated.¹ Pentavalent antimony compounds (sodium stibigluconate, meglumine antimonate) are the mainstay of therapy.¹ These agents are unavailable in South Africa. Lipid formulations of amphotericin B represent a recent advance in the therapy of visceral leishmaniasis. In India, the use of conventional amphotericin B has been almost 100% effective.¹ Patients with visceral leishmaniasis should be monitored for bleeding and intercurrent infections, such as pneumonia, tuberculosis and dysentery.¹ Response to therapy can be monitored by resolution of fever, haemoglobin level and decrease in spleen size.¹

Splenomegaly and biochemical abnormalities resolve weeks to months later.¹ Freedom from clinical relapse for at least 6 months is the best indicator of cure.¹ The absence of parasites does not preclude relapse until 12 months after therapy. Relapse rates are less than 5% except in HIV-infected individuals in whom the relapse rate is as high as 60% in the first year.⁶

Leishmaniasis has protean clinical manifestations and is difficult to diagnose without tissue diagnosis. This infection should be suspected in patients with unexplained systemic illness who have travelled to areas of the world where leishmaniasis is endemic.

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