



CODEN [USA]: IAJPBB

ISSN: 2349-7750

**INDO AMERICAN JOURNAL OF
PHARMACEUTICAL SCIENCES**<http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.2533308>Available online at: <http://www.iajps.com>

Review Article

**OVERVIEW OF COMMUNITY-ACQUIRED PNEUMONIA,
DIAGNOSIS, AND TREATMENT**

¹Faisal Abdullah Abo Reazah, ²Abdulrahman Ahmad Al Amoodi, ³Musab abdullah dahhas
⁴Fares Abed Althebaity, ⁵Faisal Dafer Alsheheri, ⁶Ali Aziz Mohammed Al-Sayed, ⁷Ahmad
Saeed Ali Salih, ⁸TALAL YAHYA GOFASHE, ⁹Azizah Saeed Abdullah Alshaer, ¹⁰Mohammed
Abdullah AL-Arim, ¹¹Meaad Mansour Azzouz

Abstract:

Community-acquired pneumonia (CAP) is the most prevalent contagious illness cause of death. We summarize newly released findings regarding the etiology of CAP in adults, efficiency of injections versus Streptococcus pneumoniae, diagnostics, and review the current therapy options. We searched for eligible articles as of August 2018 through PubMed, and Embase. We have used the following search MeSh terms for PubMed: (community acquired pneumonia), Diagnosis, treatment. CAP stays an important cause of infectious illness mortality with an occurrence that grows with age. With an ageing population CAP will certainly remain to be a prevalent illness worldwide. Although Streptococcus pneumoniae remains one of the most generally isolated pathogens in CAP, the relative frequency of various pathogens has raised. Medical suspicion ought to be driven by comorbidities and various other danger factors. Advances in vaccination such as the intro of PCV and consequential herd resistance and possibly use of PCV in grownups should help reduce the amount of illness brought on by S. pneumoniae.

Corresponding author:**Faisal Abdullah Abo Reazah.**

QR code



Please cite this article in press Faisal Abdullah Abo Reazah et al., *Overview of Community-Acquired Pneumonia, Diagnosis, And Treatment.*, Indo Am. J. P. Sci, 2019; 06(01).

INTRODUCTION:

Community-acquired pneumonia (CAP) is the most common cause of infectious ailment related mortality around the world [1]. The epidemiology of CAP varies depend on geographical area, medical care setup and researched populace, with estimated incidences in between five and 11 per 1000 adults in Europe and North America [1]. The incidence increases with age, with current European studies reporting a general yearly rate of hospitalization with CAP of 3.6 - 8.5 per 1000 persons, however raising to 13.4 per 1000 persons in those over 65 years [2].

Community-acquired pneumonia (CAP) is the most prevalent contagious illness cause of death. We summarize newly released findings regarding the etiology of CAP in adults, efficiency of injections versus *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, diagnostics, and review the current therapy options.

METHODOLOGY:

We searched for eligible articles as of August 2018 through PubMed, and Embase. We have used the following search MeSh terms for PubMed: (community acquired pneumonia), Diagnosis, treatment. Furthermore, we searched reference list of included studies for more relevant articles. Then we limited our search to only English language studies with human subjects.

DISCUSSION:

• AETIOLOGY

The microbial causes of CAP vary in various geographical places, however general *Streptococcus pneumoniae* is one of the most common isolated pathogen. Other generally determined bacterial pathogens include *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*, *Chlamydia pneumoniae*, *Haemophilus influenzae* and in some regions Gram-negative pathogens [1]. On top of that a boosting series of breathing viruses are commonly recognized in patients with CAP and may cause a primary viral pneumonia or a secondary bacterial pneumonia as a result of the effects of the infection on lung host defense [3]. Of worry is the recent emergence of the unique viral microorganisms Middle East respiratory system syndrome coronavirus (MERS CoV, originally recognized in a patient from Saudi Arabia) [3] and a new avian influenza A strain H7N9[3]. MERS CoV triggers severe respiratory system failure, commonly with associated kidney inability, and has an inpatient death rate of over 40% [4]. It is from the exact same family as the severe acute respiratory system disorder coronavirus. Currently, treatment alternatives are

simply encouraging and the level of breathing failure may necessitate extracorporeal membrane layer oxygenation. Luckily the transmission rate is reasonably low, with roughly 5% of household contacts affected [4]. Dromedary camels appear to have actually been the animal reservoir, with one confirmed case of camel to human transmission. [3]. There has not been substantial dissemination of this infection beyond the Middle East, and also within that area the virus has actually just caused a minimal variety of human infections. There are no records of human to-human spread of H7N9 avian influenza A and this remains an erratic infection constrained to China [5].

• EFFECTS OF THE CONJUGATED S. PNEUMONIAE VACCINE

The efficacy of pneumovax, the grown-up vaccination for *S. pneumoniae*, at protecting against CAP is restricted[5]. In contrast, inoculation of children with the fairly new pneumococcal conjugated vaccines (PCV) does avoid youth pneumonia. The PCV injections are also extremely reliable at eliminating vaccination serotypes of *S. pneumoniae* as nasopharyngeal conquering strains from children. Kids are the major holder for *S. pneumoniae* infection in adults, and decrease in the prevalence of nasopharyngeal colonization of children provides a degree of defense against *S. pneumoniae* infection in adults due to herd immunity. As a consequence, because the introduction of routine vaccination of youngsters with PCV-7 in the United States, a sustained decline in hospitalization because of CAP has been observed (Fig. 1), with current information revealing further benefit of the extended valency PCV-13 that shields against 13 *S. pneumoniae* serotypes[6]. A higher proportion of bacteraemic CAP is brought on by vaccine serotypes, suggesting that the vaccine may have a specific advantage in decreasing the incidence of extra extreme cases of *S. pneumoniae* CAP. However, there are in total at least 93 serotypes of *S. pneumoniae* and the leading serotypes causing disease differ with geography. This has pair of major repercussions. First as the present vaccinations are tailored for Europe and North America populaces they may not be as reliable in various other populaces [6]. Second of all, the minimal coverage of *S. pneumoniae* serotypes suggests that the efficacy of the vaccination is balanced out by raising prevalence of nonvaccine serotypes such as 6C, 8, 15A, 22, 23B and 35B amongst situations of *S. pneumoniae* pneumonia [6]. This serotype-replacement disease mores than time most likely to decrease the herd immunity advantages versus adult CAP of

immunizing children. A current trial has actually evaluated the efficacy of using PCV-13 as a vaccine in grownups for preventing CAP. The data are as yet unpublished, however the abstract that has been published recommends the vaccine was partially effective at protecting against CAP due to vaccination serotypes. Potentially, in the future, adults will certainly be immunized with the conjugated rather than the existing unconjugated vaccine, or perhaps a mix of both. Nevertheless, as a result of the better variety of serotypes prevalent in grownups compared with kids, serotype substitute

will stay a major prospective problem. Choice of serotypes for future PCV preparations may likewise need to take account of the impacts of capsular serotype on *S. pneumoniae* phenotype. For example, cases of CAP are controlled by serotype 14, 1, 8, 3 and 19A, respiratory system inability is associated with serotypes 3, 19A or 19F and cases of difficult CAP consisting of parapneumonic effusions are related to serotypes 1, 3, 7F, 14 and 19A[7]. Thus, future PCV solutions can particularly target these serotypes in order to protect against the much more extreme forms of *S. pneumoniae* CAP.

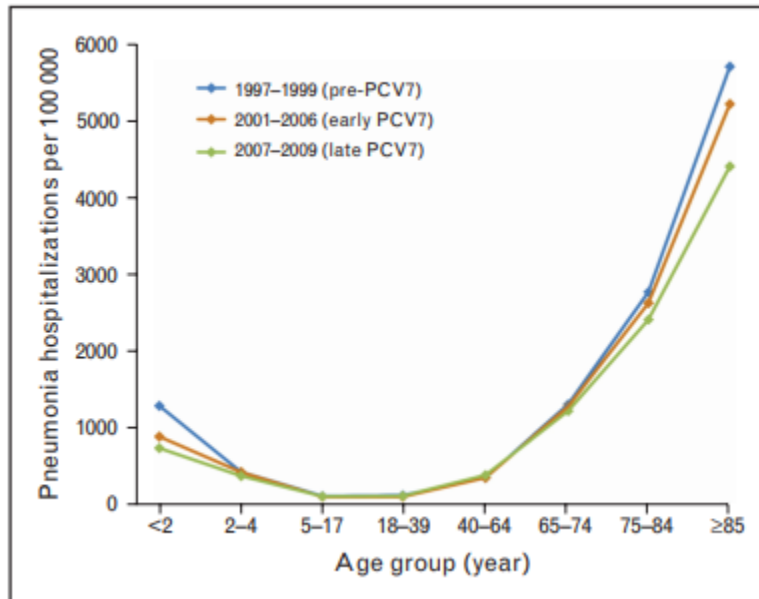


FIGURE 1. Average annual rates of the United States hospitalizations for pneumonia before and after the introduction of PCV7, according to age group [6].

- **DIAGNOSIS:**

Differential Diagnosis

Although *Streptococcus pneumoniae* stays one of the most widely isolated pathogen in CAP, the

corresponding regularity of other pathogens has actually enhanced. Clinical suspicion should be driven by comorbidities and other risk elements (Table 1) [8].

Table 1. Risk Factors and Pathogens in Community-Acquired Pneumonia [8].

RISK FACTOR	RELATED PATHOGENS
Alcoholism	Anaerobic oral flora, <i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i> , <i>Mycobacterium tuberculosis</i> , <i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i>
Aspiration	Anaerobic oral flora
Bioterrorism	<i>Bacillus anthracis</i> (anthrax), <i>Francisella tularensis</i> (tularemia), <i>Yersinia pestis</i> (plague)
Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease or smoking	<i>Chlamydophila pneumoniae</i> , <i>Haemophilus influenzae</i> , <i>Legionella</i> species, <i>Moraxella catarrhalis</i> , <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> or other gram-negative rods, <i>S. pneumoniae</i>
Exposure to bat or bird droppings	<i>Histoplasma capsulatum</i>
Exposure to farm animals or parturient cats	<i>Coxiella burnetii</i> (Q fever)
HIV infection (early)	<i>H. influenzae</i> , <i>M. tuberculosis</i> , <i>S. pneumoniae</i>
HIV infection (late)	<i>Aspergillus</i> and <i>Cryptococcus</i> species, <i>H. capsulatum</i> , <i>H. influenzae</i> , <i>Nocardia</i> species, nontuberculous mycobacteria, <i>Pneumocystis jiroveci</i>
Hotel or cruise ship travel in past two weeks	<i>Legionella</i> species
Influenza active in community	<i>H. influenzae</i> , influenza and other respiratory viruses, <i>S. pneumoniae</i> , <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> (including MRSA)
Injection drug use	Anaerobes, <i>M. tuberculosis</i> , <i>S. aureus</i> (including MRSA), <i>S. pneumoniae</i>
Lung abscess	Anaerobic oral flora, <i>M. tuberculosis</i> , nontuberculous mycobacteria, <i>S. aureus</i> (including MRSA)
Travel to or residence in Middle East	Middle East respiratory syndrome
Travel to or residence in Southeast Asia and East Asia	Avian influenza, severe acute respiratory syndrome

RISK FACTOR	RELATED PATHOGENS
Travel to or residence in southeastern and south-central states bordering the Mississippi and Ohio River basins	<i>Blastomyces dermatitidis</i>
Travel to or residence in southwestern United States	<i>Coccidioides</i> species, <i>Hantavirus</i> species

HIV = human immunodeficiency virus; MRSA = methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

PHYSICAL EXAMINATION:

Physical examination may reveal dullness to percussion of the chest, crackles or rales on auscultation, bronchial breath sounds, tactile fremitus, and egophony ("E" to "A" modifications). The patient also might be tachypneic. A possible research study showed that patients with common pneumonia were more probable than not to offer with dyspnea and bronchial breath sounds on auscultation [9].

RADIOGRAPHY:

Chest radiography (posteroanterior and lateral sights) has been revealed to be an important element in detecting pneumonia [10]. According to the latest American Thoracic Society (ATS) standards for the diagnosis and treatment of adults with CAP, "all patients with suspected CAP should have a chest radiograph to develop the diagnosis and recognize difficulties (pleural effusion, multilobar ailment)" [10]. Chest radiography might expose a lobar debt consolidation, which is standard in common pneumonia; or it can reveal bilateral, extra scattered infiltrates than those frequently seen in atypical pneumonia. Nevertheless, breast radiography carried out early in the course of the disease could be negative.

LABORATORY TESTS:

Historically, common clinical examinations for pneumonia have actually included leukocyte matter, sputum Gram stain, pair of series of blood cultures, and urine antigens. However, the validity of these tests has actually lately been doubted after reduced positive culture rates were discovered (e.g., culture

isolates of *S. pneumoniae* existed in only 40 to 50 percent of cases) [11]. Such reduced favorable society rates are likely as a result of problems with retrieving examples from the lower breathing system, previous administration of antibiotics, contamination from the upper necks muscles, faulty splitting up of sputum from saliva when streaking slides or plates, or viral etiology. Furthermore, sputum examples are appropriate in only 52.3 percent of patients with CAP, and only 44 percent of those examples contain virus [11]. Nevertheless, preliminary treatment usually is directed by the presumption that the presenting disease is brought on by a common bacterial pathogen.

Results also called into question the scientific utility of obtaining blood cultures from patients with believed CAP. In a research study of CAP cases in 19 Canadian health centers over a six-month period, favorable blood cultures were acquired in only 5.2 to 6.2 percent of patients, including those with the most serious condition [12]. Based upon these findings, other researchers concluded that a positive blood culture had no correlation with the seriousness of the illness or outcome. One more possible research study revealed that blood cultures were positive in just 10.5 percent of patients with pneumonia [10]. In spite of these and other research study discoveries, current ATS guidelines recommend that patients hospitalized for thought CAP receive 2 collections of blood cultures. Blood cultures, nevertheless, are not necessary for outpatient medical diagnosis [10]. *Legionella* antigens were found in the urine of 48 percent of patients with thought *Legionella pneumophila* serogroup 1 infection [13]. Table 2 includes the level of sensitivity and specificity of analysis examinations for CAP.

TABLE 2. Sensitivity and Specificity of Diagnostic Tests for CAP [10],[13],[14].

DIAGNOSTIC TESTS BY PATHOGEN	SENSITIVITY (%)	SPECIFICITY (%)
Chlamydia		
Rapid PCR (sputum, BAL fluid)	30 to 95	>95
Serology (fourfold rise in serum and convalescent titers)	10 to 100	—
Sputum culture	10 to 80	>95
Gram-negative rods		
Sputum Gram stain	15 to 100	11 to 100
<i>Haemophilus influenzae, Moraxella catarrhalis, Pneumoniae</i>		
Sputum culture	Diagnostic yield 20 to 79*	Diagnostic yield 20 to 79*
Influenza		
Rapid DFA (sputum, BAL fluid)	22 to 75	90
<i>Legionella pneumophila</i>		
DFA (sputum, BAL fluid)	22 to 75	90
PCR (sputum, BAL fluid)	83 to 100	>95
Serum acute titer	10 to 27	>85
Urinary antigen	55 to 90	>95
<i>Mycoplasma pneumoniae</i>		
Antibiotic titers	75 to 95	>90
Cold agglutinins	50 to 60	—
PCR (sputum, BAL fluid)	30 to 95	>95
<i>Pneumococcal pneumoniae</i>		

DIAGNOSTIC TESTS BY PATHOGEN	SENSITIVITY (%)	SPECIFICITY (%)
Chest radiography (lobar infiltrate)	40†	—
Sputum culture	Diagnostic yield 20 to 79*	Diagnostic yield 20 to 79*
Sputum Gram stain	15 to 100	11 to 100

CAP = community-acquired pneumonia; PCR = polymerase chain reaction; BAL = bronchoalveolar lavage; DFA = direct fluorescence antibody.

*—Overgrowth of oral flora, isolation of atypical agents requires special media.

†—Acute symptoms.

• MANAGEMENT

Outpatient vs. Inpatient treatment

Selecting amongst outpatient and inpatient therapy is a crucial decision as a result of the feasible risk of death [11], [15]. This choice not just affects analysis testing and medicine preferences, it can have a psychological impact on patients and their family members. Generally, the estimated expense for inpatient care of patients with CAP is \$7,500. Outpatient care can be priced at as low as \$150 to \$350 [17]. A hospital stay of a patient need to rely on patient age, comorbidities, and the severity of the presenting illness [11]. Physicians tend to overestimate a patient's risk of death [14]; as a result,

several low-risk patients who could be correctly healed as out-patients are confessed for more costly inpatient care. The Pneumonia Severity Index (Table 3) was developed to assist doctors in identifying patients at a greater threat of difficulties and that are more likely to gain from a hospital stay [15]. Researchers established a risk model based on a potential cohort research study of 2,287 patients with CAP in Pittsburgh, Boston, and Halifax, Nova Scotia [16]. By using the design, the authors discovered that 26 to 31 percent of the hospitalized patients were great outpatient candidates, and an extra 13 to 19 percent only needed short hospital monitoring. They validated this model using information from more than 50,000 patients with CAP in 275 U.S. and Canadian medical facilities [17].

Table 3. Pneumonia Severity Index [15].

PATIENT CHARACTERISTICS	POINTS
Demographics	
Male	Age (years)
Female	Age (years) – 10
Nursing home resident	+ 10
Comorbid illness	
Neoplastic disease	+ 30
Liver disease	+ 20
Congestive heart failure	+ 10

PATIENT CHARACTERISTICS		POINTS		
Cerebrovascular disease		+ 10		
Renal disease		+ 10		
Physical examination findings				
Altered mental status		+ 20		
Respiratory rate >30 breaths per minute		+ 20		
Systolic blood pressure < 90 mm Hg		+ 20		
Temperature < 35°C (95°F) or >40°C (104°F)		+ 15		
Pulse rate >125 beats per minute		+ 10		
Laboratory and radiographic findings				
Arterial pH < 7.35		+ 30		
Blood urea nitrogen >64 mg per dL (22.85 mmol per L)		+ 20		
Sodium < 130 mEq per L (130 mmol per L)		+ 20		
Glucose >250 mg per dL (13.87 mmol per L)		+ 10		
Hematocrit < 30 percent		+ 10		
Partial pressure of arterial oxygen < 60 mm Hg or oxygen percent saturation < 90 percent		+ 10		
Pleural effusion		+ 10		
<i>Total points:</i>		_____		
POINT TOTAL	RISK	RISK CLASS	MORTALITY % (NO. OF PATIENTS)	RECOMMENDED SITE OF CARE
No predictors	Low	I	0.1 (3,034)	Outpatient
≤ 70	Low	II	0.6 (5,778)	Outpatient

PATIENT CHARACTERISTICS				POINTS
71 to 90	Low	III	2.8 (6,790)	Inpatient (briefly)
91 to 130	Moderate	IV	8.2 (13,104)	Inpatient
>130	High	V	29.2 (9,333)	Inpatient

ANTIBIOTIC TREATMENT

Because the exact causative microorganism is not determined in many patients with CAP, treatment is typically empiric. One of the major variations between U.S. and European standards for therapy of CAP is that all patients in the United States receive treatment for *S. pneumoniae* and irregular microorganisms since CAP is more frequently triggered by these pathogens in North America [18]. Macrolides (e.g., azithromycin [Zithromax], clarithromycin [Biaxin]) can be used for outpatients without any cardiopulmonary disease or current antibiotic usage.

Drug-resistant *S. pneumoniae* is a worry in patients with comorbid health problem or current antibiotic therapy (within previous three months) and need to be treated with an oral beta-lactam antibiotic (e.g., high-dose amoxicillin, amoxicillin/clavulanate [Augmentin], cefpodoxime) combined with a macrolide. A breathing fluoroquinolone is another option. If a patient has used an antibiotic in the previous three months, a medicine from a various course should be suggested to decrease the threat of pneumococcal resistance. For hospitalized patients not admitted to the ICU, an intravenous respiratory system fluoroquinolone alone or an intravenous beta-lactam antibiotic integrated with a macrolide or doxycycline should be given. A study showed doxycycline to be similar to levofloxacin (Levaquin) in efficiency, span of hospital keep, and failure rate for empiric therapy of CAP; doxycycline is likewise a less costly alternative for hospitalized patients that are not confessed to the ICU [19]. However, the sample dimension in the research was tiny and IDSA/ATS standards recommend doxycycline just for outpatients [12]. All patients with CAP that are admitted to the ICU needs to be treated with double therapy, which is connected with reduced mortality from bacteremic pneumococcal pneumonia and develops survival in patients with CAP and shock [20]. Some patients with severe CAP, particularly after an episode of influenza or viral disease, that are

admitted to the ICU requirement added protection for *S. aureus*, consisting of MRSA. MRSA-associated CAP is identified by a serious, bilateral, necrotizing pneumonia caused by Pantone-Valentine leukocidin and other contaminants.

Duration of treatment for patients with CAP has traditionally been 10 to 14 days, but extra current confirmation recommends a shorter program of as much as seven days is just as reliable [21]. Hospitalized patients may be switched over from intravenous to oral antibiotic therapy after they have medical improvement and have the ability to endure oral medications. An early change from intravenous to oral antibiotics after three days in patients with extreme CAP has actually been shown to be efficient and might lower duration of hospital stay [22]. A program of oral azithromycin after completing intravenous azithromycin and ceftriaxone (Rocephin) is effective and well-tolerated [23].

CONCLUSION:

CAP stays an important cause of infectious illness mortality with an occurrence that grows with age. With an ageing population CAP will certainly remain to be a prevalent illness worldwide. Although *Streptococcus pneumoniae* remains one of the most generally isolated pathogen in CAP, the relative frequency of various pathogens has raised. Medical suspicion ought to be driven by comorbidities and various other danger factors. Advances in vaccination such as the intro of PCV and consequential herd resistance and possibly use of PCV in grownups should help reduce the amount of illness brought on by *S. pneumoniae*. Most patients with CAP present with a combination of coughing, dyspnea, pleuritic pain, fever or chills, and malaise. Danger and intensity of CAP, consisting of infection with less common microorganisms, boost with older age, cardiopulmonary disease, poor standard useful standing, low socioeconomic status, and recent weight reduction or underweight condition. Lung imaging with chest radiography has actually been the

requirement method of identifying pneumonia. Hospitalized patients who are not admitted to the ICU needs to obtain a respiratory fluoroquinolone or a beta-lactam antibiotic and a macrolide. Physicians has to understand that as much as one in 4 instances of CAP has a viral etiology, which may consider poor reaction to anti-biotics or irregular functions. Motivate recognition and antiviral treatment, specifically during influenza season, improve end results and lower mortality.

REFERENCE:

1. Lim WS, Baudouin SV, George RC, et al. BTS guidelines for the management of community acquired pneumonia in adults: update 2009. *Thorax* 2009; 64: iii1–iii55.
2. Froes F, Diniz A, Mesquita M, et al. Hospital admissions of adults with community-acquired pneumonia in Portugal between 2000 and 2009. *Eur Respir J* 2013; 41:1141–1146.
3. Assiri A, Al-Tawfiq JA, Al-Rabeeh AA, et al. Epidemiological, demographic, and clinical characteristics of 47 cases of Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus disease from Saudi Arabia: a descriptive study. *Lancet Infect Dis* 2013; 13:752–761.
4. Gao H-N, Lu H-Z, Cao B, et al. Clinical findings in 111 cases of influenza A (H7N9) virus infection. *N Engl J Med* 2013; 368:2277–2285.
5. Yi L, Guan D, Kang M, et al. Family clusters of avian influenza A H7N9 infection in Guangdong province, China. *J Clin Microbiol* 2015; 53:22–28.
6. Griffin MR, Zhu Y, Moore MR, et al. U.S. hospitalizations for pneumonia after a decade of pneumococcal vaccination. *N Engl J Med* 2013; 369:155–163.
7. Bewick T, Sheppard C, Greenwood S, et al. Serotype prevalence in adults hospitalised with pneumococcal noninvasive community-acquired pneumonia. *Thorax* 2012; 67:540–545.
8. Mandell LA, Wunderink RG, Anzueto A, et al. Infectious Diseases Society of America/American Thoracic Society consensus guidelines on the management of community-acquired pneumonia in adults. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2007;44(suppl 2):S27–S72.
9. Beovic B, Bonac B, Kese D, Avsic-Zupanc T, Kreft S, Lesnicar G, et al. Aetiology and clinical presentation of mild community-acquired bacterial pneumonia. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2003;22:584–91.
10. Niederman MS, Mandell LA, Anzueto A, Bass JB, Broughton WA, Campbell GD, et al. American Thoracic Society. Guidelines for the management of adults with community-acquired pneumonia. Diagnosis, assessment of severity, antimicrobial therapy, and prevention. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2001;163:1730–54.
11. Mandell LA, Bartlett JG, Dowell SF, File TM Jr, Musher DM, Whitney C. Infectious Diseases Society of America. Update of practice guidelines for the management of community-acquired pneumonia in immunocompetent adults. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2003;37:1405–33.
12. Feagan BG. A controlled trial of a critical pathway for treating community-acquired pneumonia: the CAPITAL study. Community-Acquired Pneumonia Intervention Trial Assessing Levofloxacin. *Pharmacotherapy*. 2001;21(pt 2):S89–94.
13. Priebe DL, Chambliss ML. Blood cultures not helpful for community-acquired pneumonia. *J Fam Pract*. 2003;52:599–600.
14. Campbell SG, Marrie TJ, Anstey R, Dickinson G, Ackroyd-Stolarz S. The contribution of blood cultures to the clinical management of adult patients admitted to the hospital with community-acquired pneumonia: a prospective observational study. *Chest*. 2003;123:1142–50.
15. Fine MJ, Auble TE, Yealy DM, Hanusa BH, Weissfeld LA, Singer DE, et al. A prediction rule to identify low-risk patients with community-acquired pneumonia. *N Engl J Med*. 1997;336:243–50.
16. Fine MJ, Hough LJ, Medsger AR, Li YH, Ricci EM, Singer DE, et al. The hospital admission decision for patients with community-acquired pneumonia. Results from the Pneumonia Patient Outcomes Research Team cohort study. *Arch Intern Med*. 1997;157:36–44.
17. Fine MJ, Pratt HM, Obrosky DS, Lave JR, McIntosh LJ, Singer DE, et al. Relation between length of hospital stay and costs of care for patients with community-acquired pneumonia. *Am J Med*. 2000;109:378–85.
18. Mundy LM, Oldach D, Auwaerter PG, Gaydos CA, Moore RD, Bartlett JG, et al. for the Hopkins CAP team. Implications for macrolide treatment in community-acquired pneumonia. *Chest*. 1998;113:1201–6.
19. Mandell LA. Antibiotics for pneumonia therapy. *Med Clin North Am*. 1994;78:997–1014.
20. Mandell LA, Marrie TJ, Grossman RF, Chow AW, Hyland RH. for the Canadian Community-Acquired Pneumonia Working Group. Canadian guidelines for the initial management of community-acquired pneumonia: an evidence-based update by the Canadian Infectious Diseases Society and the Canadian Thoracic

- Society. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2000;31:383–421.
21. Heffelfinger JD, Dowell SF, Jorgensen JH, Klugman KP, Mabry LR, Musher DM, et al. Management of community-acquired pneumonia in the era of pneumococcal resistance: a report from the Drug-Resistant *Streptococcus pneumoniae* Working Group. *Arch Intern Med*. 2000;160:1399–408.
 22. Mandell LA, Bergeron MC, Gribble MJ, et al. Sequential antibiotic therapy: effective cost management and patient care. *Can J Infect Dis*. 1995;6:306
 23. Kuti JL, Capitano B, Nicolau DP. Cost-effective approaches to the treatment of community-acquired pneumonia in the era of resistance. *Pharmacoeconomics*. 2002;20:513–28.