

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Antibiotics as Part of the Management of Severe Acute Malnutrition

Indi Trehan, M.D., M.P.H., D.T.M.&H., Hayley S. Goldbach, Sc.B.,
Lacey N. LaGrone, M.D., Guthrie J. Meuli, B.S., Richard J. Wang, M.D.,
Kenneth M. Maleta, M.B., B.S., Ph.D., and Mark J. Manary, M.D.

ABSTRACT

BACKGROUND

Severe acute malnutrition contributes to 1 million deaths among children annually. Adding routine antibiotic agents to nutritional therapy may increase recovery rates and decrease mortality among children with severe acute malnutrition treated in the community.

METHODS

In this randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial, we randomly assigned Malawian children, 6 to 59 months of age, with severe acute malnutrition to receive amoxicillin, cefdinir, or placebo for 7 days in addition to ready-to-use therapeutic food for the outpatient treatment of uncomplicated severe acute malnutrition. The primary outcomes were the rate of nutritional recovery and the mortality rate.

RESULTS

A total of 2767 children with severe acute malnutrition were enrolled. In the amoxicillin, cefdinir, and placebo groups, 88.7%, 90.9%, and 85.1% of the children recovered, respectively (relative risk of treatment failure with placebo vs. amoxicillin, 1.32; 95% confidence interval [CI], 1.04 to 1.68; relative risk with placebo vs. cefdinir, 1.64; 95% CI, 1.27 to 2.11). The mortality rates for the three groups were 4.8%, 4.1%, and 7.4%, respectively (relative risk of death with placebo vs. amoxicillin, 1.55; 95% CI, 1.07 to 2.24; relative risk with placebo vs. cefdinir, 1.80; 95% CI, 1.22 to 2.64). Among children who recovered, the rate of weight gain was increased among those who received antibiotics. No interaction between type of severe acute malnutrition and intervention group was observed for either the rate of nutritional recovery or the mortality rate.

CONCLUSIONS

The addition of antibiotics to therapeutic regimens for uncomplicated severe acute malnutrition was associated with a significant improvement in recovery and mortality rates. (Funded by the Hickey Family Foundation and others; ClinicalTrials.gov number, NCT01000298.)

From the Department of Pediatrics, Washington University in St. Louis, St. Louis (I.T., G.J.M., M.J.M.); the Departments of Paediatrics and Child Health (I.T.) and Community Health (K.M.M., M.J.M.), University of Malawi, Blantyre; Perelman School of Medicine at the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia (H.S.G.); the Department of Surgery, University of Washington, Seattle (L.N.L.); the Department of Medicine, Weill Cornell Medical College, Cornell University, New York (R.J.W.); and the U.S. Department of Agriculture/Agricultural Research Service Children's Nutrition Research Center, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston (M.J.M.). Address reprint requests to Dr. Manary at the Department of Pediatrics, Washington University in St. Louis, 1 Children's Place, Campus Box 8116, St. Louis, MO 63110, or at manary@kids.wustl.edu.

N Engl J Med 2013;368:425-35.

DOI: 10.1056/NEJMoa1202851

Copyright © 2013 Massachusetts Medical Society.

THE CONTRIBUTION OF SEVERE ACUTE malnutrition to the overall burden of childhood morbidity and mortality is enormous, with more than 20 million children with severe wasting worldwide,¹ an untold number with kwashiorkor, and case fatality rates among hospitalized children that are as high as 50%.^{1,2} For decades, the primary management for severe acute malnutrition was based on inpatient rehabilitation with fortified milk formulas.³ However, international consensus guidelines now recommend the use of ready-to-use therapeutic food (RUTF) — usually a fortified spread consisting of peanut paste, milk powder, oil, sugar, and a micronutrient supplement — in outpatient settings as the preferred management for uncomplicated cases of severe acute malnutrition.⁴ Despite the markedly better outcomes observed with this revised outpatient regimen,⁵ 10 to 15% of children still do not recover, even in the context of rigorously controlled clinical trials. Even modest improvements in recovery and mortality rates could mean thousands of lives saved annually.

Many studies,⁶⁻¹⁵ but not all,^{16,17} have shown a high prevalence of clinically significant infections among children hospitalized for severe malnutrition. This observation has led to treatment guidelines recommending the use of routine antibiotic agents even for children treated as outpatients,⁴ although outpatients are presumably much less likely to have a systemic infection than are patients with complicated cases that require inpatient care. This recommendation for the use of routine antibiotics is based on expert opinion and has not been directly tested in a clinical trial¹⁸; and observational data suggest that antibiotics are unnecessary and perhaps even harmful in children with uncomplicated severe acute malnutrition (i.e., children with good appetite and no clinical signs of sepsis).¹⁹

Most children with severe acute malnutrition can now be treated in rural health posts throughout the developing world.^{20,21} Providing antibiotic therapy in addition to RUTF for all malnourished children in this setting would not only be complex and costly but arguably unnecessary or even harmful.¹⁹ We conducted a prospective clinical trial to determine whether the routine administration of oral antibiotics as part of the outpatient management of severe acute malnutrition in children in Malawi was associated with improved outcomes. Rural Malawi is representative of agrar-

ian sub-Saharan Africa and populated primarily by subsistence farmers.²² An estimated 11% of the adult population in Malawi is infected with the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), and 53% of the children are stunted (height-for-age z score of less than -2).²³

METHODS

STUDY POPULATION AND ELIGIBILITY

We enrolled children from December 2009 through January 2011 at 18 feeding clinics in rural Malawi. Each child's weight, length, and mid-upper-arm circumference were measured. Children who were 6 to 59 months of age, with edema (indicative of kwashiorkor), a weight-for-height z score of less than -3 (indicative of marasmus),²⁴ or both (marasmic kwashiorkor), were eligible for enrollment. Each eligible child was given a 30-g test feeding of RUTF²⁵ under the supervision of a nurse to verify that the child was an appropriate candidate for outpatient therapy. Children who were too ill to consume the test dose in the clinic were hospitalized for inpatient management. Detailed descriptions of the study methods are provided in the Supplementary Appendix and the study protocol, both of which are available with the full text of this article at NEJM.org.

STUDY OVERSIGHT

The study was approved by ethics boards of the University of Malawi, Washington University in St. Louis, and the Malawi government. A data and safety monitoring board monitored adverse events and interim study outcomes. Caretakers of eligible children provided informed oral and written consent before enrollment. Antibiotics were purchased at cost from the St. Louis Children's Hospital Pharmacy. RUTF was purchased at cost from Project Peanut Butter, which is based in Blantyre, Malawi. The first and last authors vouch for the accuracy and completeness of the data and analyses reported, as well as the fidelity of the report to the study protocol.

STUDY DESIGN AND INTERVENTIONS

This randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled clinical trial compared nutritional and mortality outcomes among children with uncomplicated severe acute malnutrition who received treatment as outpatients with or without antibiotics. All children received standardized counseling and

RUTF that provided approximately 175 kcal per kilogram of body weight per day. One group received 80 to 90 mg of amoxicillin suspension per kilogram per day, divided into two daily doses; the second group received approximately 14 mg of cefdinir suspension per kilogram per day, divided into two daily doses. A suspension of 250 mg of amoxicillin per 5 ml was used, and the dose to be given to each child was based on a rounded amount that could be given by the field research pharmacist using the markings on a plastic syringe; a similar rounding of medication dose was used for cefdinir. The control group received placebo twice daily. Caretakers were instructed to administer the study drug in addition to RUTF during the initial 7 days of therapy.

STUDY PROCEDURES

Participants were assigned to their study group when caregivers drew an opaque envelope containing one of nine coded letters corresponding to one of the three intervention groups. Caregivers and study personnel involved in clinical assessments and data analysis were unaware of the intervention assignments. Medications and placebo were distributed in opaque plastic bottles, with a plastic syringe marked with the appropriate dose for the child. After distribution of the study interventions, nurses instructed each caretaker in the use of the syringe to give the study medications and supervised the administration of the first dose in the clinic.

After enrollment and caretaker instruction, each child was discharged home with the assigned study medication and a 2-week supply of RUTF.²⁵ If the household included a healthy child who was close in age to the participant and with whom the food might be shared, an extra allotment of RUTF was provided. Children were scheduled for follow-up visits at 2-week intervals, at which time anthropometric measurements were repeated; caretakers were also asked about the child's interim history and adherence to the assigned intervention.

Children who continued to have bipedal pitting edema or a weight-for-height z score below -2 at follow-up visits²⁴ remained in the study and received nutritional counseling and another 2-week supply of RUTF. Any child whose condition substantially deteriorated during the study or who was still malnourished after six follow-up visits was referred for inpatient care. Children who did

not return for follow-up visits were visited at home by community health workers and a member of the study team. Children were considered to have recovered when they were without edema and had a weight-for-height z score of -2 or higher. Children who withdrew from the study, were still malnourished after six follow-up visits, were hospitalized for any reason during the study, or died were considered to have had treatment failure.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The primary end points were the nutritional recovery and mortality rates in the three study groups. We calculated that a sample of 900 children in each group would provide the study with 80% power at an alpha level of 0.05 to detect a reduction of 4 percentage points in the rate of treatment failure from an estimated baseline of 11%²⁶ and a reduction of 3.5 percentage points in the mortality rate from an estimated baseline of 8%.

In addition, one prespecified subgroup analysis was conducted to evaluate the interaction between type of severe acute malnutrition and the intervention received, again with the use of recovery and mortality rates as the primary end points. This interaction was evaluated in a multiple logistic-regression model that included baseline characteristics that were significantly correlated with the primary outcomes in a univariate analysis.

Secondary outcomes of interest included weight gain, length gain, whether the antibiotics were associated with increased rates of adverse events, and time to recovery. Intention-to-treat analyses were used, and all tests were two-sided. Dichotomous outcomes were compared with the use of the chi-square test and Fisher's exact test; continuous variables were compared by means of Student's t-test and analysis of variance. The relative-risk ratios for the outcomes in the three intervention groups were also computed, and Kaplan-Meier plots of time to recovery and time to death were prepared.

RESULTS

STUDY POPULATION

A total of 3212 children with severe acute malnutrition were identified from December 2009 through January 2011; after the exclusion of ineligible children, the study included 2767 children (Fig. S1 in the Supplementary Appendix).

Table 1. Selected Baseline Characteristics of Children Enrolled in the Study.*

Characteristic	Amoxicillin (N=924)	Cefdinir (N=923)	Placebo (N=920)
Age — mo	20.6±9.7†	21.7±10.3	20.9±9.8
Mother as primary caretaker — no./total no. (%)	855/923 (92.6)	843/923 (91.3)	843/920 (91.6)
Current breast-feeding — no. (%)	444 (48.1)	399 (43.2)	431 (46.8)
Kwashiorkor — no. (%)	649 (70.2)	664 (71.9)	632 (68.7)
Marasmic kwashiorkor			
No. of children (%)	78 (8.4)	73 (7.9)	93 (10.1)
Mid-upper-arm circumference — cm	10.7±1.1	10.7±0.9	10.7±1.1
Weight-for-height z score	-3.75±0.64†	-3.56±0.53	-3.71±0.66
Marasmus			
No. of children (%)	197 (21.3)	186 (20.2)	195 (21.2)
Mid-upper-arm circumference — cm	10.9±1.1	11.0±1.1	10.9±1.1
Weight-for-height z score	-3.42±0.55	-3.49±0.58	-3.44±0.59
Height-for-age z score			
Mean score	-3.13±1.63	-3.23±1.64	-3.21±1.47
-2 or lower — no./total no. (%)	725/917 (79.1)	756/915 (82.6)	756/910 (83.1)
-3 or lower — no./total no. (%)	490/917 (53.4)	509/915 (55.6)	504/910 (55.4)
HIV test performed — no./total no. (%)			
Children tested	299/923 (32.4)	277/922 (30.0)	298/920 (32.4)
HIV-seropositive	61/298 (20.5)	60/277 (21.7)	67/296 (22.6)
HIV-seropositive and receiving ART	20/60 (33.3)	16/59 (27.1)	20/64 (31.3)
HIV-seropositive or HIV-exposed and receiving PCP prophylaxis	30/60 (50.0)	32/60 (53.3)	39/65 (60.0)
Mothers tested	691/922 (74.9)	687/921 (74.6)	689/917 (75.1)
HIV-seropositive	121/688 (17.6)	131/684 (19.2)	136/688 (19.8)
HIV-seropositive and receiving ART	49/117 (41.9)	59/128 (46.1)	64/129 (49.6)
Known HIV infection or exposure — no. (%)	132 (14.3)	140 (15.2)	148 (16.1)
Children with kwashiorkor	82/132 (62.1)	88/140 (62.9)	79/148 (53.4)
Children with marasmic kwashiorkor	17/132 (12.9)	21/140 (15.0)	30/148 (20.3)
Children with marasmus	33/132 (25.0)	31/140 (22.1)	39/148 (26.4)
≥1 infectious symptom in previous 2 wk — no./total no. (%)	780/924 (84.4)	772/923 (83.6)	756/920 (82.2)
Fever	580/908 (63.9)	561/915 (61.3)	569/906 (62.8)
Cough	503/917 (54.9)	470/921 (51.0)	472/915 (51.6)
Diarrhea	427/918 (46.5)	445/923 (48.2)	436/914 (47.7)
Good appetite reported — no./total no. (%)	791/913 (86.6)	775/916 (84.6)	780/912 (85.5)

* Plus-minus values are means ±SD. Baseline characteristics were similar among the groups except as noted. ART denotes antiretroviral therapy, HIV human immunodeficiency virus, and PCP *Pneumocystis jirovecii* pneumonia.

† P<0.05 for the comparison with cefdinir.

Baseline characteristics of the enrolled children were similar among the three groups (Table 1, and Table S1 in the Supplementary Appendix).

STUDY INTERVENTIONS AND ADVERSE EVENTS

A total of 924 children were randomly assigned to the amoxicillin group, 923 to the cefdinir group, and 920 to the placebo group. Caregivers for

more than 98% percent of the children reported that the child completed the entire 7-day course of the study regimen (Table S2 in the Supplementary Appendix).

No cases of severe allergy or anaphylaxis were identified. A total of three adverse events that were presumed to be drug reactions were reported: a generalized papular rash in a child who

Table 2. Recovery and Growth Outcomes, According to Intervention Group and Type of Severe Acute Malnutrition.*

Outcome	Amoxicillin		Cefdinir		Placebo		Placebo vs. Amoxicillin		Placebo vs. Cefdinir		Amoxicillin vs. Cefdinir		Placebo vs. Amoxicillin and Cefdinir	
	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	Relative Risk (95% CI)	P Value	Relative Risk (95% CI)	P Value	Relative Risk (95% CI)	P Value	Relative Risk (95% CI)	P Value
Overall														
No. of children	924		923		920									
Did not recover — no. (%)	104 (11.3)		84 (9.1)		137 (14.9)		1.32 (1.04–1.68)	0.02	1.64 (1.27–2.11)	<0.001	1.24 (0.94–1.62)	0.14	1.46 (1.19–1.80)	<0.001
Died	44 (4.8)		38 (4.1)		68 (7.4)		1.55 (1.07–2.24)	0.02	1.80 (1.22–2.64)	0.003	1.16 (0.76–1.77)	0.57	1.66 (1.22–2.27)	0.002
Withdrawn from the study	20 (2.2)		15 (1.6)		25 (2.7)									
Were hospitalized	26 (2.8)		15 (1.6)		22 (2.4)									
Continued to have severe acute malnutrition	14 (1.5)		16 (1.7)		22 (2.4)									
Kwashiorkor														
No. of children	649		664		632									
Did not recover — no. (%)	39 (6.0)		32 (4.8)		49 (7.8)		1.29 (0.86–1.94)	0.23	1.61 (1.04–2.48)	0.04	1.25 (0.79–1.97)	0.39	1.43 (1.01–2.04)	0.06
Died	15 (2.3)		18 (2.7)		32 (5.1)		2.19 (1.20–4.01)	0.01	1.87 (1.06–3.29)	0.03	0.85 (0.43–1.68)	0.73	2.01 (1.25–3.25)	0.005
Withdrawn from the study	9 (1.4)		5 (0.8)		7 (1.1)									
Were hospitalized	12 (1.8)		5 (0.8)		8 (1.3)									
Continued to have severe acute malnutrition	3 (0.5)		4 (0.6)		2 (0.3)									
Marasmic kwashiorkor														
No. of children	78		73		93									
Did not recover — no. (%)	24 (30.8)		22 (30.1)		38 (40.9)		1.33 (0.88–2.01)	0.20	1.36 (0.89–2.08)	0.19	1.02 (0.63–1.65)	1.00	1.34 (0.95–1.89)	0.13
Died	12 (15.4)		9 (12.3)		21 (22.6)		1.47 (0.77–2.79)	0.25	1.83 (0.89–3.76)	0.11	1.25 (0.56–2.79)	0.64	1.62 (0.94–2.81)	0.12
Withdrawn from the study	6 (7.7)		5 (6.8)		6 (6.5)									
Were hospitalized	4 (5.1)		4 (5.5)		7 (7.5)									
Continued to have severe acute malnutrition	2 (2.6)		4 (5.5)		4 (4.3)									
Marasmus														
No. of children	197		186		195									
Did not recover — no. (%)	41 (20.8)		30 (16.1)		50 (25.6)		1.23 (0.86–1.77)	0.28	1.59 (1.06–2.39)	0.02	1.29 (0.84–1.98)	0.29	1.38 (1.01–1.90)	0.05
Died	17 (8.6)		11 (5.9)		15 (7.7)		0.89 (0.46–1.73)	0.85	1.30 (0.61–2.76)	0.55	1.46 (0.70–3.03)	0.33	1.05 (0.58–1.92)	0.87
Withdrawn from the study	5 (2.5)		5 (2.7)		12 (6.2)									
Were hospitalized	10 (5.1)		6 (3.2)		7 (3.6)									
Continued to have severe acute malnutrition	9 (4.6)		8 (4.3)		16 (8.2)									

* CI denotes confidence interval.

received amoxicillin, thrush in a child who received cefdinir, and bloody diarrhea that resolved spontaneously while treatment continued in a child who received cefdinir. Children who received placebo had higher rates of cough and diarrhea reported at the first follow-up visit than those who received an antibiotic agent; caretakers of children who received amoxicillin reported cough least frequently, whereas children who received cefdinir had the lowest rate of reported diarrhea (Table S2 in the Supplementary Appendix).

NUTRITIONAL RECOVERY AND MORTALITY RATES

Overall, 88.3% of the children enrolled in the study recovered from severe acute malnutrition (Table 2). Children with marasmic kwashiorkor recovered less frequently and had higher mortality rates than children with either kwashiorkor or marasmus.

The proportion of children who recovered was significantly lower among those who received placebo than among those who received either amoxicillin (3.6 percentage points lower; 95% confidence interval [CI], 0.6 to 6.7) or cefdinir (5.8 percentage points lower; 95% CI, 2.8 to 8.7). Deaths accounted for the largest proportion of children who did not recover in each study group and for each type of severe acute malnutrition. The overall mortality rate was 5.4%, but the rate was significantly higher among children who received placebo than among those who received either amoxicillin (relative risk, 1.55; 95% CI, 1.07 to 2.24) or cefdinir (relative risk, 1.80; 95% CI, 1.22 to 2.64). No significant differences in the causes of death, as reported by verbal autopsy (i.e., a structured investigation of events leading to the death), were identified among the three study groups (Table S3 in the Supplementary Appendix). Although the

Table 3. Secondary Outcomes, According to Intervention Group and Type of Severe Acute Malnutrition.*

Secondary Outcome	Amoxicillin	Cefdinir	Placebo	Total
Overall				
Time to recovery				
No. of children	820	839	783	
No. of days	30±19	29±19	30±19	29±19
Weight				
No. of children	883	897	873	
Gain (g/kg/day) †	3.4±4.0	3.9±6.3‡	3.1±4.1‡	3.5±4.9
Length				
No. of children	883	897	873	
Gain (mm/day) §	0.20±0.45	0.22±0.44	0.18±0.44	0.20±0.44
Mid-upper-arm circumference				
No. of children	878	888	866	
Gain (mm/day) §	0.27±0.42 ¶	0.28±0.42	0.22±0.41 ¶	0.26±0.42
Kwashiorkor				
Time to recovery				
No. of children	610	632	583	
No. of days	26±16	27±18	27±17	27±17
Weight				
No. of children	636	649	614	
Gain (g/kg/day) †	2.7±3.4	3.2±6.7**	2.5±3.4**	2.8±4.8
Length				
No. of children	636	649	614	
Gain (mm/day) §	0.21±0.48	0.24±0.47	0.20±0.48	0.22±0.48
Mid-upper-arm circumference				
No. of children	633	642	609	
Gain (mm/day) §	0.26±0.45 † †	0.26±0.42 ‡ ‡	0.21±0.42 † † ‡ ‡	0.25±0.43

Table 3. (Continued.)

Secondary Outcome	Amoxicillin	Cefdinir	Placebo	Total
Marasmic kwashiorkor				
Time to recovery				
No. of children	54	51	55	
No. of days	44±21	39±17	40±18	41±19
Weight				
No. of children	65	67	76	
Gain (g/kg/day)†	4.1±3.4	4.9±4.3	3.6±5.1	4.2±4.4
Length				
No. of children	65	67	76	
Gain (mm/day)§	0.17±0.38	0.15±0.26	0.13±0.30	0.15±0.32
Mid-upper-arm circumference				
No. of children	63	66	75	
Gain (mm/day)§	0.22±0.33	0.34±0.42‡‡	0.19±0.37‡‡	0.25±0.38
Marasmus				
Time to recovery				
No. of children	156	156	145	
No. of days	37±23	35±21	38±23	37±22
Weight				
No. of children	182	181	183	
Gain (g/kg/day)†	5.6±5.3	6.0±4.7‡‡	4.9±5.0‡‡	5.5±5.1
Length				
No. of children	182	181	183	
Gain (mm/day)§	0.15±0.33	0.21±0.35	0.16±0.32	0.17±0.34
Mid-upper-arm circumference				
No. of children	182	180	182	
Gain (mm/day)§	0.32±0.37	0.34±0.41	0.28±0.38	0.31±0.39

* Plus-minus values are means ±SD. P>0.05 for all pairwise comparisons, except as noted.

† Weight gain was calculated from enrollment to the second follow-up visit (or to the first follow-up visit for children who had recovered by the time of the first follow-up visit or did not return for a second follow-up visit).

‡ P=0.002 for the comparison of placebo with cefdinir.

§ Gains in length and mid-upper-arm circumference were calculated from enrollment until the final study visit.

¶ P=0.01 for the comparison of placebo with amoxicillin.

|| P=0.002 for the comparison of placebo with cefdinir.

** P=0.02 for the comparison of placebo with cefdinir.

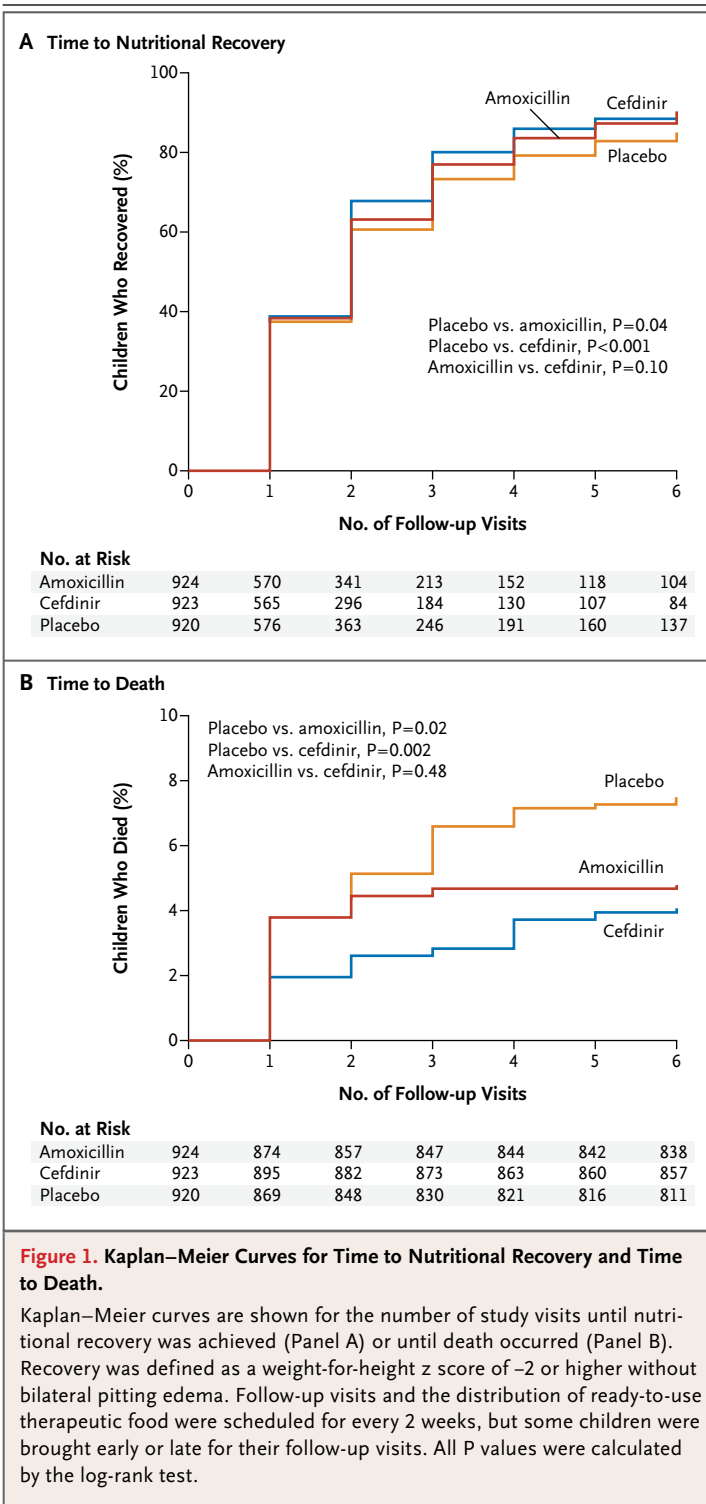
†† P=0.04 for the comparison of placebo with amoxicillin.

‡‡ P=0.03 for the comparison of placebo with cefdinir.

point estimates for nutritional recovery were higher and those for death were lower among children who received cefdinir than among those who received amoxicillin, these differences were not significant (P=0.22 for recovery and P=0.53 for death, for the comparison of amoxicillin and cefdinir by logistic regression). Recovery rates were higher and mortality rates were lower among children who received antibiotics than among those who received placebo, across a number of baseline characteristics (Fig. S2 in the Supplementary Appendix).

SECONDARY OUTCOMES

Children with marasmic kwashiorkor recovered significantly more slowly than children with either kwashiorkor or marasmus (Table 3). Kaplan–Meier survival analysis for all children in the study showed that the time to recovery was shorter in the cefdinir group than in the amoxicillin group or the placebo group and was shorter in the amoxicillin group than in the placebo group (Fig. 1A). Similarly, children who received an antibiotic agent survived longer than those who received placebo (Fig. 1B).



among children who received cefdinir than among those who received placebo. Children who received either antibiotic agent also had greater increases in mid-upper-arm circumference than did those who received placebo.

BASELINE CHARACTERISTICS RELATED TO RECOVERY

As compared with children who did not recover, those who recovered were significantly older and were more likely to have their father alive and still in the home (Table S4 in the Supplementary Appendix). Among children with marasmus or marasmic kwashiorkor, those with the lowest mid-upper-arm circumference and the lowest weight-for-height z score at enrollment were most likely to have treatment failure or to die. Children with the lowest height-for-age z score were least likely to recover. Although only 874 of 2765 children (31.6%) were tested for HIV, those who were known to be HIV-seropositive, especially if not receiving antiretroviral therapy, had the highest risks of treatment failure and death. Acute infectious symptoms and poor appetite both at enrollment and at the first follow-up visit (Table S5 in the Supplementary Appendix) were also associated with an increased risk of treatment failure.

A multiple logistic-regression model for baseline and intervention characteristics associated with nutritional recovery showed that younger age, marasmic kwashiorkor, greater stunting, HIV exposure or infection, and a cough before enrollment were associated with an increased risk of treatment failure (Table 4). These factors also proved to be significantly correlated with an increased risk of death; in addition, the caretaker's report of a good appetite at enrollment was significantly correlated with a reduced risk of death. As with the results of the univariate analysis, receipt of amoxicillin or cefdinir was strongly correlated with improved outcomes, although no significant difference between amoxicillin and cefdinir was observed. The interaction term between the type of severe acute malnutrition and the type of intervention proved not to be significant ($P=0.98$ for nutritional recovery and $P=0.45$ for death).

DISCUSSION

Weight gain from enrollment until the second follow-up visit (or until the one follow-up visit for children with only one) was significantly higher

Although improvements have been made in the treatment of severe acute malnutrition over the

Table 4. Variables Associated with Nutritional Recovery or Death in the Multiple Logistic-Regression Models.

Variable	Nutritional Recovery		Death	
	Odds Ratio (95% CI)	P Value	Odds Ratio (95% CI)	P Value
Age, each 1-mo increase	1.007 (1.001–1.017)	0.02	0.989 (0.981–0.998)	0.01
Kwashiorkor vs. marasmic kwashiorkor	5.88 (4.15–8.33)	<0.001	0.25 (0.16–0.39)	<0.001
Marasmus vs. marasmic kwashiorkor	1.74 (1.22–2.47)	0.002	0.44 (0.28–0.71)	<0.001
Height-for-age z score, each 1.0-point increase	1.19 (1.09–1.31)	<0.001	0.78 (0.69–0.88)	<0.001
Mother or child HIV-seropositive	0.36 (0.27–0.47)	<0.001	2.01 (1.36–2.95)	<0.001
Cough during 2 wk before enrollment	0.76 (0.59–0.99)	0.04	1.52 (1.06–2.18)	0.02
Good appetite reported at enrollment*	—	—	0.51 (0.34–0.77)	0.001
Intervention group				
Amoxicillin vs. placebo	1.38 (1.02–1.86)	0.03	0.67 (0.44–1.00)	0.05
Cefdinir vs. placebo	1.69 (1.24–2.31)	0.001	0.57 (0.37–0.88)	0.01

* Data for good appetite at enrollment were not significantly associated with nutritional recovery and were not included in the regression model.

past decade, with the advent and widespread use of RUTF, more than 1 million children per year still die from this disease.²¹ Given the high incidence of severe acute malnutrition worldwide,¹ the number of children who die remains unacceptably high, despite the best current, proved treatment.²⁷ In this double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled trial, we found that the routine addition of amoxicillin or cefdinir to the outpatient management of severe acute malnutrition was associated with marked improvements in recovery and mortality rates and significant improvements in weight and gain in the mid-upper-arm circumference.

A 24.4% (95% CI, 4.1 to 40.4) reduction in the treatment-failure rate was observed when amoxicillin was added to routine therapy and a 38.9% (95% CI, 21.1 to 52.7) reduction was observed with cefdinir (Table 2). Moreover, a 35.6% (95% CI, 6.9 to 55.4) reduction in the mortality rate was observed with amoxicillin, and a 44.3% (95% CI, 18.0 to 62.2) reduction in the mortality rate was observed with cefdinir. Secondary outcomes (Table 3) were also generally consistent with these findings, with the shortest time to recovery and greatest gains in weight and mid-upper-arm circumference among children who received cefdinir and the longest time to recovery and smallest gains in weight and mid-upper-arm circumference among those who received placebo.

This study was conducted in rural sub-Saharan

Africa in a stable subsistence farming population with a heavy burden of food insecurity and HIV infection and the acquired immunodeficiency syndrome, so these results may not necessarily be applicable in other populations, and thus they warrant validation in other contexts. However, no interaction between the type of severe acute malnutrition and the intervention group was observed, suggesting that this factor alone should not invalidate the generalizability of these findings. Although only a limited number of children had been tested for HIV, a high proportion of infected children had treatment failure or died (Table S4 in the Supplementary Appendix), providing further evidence for the need to provide integrated care for HIV infection and malnutrition in such children.^{28,29}

During this study, we pursued an aggressive strategy to determine the clinical status of children lost to follow-up. Almost all the children whom we were able to find had in fact died or were so ill that they needed to be hospitalized. This accounts for the higher percentage of deaths in our study than in other studies in Malawi,^{26,30,31} in which the children were likely to have been categorized simply as having withdrawn from the study.

The amoxicillin used in this study cost an average of \$2.67 per child, and the cost of cefdinir was \$7.85 but presumably would be lower if it were used on a large scale. For comparison, the

cost of RUTF was approximately \$50 for the course of therapy. Caretakers reported excellent adherence and did not report any difficulty in administering the medications. Among the children who received antibiotics, the rates of common side effects (most notably, diarrhea) were lower than they were among children who received placebo (Table S2 in the Supplementary Appendix). One might speculate that this may suggest a potential mechanism of effectiveness in the malnutrition armamentarium (i.e., decreasing the rates of bacterial pneumonia and dehydrating diarrhea in these immunocompromised children).

The children enrolled in this study had uncomplicated severe acute malnutrition, as do the vast majority of malnourished children who present for care,²¹ in that they all showed a good appetite at enrollment and no clinical signs of sepsis. The small proportion of children who did not meet these criteria were transferred to inpatient treatment. Mucosal defenses (both respiratory and intestinal) are known to be compromised in resource-limited settings such as Malawi,³² especially among malnourished children.^{33,34} Studies of bacteremia in malnourished children¹¹ suggest that most severe invasive bacterial infections are due to translocation across these compromised mucosal surfaces. Thus, although these children did not specifically show signs of sepsis at the time of enrollment, antibiotics were effective in lowering the risk that these complications would develop during nutritional treatment. Although the increasing threat of antimicrobial resistance in the developing world³⁵⁻³⁸ cannot be ignored and instances of highly resistant bacteria have been observed in malnourished children,³⁹ we believe that the routine use of antibiotics is worth serious consideration because of the observed benefits of nutritional recovery and

a reduced risk of death in this specific high-risk population.

Our results suggest that children with uncomplicated severe acute malnutrition who qualify for outpatient therapy⁴ remain at risk for severe bacterial infection and that the routine inclusion of antibiotics as part of their nutritional therapy is warranted. This prospective, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study supplants our previous retrospective, uncontrolled study,¹⁹ which showed no benefit of routine amoxicillin therapy. The results of the previous study were likely to have been confounded by the large differences in baseline characteristics between the children who received antibiotics and those who did not and may also have been confounded by other, unidentified factors in the implementation of the therapeutic feeding protocols between the two groups. Further studies are needed to evaluate long-term outcomes of routine antibiotic use in children with uncomplicated severe acute malnutrition and to determine whether a specific high-risk target population can be better defined.

Supported by a grant from the Hickey Family Foundation, a cooperative agreement (GHN-A-00-08-00001-00) with the Academy for Educational Development Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance 2 project (through the Office of Health, Infectious Diseases, and Nutrition, Bureau of Global Health, and Food for Peace, United States Agency for International Development), and grants (T32-HD049338, to Dr. Trehan; and UL1-RR024992, for statistical consulting) from the National Institutes of Health.

Disclosure forms provided by the authors are available with the full text of this article at NEJM.org.

We thank all the families and children who participated in the study; our field research team: Horris Chikwiri, Eleanor Chipofya, Rosemary Godwa, Lydia Kamenya, Jackson Makwinja, Jeanne Mbawa, Nester Mwase, and Vegas Riscado; the local health surveillance assistants and volunteers for their work in recruiting patients; Miranda Nelson and the pharmacy staff at the St. Louis Children's Hospital for assistance with procuring supplies; Kenneth Schechtman for assistance with statistical analyses; and the members of the data and safety monitoring board: Lawrence Kazembe (chair), Gertrude Kalanda, and Ajib Phiri.

REFERENCES

- Black RE, Allen LH, Bhutta ZA, et al. Maternal and child undernutrition: global and regional exposures and health consequences. *Lancet* 2008;371:243-60.
- Bhutta ZA, Ahmed T, Black RE, et al. What works? Interventions for maternal and child undernutrition and survival. *Lancet* 2008;371:417-40.
- Management of severe malnutrition: a manual for physicians and other senior health workers. Geneva: World Health Organization, 1999.
- Community-based management of severe acute malnutrition: a joint statement of the World Health Organization, World Food Programme, the United Nations System Standing Committee on Nutrition, and the United Nations Children's Fund. Geneva: World Health Organization, 2007.
- Ciliberto MA, Sandige H, Ndekha MJ, et al. Comparison of home-based therapy with ready-to-use therapeutic food with standard therapy in the treatment of malnourished Malawian children: a controlled, clinical effectiveness trial. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2005;81:864-70.
- Friedland IR. Bacteraemia in severely malnourished children. *Ann Trop Paediatr* 1992;12:433-40.
- Johnson AW, Osinusi K, Aderemi WI, Adeyemi-Doro FA. Bacterial aetiology of acute lower respiratory infections in pre-school Nigerian children and comparative predictive features of bacteraemic and non-bacteraemic illnesses. *J Trop Pediatr* 1993;39:97-106.

8. Wolf BH, Ikeogu MO, Vos ET. Effect of nutritional and HIV status on bacteraemia in Zimbabwean children who died at home. *Eur J Pediatr* 1995;154:299-303.
9. Archibald LK, Kazembe PN, Nwananywu O, Mwansambo C, Reller LB, Jarvis WR. Epidemiology of bloodstream infections in a bacille Calmette-Guérin-vaccinated pediatric population in Malawi. *J Infect Dis* 2003;188:202-8.
10. Norton EB, Archibald LK, Nwananywu OC, et al. Clinical predictors of bloodstream infections and mortality in hospitalized Malawian children. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* 2004;23:145-51.
11. Berkley JA, Lowe BS, Mwangi I, et al. Bacteremia among children admitted to a rural hospital in Kenya. *N Engl J Med* 2005;352:39-47.
12. Babirekere-Iriso E, Musoke P, Kekitiinwa A. Bacteraemia in severely malnourished children in an HIV-endemic setting. *Ann Trop Paediatr* 2006;26:319-28.
13. Bachou H, Tylleskär T, Kaddu-Mulindwa DH, Tumwine JK. Bacteraemia among severely malnourished children infected and uninfected with the human immunodeficiency virus-1 in Kampala, Uganda. *BMC Infect Dis* 2006;6:160.
14. Maitland K, Berkley JA, Shebbe M, Peshu N, English M, Newton CR. Children with severe malnutrition: can those at highest risk of death be identified with the WHO protocol? *PLoS Med* 2006;3(12):e500.
15. Sigauque B, Roca A, Mandomando I, et al. Community-acquired bacteraemia among children admitted to a rural hospital in Mozambique. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* 2009;28:108-13.
16. Nathoo KJ, Chigonde S, Nhembe M, Ali MH, Mason PR. Community-acquired bacteremia in human immunodeficiency virus-infected children in Harare, Zimbabwe. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* 1996;15:1092-7.
17. Bahwere P, Levy J, Hennart P, et al. Community-acquired bacteraemia among hospitalized children in rural central Africa. *Int J Infect Dis* 2001;5:180-8.
18. Lazzarini M, Tickell D. Antibiotics in severely malnourished children: systematic review of efficacy, safety and pharmacokinetics. *Bull World Health Organ* 2011;89:594-607.
19. Trehan I, Amthor RE, Maleta K, Manary MJ. Evaluation of the routine use of amoxicillin as part of the home-based treatment of severe acute malnutrition. *Trop Med Int Health* 2010;15:1022-8.
20. Collins S, Dent N, Binns P, Bahwere P, Sadler K, Hallam A. Management of severe acute malnutrition in children. *Lancet* 2006;368:1992-2000.
21. Manary MJ, Sandige HL. Management of acute moderate and severe childhood malnutrition. *BMJ* 2008;337:a2180.
22. Lin CA, Boslaugh S, Ciliberto HM, et al. A prospective assessment of food and nutrient intake in a population of Malawian children at risk for kwashiorkor. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr* 2007;44:487-93.
23. United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). The state of the world's children 2011. New York: United Nations Children's Fund, 2011 (<http://www.unicef.org/sowc2011/>).
24. WHO child growth standards and the identification of severe acute malnutrition in infants and children. Geneva: World Health Organization, 2009.
25. Manary MJ. Local production and provision of ready-to-use therapeutic food (RUTF) spread for the treatment of severe childhood malnutrition. *Food Nutr Bull* 2006;27:Suppl:S83-S89.
26. Linneman Z, Matilsky D, Ndekha M, Manary MJ, Maleta K, Manary MJ. A large-scale operational study of home-based therapy with ready-to-use therapeutic food in childhood malnutrition in Malawi. *Matern Child Nutr* 2007;3:206-15.
27. Gross R, Webb P. Wasting time for wasted children: severe child undernutrition must be resolved in non-emergency settings. *Lancet* 2006;367:1209-11.
28. Heikens GT, Bunn J, Amadi B, et al. Case management of HIV-infected severely malnourished children: challenges in the area of highest prevalence. *Lancet* 2008;371:1305-7.
29. Trehan I, O'Hare BA, Phiri A, Heikens GT. Challenges in the management of HIV-infected malnourished children in sub-Saharan Africa. *AIDS Res Treat* 2012;2012:790786.
30. Amthor RE, Cole SM, Manary MJ. The use of home-based therapy with ready-to-use therapeutic food to treat malnutrition in a rural area during a food crisis. *J Am Diet Assoc* 2009;109:464-7.
31. Oakley E, Reinking J, Sandige H, et al. A ready-to-use therapeutic food containing 10% milk is less effective than one with 25% milk in the treatment of severely malnourished children. *J Nutr* 2010;140:2248-52.
32. Glennie SJ, Williams NA, Heyderman RS. Mucosal immunity in resource-limited setting: is the battle ground different? *Trends Microbiol* 2010;18:487-93.
33. Behrens RH, Lunn PG, Northrop CA, Hanlon PW, Neale G. Factors affecting the integrity of the intestinal mucosa of Gambian children. *Am J Clin Nutr* 1987;45:1433-41.
34. Brewster DR, Manary MJ, Menzies IS, O'Loughlin EV, Henry RL. Intestinal permeability in kwashiorkor. *Arch Dis Child* 1997;76:236-41.
35. Okeke IN, Aboderin OA, Byarugaba DK, Ojo KK, Opintan JA. Growing problem of multidrug-resistant enteric pathogens in Africa. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2007;13:1640-6.
36. Reddy EA, Shaw AV, Crump JA. Community-acquired bloodstream infections in Africa: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Infect Dis* 2010;10:417-32.
37. Mandomando I, Sigauque B, Morais L, et al. Antimicrobial drug resistance trends of bacteremia isolates in a rural hospital in southern Mozambique. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 2010;83:152-7.
38. Ashley EA, Lubell Y, White NJ, Turner P. Antimicrobial susceptibility of bacterial isolates from community acquired infections in sub-Saharan Africa and Asian low and middle income countries. *Trop Med Int Health* 2011;16:1167-79.
39. Woerther PL, Angebault C, Jacquier H, et al. Massive increase, spread, and exchange of extended spectrum β -lactamase-encoding genes among intestinal Enterobacteriaceae in hospitalized children with severe acute malnutrition in Niger. *Clin Infect Dis* 2011;53:677-85.

Copyright © 2013 Massachusetts Medical Society.

RECEIVE THE JOURNAL'S TABLE OF CONTENTS EACH WEEK BY E-MAIL

To receive the table of contents of the *Journal* by e-mail every Wednesday evening, sign up at NEJM.org.