ORIGINAL ARTICLE

CODEN: AAJMBG

Typhoid intestinal perforations in Northern Ghana

Callistus B. Kuubiere, Victor Mogre, Saeed F. Majeed and Abass Alhassan^{*}

Department of Human Biology, School of Medicine and Health Science, University for Development Studies, Tamale, Ghana

Abstract: *Background*: Typhoid intestinal perforation (TIP) is a global health concern, with high incidence of morbidity and mortality in developing countries. This study examined the pattern of TIP and its associated factors in the Northern Region of Ghana. *Methods:* This retrospective study was conducted from January 2010 to December 2013 in patients treated for TIP at the Tania Specialist Hospital, Tamale, Ghana. All relevant data were retrieved using a standardized data collection form. *Results:* Out of the 150 patients presenting with typhoid fever, 65 patients had TIP giving a prevalence rate of 43.3% of which, 61.5% (n = 40) were males and 38.5% (n = 25) were males. Patients aged 11-20 years recorded the highest number of TIPs (36.9%, n=24) followed by those aged 1-10 years (23.1%, n=15)). The most common presenting symptom at the out-patient department were severe abdominal pains (56.7%, n=87), abdominal pains with abdominal distension (43.3%, n= 28) and abdominal distension (49.3%, n=32). Intra-operatively, 41 (63%) had single terminal ileal perforation, 19 (29.2%) had 2-3 perforations within the ileum, 2 (3.1%) had caecal perforation and the rest 3 (4.7%) had perforations in the jejunum. Fifty-three (81.5%) patients recovered fully, whilst 12 (18.5%) of them died due to post-operative complications. *Conclusion:* The prevalence rate of TIP was 43.3% and higher among males and those aged 10-20 years. The role of prevention, early reporting, and detection coupled with appropriate management cannot be overemphasized.

Keywords: Typhoid intestinal perforation; prevalence, surgical management, Northern Ghana

Introduction

In many developing countries, typhoid fever; a severe febrile illness primarily caused by Salmonella *typhi*, is still a disease of enormous public health concern, even though it is almost eliminated in developed countries [1-3]. Typhoid fever is generally transmitted by faeco-oral route and may occasionally lead to an epidemic, particularly in areas with poor waste disposal system, and limited availability of clean drinking water [2-5]. It has been estimated that 22 million cases of typhoid fever and 216 000 deaths occur annually worldwide [6]. In Africa, population-based incidence of typhoid fever is reported to range from 13 to 845 cases per 100000 population annually [6-9].

Effective public health measures such as the provision of clean, potable water and good waste disposal systems have led to a dramatic decrease of the disease in developed countries [10]. Developing countries on the other hand still bear the burden of the disease, due to the fact that most communities still fall short of standards for good drinking water, hygiene and sanitation [3, 6-7].

Clinical signs and symptoms of typhoid fever include malaise, headache, sustained fever, constipation and/or diarrhea, abdominal pain, and other gastrointestinal symptoms, cough and loss of appetite. Confirmatory laboratory findings are conducted by the isolation of Salmonella *Typhi* from bone marrow, blood, or other site in a patient with compatible illness [11].

With a case mortality rate approaching 30%–40%, typhoid intestinal perforations (TIPs) and intestinal bleeding [12-13] arising from necrosis of Peyer's patches in the terminal ileum [14-16] is the most lethal complications of typhoid fever. Just like typhoid fever, TIP is the most common surgical problem in developing countries, where it is associated with high mortality and morbidity, due to lack of clean drinking water, poor sanitation and lack of medical facilities in remote areas and delay in hospitalization [17-18]. The high incidence of TIP has also been attributed to the emergence of multidrug resistant and virulent strains of Salmonella typhi [18].

TIP affects mostly children and young adults who are the future leaders and contribute greatly to the economy of developing countries [19-21]. This results in devastating effects (socially and economically) on resource poor countries due to loss of productive hours as due to hospitalization of patients with acute disease and the complications and loss of income attributable to the duration of the clinical illness.

In resource-poor countries like Ghana, the management of the TIP which requires surgery has peculiar challenges relating to diagnostic and therapeutic measures [19, 22]. Some of these unique challenges include late presentation of the disease coupled with lack of clean drinking water, poor sanitation, and lack of diagnostic facilities and emergence of multi-drug resistant (MDR) strains of S. typhi [22-23]. This may result in poor treatment outcomes. Many factors such as late presentation. inadequate pre-operative resuscitation, delayed operation, the number of perforations, and the extent of faecal peritonitis, have been found to have a significant effect on the prognosis [24-27].

Despite the high morbidity and mortality rates of TIP in developing countries, little is known about the prognostic factors and pattern of in TIPs in Ghana. The purpose of this study was to examine the pattern of TIP and to determine the prognostic factors of the disease among patients attending the Tania Specialist Hospital, Tamale, Ghana.

Material and Methods

This retrospective study was conducted from January, 2010 to December, 2013 at the Tania Specialist Hospital. All patients who had typhoid fever during the study period were included in the study. With the aid of a standardized data collection form, all data were abstracted from the medical records of all patients treated for typhoid fever and intestinal perforations at the Tania Specialist Hospital. The extracted data included age, sex, signs/symptoms, and duration of symptoms before presentation, investigations, resuscitation, operative procedures/techniques, post-operative management, complications, outcomes and mortality. Patients with incomplete data were excluded from the study. Diagnosis of typhoid fever and perforations was based on clinical, laboratory and operative findings.

The diagnosis of typhoid fever was made by positive blood, stool, or urine culture, rising Widal titer levels (about 4-fold increase in titre). Typhoid intestinal perforations (TIPs) were diagnosed clinically by peritonitis which were supported by positive Widal test, detection of free air under the diaphragm on chest and abdominal radiographs and free intra peritoneal fluid on ultrasound abdomen and confirmed by intra-operative findings of oval perforation on the anti-mesenteric border of the intestine and an acutely inflamed and edematous intestine.

All patients were well resuscitated, prepared physically and psychologically before surgery as well as having adequate and appropriate antibiotics, analgelsics/anti-inflammatory, infusion and transfusion therapy, nasogastric tube, urethral catheterisation insitu and laboratory test done (Hb, PVC, electrolyte analysis, renal profile, blood, uric and stool analysis and sickling test). Post operatively, all patients were monitored carefully with adequate hydration. Appropriate antibiotics were provided post-operative based on the culture and sensitivity results.

Statistical analysis: All collected data were entered in Microsoft Excel 2007, analysed using GraphPad Prism version 5.00 (GraphPad software, San Diego California USA, www.graphpad.com) for windows and presented as frequency tables.

Results

Out of the 150 patients who presented to the Tania specialist hospital with typhoid fever, 65 of them had typhoid intestinal perforations yielding a prevalence rate of 43.3% during the period under study (2010 - 2013). All of these were included into the study according to our inclusion and exclusion criteria. As shown in table 1, severe abdominal pain, abdominal distension and fever were the main presenting symptoms at the out-patient department (OPD).

The onset of typhoid fever and time of presentation to the hospital are presented in figure 1. Forty-seven (72.3%) of the patients reported relatively (7-14) late to the hospital after the onset of the disease.

| Table-1: Presentation symptoms and time of presentation | | | | |
|---|-----------|------|--|--|
| Symptoms on presentation to the hospital | Frequency | % | | |
| Severe abdominal pain | 87 | 56.7 | | |
| Fever | 20 | 31.3 | | |
| Abdominal distension | 28 | 43.3 | | |
| Abdominal distension with fever | 32 | 49.3 | | |

Figure-1: Time of presentation of typhoid after onset of the disease



Forty patients (61.5%) were males and the rest were females resulting in a male to female ratio of 1.6:1 (shown in table 2). The highest prevalence of typhoid intestinal perforations (TIP) were found in patients aged 11-20 years and the least occurring in those aged 21-30 years.

| Table-2: Distribution of Typhoid IntestinalPerforations by sex and age | | | |
|--|-----------|------|--|
| Variable | Frequency | (%) | |
| Sex | | | |
| Male | 40 | 61.5 | |
| Female | 25 | 38.5 | |
| Age (years) | | | |
| 1-10 | 15 | 23.1 | |
| 11-20 | 24 | 36.9 | |
| 21-30 | 7 | 10.8 | |
| \geq 31 years | 19 | 29.2 | |

Anatomical sites of perforations are presented in table 3. Intra-operatively, 41 (63%) had single terminal ileal perforation and 2 (3.1%) had caecal perforation. No end-ileotomy was performed. Sixty (92.3%) underwent perforated hole excision and transverse closure in two layers with PDS 2/0 suture. Three (4.6%) had small bowel resection and end-to-end anastomosis with PDS 2/0. Two (3.1%) had hemicolectomy with end-to-side anastomosis performed.

| Table-3: Distribution of patients according to anatomical site of perforations (n = 65) | | | |
|--|-----------|------|--|
| Perforation | Frequency | % | |
| Single ileal | 41 | 63 | |
| 2-3 ileal | 19 | 29.2 | |
| Caecal | 2 | 3.1 | |
| Jejunum | 3 | 4.7 | |

All patients were treated surgically and the clinical outcomes presented in table 4. Fiftyone patients (78.5%) recovered fully without any form of complications and 2 (3.0%) recovered later after complications. A mortality rate of 18.5% (n=12) was found.

| Table-4: Clinical outcomes after treatment | | | | |
|--|-----------|------|--|--|
| Variable | Frequency | % | | |
| Full recovery without complications | 51 | 78.5 | | |
| Recovered after complications | 2 | 3.0 | | |
| Mortality | 12 | 18.5 | | |

As shown in figure 2, the causes of mortality post-operatively were septicaemia/septic shock (33.3%, n=4), faecal fistula (33.3%, n=4) and electrolyte imbalance/hypovolaemic (33.3%, n=4).



Figure-2: Causes of mortality post-operatively (n=12)

Discussion

Typhoid intestinal perforations (TIPs) are still the most common complications of typhoid fever in developing countries [10, 18-19, 26, 28-30]. Not surprisingly, the prevalence of TIPs was found to be 43.3%. This is among the highest rates reported in literature. Previous reports have estimated the prevalence of TIPs to range from 10%-33% in Africa, a continent noted for high prevalence of the disease [20, 27, 31-32]. Rates ranging between 0.6% and 4.9% of typhoid fever cases [7, 13] have been reported elsewhere.

The high prevalence rate of TIPs in this study could be due to the fact that the study is situated in a West African sub-region in which the disease have been shown to be endemic [10, 25, 28]. A more virulent strain of the Salmonella *typhi* has been identified in the West African sub-region probably contributing to the high rate of intestinal perforation among West Africans [10].

In addition an increased hypersensitivity reaction in the Peyer's patches is common among sufferers of the disease in the West African subregion compared to other endemic areas of typhoid fever [25]. Also the high prevalence of TIP could also be attributed to poor nutritional status which is endemic in Ghana. Under nutrition a form of malnutrition has been shown to have a synergistic relationship with disease infection (e.g. typhoid fever) compromising the immune system of affected individuals.

Another important contributing factor to the higher prevalence of TIPs in this study could be due to the fact that a higher prevalence of TIPs was found in patients who presented late to the hospital (2-14 days duration of typhoid fever), than in those who presented early (1-7 days). This is expected in a resource-poor country like Ghana due to poverty, ignorance and poor access to healthcare. Inaccessibility and affordability issues results in poor, ignorant patients resorting to herbal medicines or patent medicine shops during which valuable time is wasted, granting the bacteria the opportunity to invade the tissue and also for the immune system to contribute to the pathogenesis of the intestinal lesions. This attitude also results in sub therapeutic antibiotic treatment [27] complicating the disease and a delay in presentation. In addition, the high incidence of malaria in Ghana, which mimics typhoid fever in the first week of the disease, is easily misdiagnosed without laboratory confirmation contributing to the late presentation of symptoms to the hospital [33].

In commonality with several studies from other West African countries [25, 27, 34-35], perforations occurred within 8-14 days after the onset of symptoms, confirming early perforations in West African patients reported in the literature. In keeping with several studies, the prevalence of TIPs was higher in males than in females in this study with a male to female ratio of 1.6:1 [10, 13, 19, 27, 30, 36]. It remains unclear the mediating mechanism of the susceptibility of the male gender to TIPs. Immune mechanisms and genetic predisposition factors have been suggested as possible underlying factors [37-38]. It is also possible that more males than females spend longer time outside their homes and are more likely to eat food outdoors, where food hygiene is generally poor [28]. This increases their risk of exposure to the causative bacteria, Salmonella typhi [10] making them susceptible to TIP.

Importantly, we found that the peak prevalence of TIPs occurred in the first, second and third decades of life, which constitute children and the youth. This is in consonance with previous reports [10, 26, 28, 39]. The effect of age on TIP is unclear. However, we postulate that children and the youth are generally more adventurous, outgoing and mobile and as a result are more likely to eat food outside of the home [10]. Majority of children and the youth attend school and are at increased risk of faecal contamination as they visit toilets at school or public toilets [10]. Nutrition pertaining to wasting and stunting is endemic among children in northern Ghana. Giving the negative impact of under nutrition on infection, it is postulated that under nutrition could have contributed to the higher prevalence of TIPs in children and the youth.

It is important to observe that the youth are the active and economic productive group and as a consequence the high prevalence of TIPs in this group poses a negative economic impact on the nation and their individual families [10, 19-20]. The occurrence of the disease in children and the youth does not negatively affect the economy of the developing nations only, but also has longterm effects on the future of the developing countries [40-41]. We therefore suggest that an commitment, improvement urgent and elaboration of the public policy response on preventive measures in the country. Efforts should be made to increase access to safe drinking water, improved healthcare delivery and sewage disposal systems. The occurrence of single perforations in a majority (63%) of our patients is in keeping with several studies previously reported [10, 19-20, 22, 42].

- 1. Rowe B, Ward L, Threlfall E, Wallace M, Yousif A. Spread of multiresistant Salmonella typhl. *The Lancet* 1990; 336:1065-1066.
- 2. Crum NF. Current trends in typhoid fever. *Current* gastroenterology reports 2003; 5:279-286.
- 3. Ukwenya A, Ahmed A, Garba E. Progress in management of typhoid perforation. *Annals of African Medicine* 2011; 10.
- Hosoglu S, Aldemir M, Akalin S, Geyik MF, Tacyildiz IH, Loeb M: Risk factors for enteric perforation in patients with typhoid fever. *American Journal of Epidemiology* 2004, 160:46-50.
- 5. Osifo OD, Ogiemwonyi SO. Typhoid ileal perforation in children in Benin city. *African Journal of Paediatric Surgery* 2010; 7.
- 6. Crump JA, Luby SP, Mintz ED. The global burden of typhoid fever. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization* 2004; 82:346-353.
- 7. Crump J, Ram P, Gupta S, Miller M, Mintz E. Part I. Analysis of data gaps pertaining to Salmonella enterica

The mortality rate of 18.5% from TIPs falls within the 20-40% mortality rates previously reported from other developing countries [13, 22, 43]. This mortality rate is however lower than those reported from developed countries [44]. The high mortality rates in this study were attributed to general complications post-operatively. In agreement with several studies the most common presentation symptoms in this study were severe abdominal pains and abdominal distension [10, 19, 22, 30, 36].

It is pertinent to note the limitations of this study. Information was obtained retrospectively, introducing the potential of incomplete data which might have introduced some bias in the findings. Its retrospectively nature also makes it difficult to establish causality. Despite the limitations, this study has made available data on TIP from a resource-constrained country that can guide healthcare providers in the prevention, treatment and management of TIP in developing countries.

Conclusion

The prevalence rate of TIP was 43.3% among the study patients and higher among males and those aged 10-20 years. The role of prevention, early reporting, and detection coupled with appropriate management cannot be overemphasized.

References

serotype Typhi infections in low and medium human development index countries, 1984–2005. *Epidemiology and infection* 2008; 136:436-448.

- Crump JA, Youssef FG, Luby SP, Wasfy MO, Rangel JM, Taalat M, Oun SA, Mahoney FJ. Estimating the incidence of typhoid fever and other febrile illnesses in developing countries. *Emerging infectious diseases* 2003; 9:539.
- Srikantiah P, Girgis FY, Luby SP, Jennings G, Wasfy MO, Crump JA, Hoekstra RM, Anwer M, Mahoney FJ. Population-based surveillance of typhoid fever in Egypt. *The American journal of tropical medicine and hygiene* 2006; 74:114-119.
- Chalya PL, Mabula JB, Koy M, Kataraihya JB, Jaka H, Mshana SE, Mirambo M, Mchembe MD, Giiti G, Gilyoma JM. Typhoid intestinal perforations at a University teaching hospital in Northwestern Tanzania: A surgical experience of 104 cases in a resource-limited setting. World J Emerg Surg 2012; 7.

- 11. Wain J, Hosoglu S. The laboratory diagnosis of enteric fever. *Journal of infection in developing countries* 2008; 2.
- 12. Eustache JM, Kreis Jr DJ. Typhoid perforation of the intestine. *Archives of surgery* 1983; 118:1269.
- Van Basten J, Stockenbrügger R. Typhoid perforation. A review of the literature since 1960. *Tropical and geographical medicine* 1993; 46:336-339.
- Akgun Y, Bac B, Boylu S, Aban N, Tacyildiz I. Typhoid enteric perforation. *British journal of surgery* 1995; 82:1512-1515.
- 15. Mock CN, Amaral J, Visser LE. Improvement in survival from typhoid ileal perforation. Results of 221 operative cases. *Annals of surgery* 1992; 215:244.
- 16. Talwar S, Sharma RK, Mittal DK, Prasad P. Typhoid enteric perforation. *Australian and New Zealand journal of surgery* 1997; 67:351-353.
- 17. Bhutta ZA. Current concepts in the diagnosis and treatment of typhoid fever. *BMJ: British Medical Journal* 2006; 333:78.
- Otegbayo J, Daramola O, Onyegbutulem H, Balogun W, Oguntoye O. Retrospective analysis of typhoid fever in a tropical tertiary health facility. *Tropical* gastroenterology: official journal of the Digestive Diseases Foundation 2001; 23:9-12.
- 19. Ugwu B, Yiltok S, Kidmas A, Opaluwa A. Typhoid intestinal perforation in north central Nigeria. *West African journal of medicine* 2005; 24:1-6.
- 20. Ameh EA. Typhoid ileal perforation in children: a scourge in developing countries. *Annals of Tropical Paediatrics: International Child Health* 1999; 19:267-272.
- 21. Meier DE, Tarpley JL. Typhoid intestinal perforations in Nigerian children. *World journal of surgery* 1998; 22:319-323.
- 22. Agbakwuru E, Adesunkanmi A, Fadiora S, Olayinka O, Aderonmu A, Ogundoyin O. A review of typhoid perforation in a rural African hospital. *West African journal of medicine* 2003; 22:22-25.
- 23. Rowe B, Ward LR, Threlfall EJ. Multidrug-resistant Salmonella typhi: a worldwide epidemic. *Clinical Infectious Diseases* 1997; 24:S106-S109.
- 24. Parry EHO: *Typhoid fever. In: Parry E.H.O. (ed). Principles of medicine in Africa.* Oxford: Oxford University Press; 1984.
- 25. Archampong E. Typhoid ileal perforations: why such mortalities? *British journal of surgery* 1976; 63:317-321.
- Ajao O. Typhoid perforation: factors affecting mortality and morbidity. *International surgery* 1981; 67:317-319.
- 27. Adesunkanmi A, Ajao O. The prognostic factors in typhoid ileal perforation: a prospective study of 50 patients. *Journal of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh* 1997; 42:395-399.
- Na'aya H, Eni U, Chama C. Typhoid perforation in Maiduguri, Nigeria. Annals of African Medicine, 2004; 3(2): 69-72
- 29. Chang YT, Lin JY, Huang YS. Typhoid colonic perforation in childhood: a ten-year experience. *World journal of surgery* 2006; 30:242-247.

- Edino ST, Yakubu AA, Mohammed AZ, Abubakar IS. Prognostic factors in typhoid ileal perforation: a prospective study of 53 cases. *Journal of the National Medical Association* 2007; 99:1042.
- 31. Tade A, Olateju S, Osinupebi O, Salami B: Typhoid Intestinal Perforations in a Tropical Tertiary Health Facility: A Prospective Study. *East and Central African Journal of Surgery* 2011; 16:72-79.
- 32. Rahman G, Abubakar A, Johnson AB, Adeniran J. Typhoid ileal perforation in Nigerian children: an analysis of 106 operative cases. *Pediatric surgery international* 2001; 17:628-630.
- 33. Neil KP, Sodha SV, Lukwago L, Shikanga O, Mikoleit M, Simington SD, Mukobi P, Balinandi S, Majalija S, Ayers J. A large outbreak of typhoid fever associated with a high rate of intestinal perforation in Kasese District, Uganda, 2008–2009. *Clinical Infectious Diseases* 2012; 54:1091-1099.
- 34. Van Der Werf T, Cameron F. Typhoid perforations of the ileum. A review of 59 cases, seen at Agogo Hospital, Ghana, between 1982 and 1987. *Tropical and geographical medicine* 1990; 42:330-336.
- 35. Adeloye A. Typhoid fever. In: Adeloye A (ed). Davey's companion to surgery in Africa. *Edinburgh: Churchill Livingstone* 1987; 309-16.
- 36. Kouame J, Kouadio L, Turquin H. Typhoid ileal perforation. Surgical experience of 64 cases. *Acta chirurgica Belgica* 2004; 445-447.
- 37. Santillana M. Surgical complications of typhoid fever: enteric perforation. *World journal of surgery* 1991; 15:170-175.
- Vyas I, Purohit M, Patel H. Simultaneous typhoid ileal perforation in identical twin brothers. *The British journal of clinical practice* 1980; 34:256-257.
- 39. Butler T, Knight J, Nath SK, Speelman P, Roy SK, Azad M. Typhoid fever complicated by intestinal perforation: a persisting fatal disease requiring surgical management. *Review of Infectious Diseases* 1985; 7:244-256.
- 40. Abantanga F, Wiafe-Addai B: Postoperative complications after surgery for typhoid perforation in children in Ghana. *Pediatric surgery international* 1998; 14:55-58.
- 41. Önen A, Dokucu A, Çiğdem M, Öztürk H, Otçu S, Yücesan S. Factors effecting morbidity in typhoid intestinal perforation in children. *Pediatric surgery international* 2002; 18:696-700.
- 42. Uba AF, Chirdan LB, Ituen AM, Mohammed AM: Typhoid intestinal perforation in children: a continuing scourge in a developing country. *Pediatric surgery international* 2007; 23:33-39.
- 43. Kayabali I, Gökçora I, Kayabali M. A contemporary evaluation of enteric perforations in typhoid fever: analysis of 257 cases. *International surgery* 1989; 75:96-100.
- 44. Carmeli Y, Raz R, Schapiro JM, Alkan M. Typhoid fever in Ethiopian immigrants to Israel and nativeborn Israelis: a comparative study. *Clinical Infectious Diseases* 1993; 16:213-215.

*All correspondences to: Dr. Abass Alhassan, Department of Human Biology, School of Medicine and Health Science, University for Development Studies, Tamale, Ghana. E-mail ID: abassalhassan82@gmail.com