

Review

Diagnosis, Treatment, and Prevention of Lyme Disease, Human Granulocytic Anaplasmosis, and Babesiosis

A Review

Edgar Sanchez, MD; Edouard Vannier, PhD; Gary P. Wormser, MD; Linden T. Hu, MD

IMPORTANCE Lyme disease, human granulocytic anaplasmosis (HGA), and babesiosis are emerging tick-borne infections.

OBJECTIVE To provide an update on diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of tick-borne infections.

EVIDENCE REVIEW Search of PubMed and Scopus for articles on diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of tick-borne infections published in English from January 2005 through December 2015.

FINDINGS The search yielded 3550 articles for diagnosis and treatment and 752 articles for prevention. Of these articles, 361 were reviewed in depth. Evidence supports the use of US Food and Drug Administration–approved serologic tests, such as an enzyme immunoassay (EIA), followed by Western blot testing, to diagnose extracutaneous manifestations of Lyme disease. Microscopy and polymerase chain reaction assay of blood specimens are used to diagnose active HGA and babesiosis. The efficacy of oral doxycycline, amoxicillin, and cefuroxime axetil for treating Lyme disease has been established in multiple trials. Ceftriaxone is recommended when parenteral antibiotic therapy is recommended. Multiple trials have shown efficacy for a 10-day course of oral doxycycline for treatment of erythema migrans and for a 14-day course for treatment of early neurologic Lyme disease in ambulatory patients. Evidence indicates that a 10-day course of oral doxycycline is effective for HGA and that a 7- to 10-day course of azithromycin plus atovaquone is effective for mild babesiosis. Based on multiple case reports, a 7- to 10-day course of clindamycin plus quinine is often used to treat severe babesiosis. A recent study supports a minimum of 6 weeks of antibiotics for highly immunocompromised patients with babesiosis, with no parasites detected on blood smear for at least the final 2 weeks of treatment.

CONCLUSIONS AND RELEVANCE Evidence is evolving regarding the diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of Lyme disease, HGA, and babesiosis. Recent evidence supports treating patients with erythema migrans for no longer than 10 days when doxycycline is used and prescription of a 14-day course of oral doxycycline for early neurologic Lyme disease in ambulatory patients. The duration of antimicrobial therapy for babesiosis in severely immunocompromised patients should be extended to 6 weeks or longer.

JAMA. 2016;315(16):1767-1777. doi:10.1001/jama.2016.2884

[+ Author Audio Interview at jama.com](#)

[← Related article page 1780](#)

[+ Supplemental content at jama.com](#)

[+ CME Quiz at jamanetworkcme.com](#)

Author Affiliations: Division of Geographic Medicine and Infectious Diseases, Tufts Medical Center, Boston, Massachusetts (Sanchez, Vannier); Division of Infectious Diseases, New York Medical College, Valhalla, New York (Wormser); Department of Molecular Biology and Microbiology, Tufts University School of Medicine, Boston, Massachusetts (Hu).

Corresponding Author: Linden T. Hu, MD, Department of Molecular Biology and Microbiology, Tufts University School of Medicine, 136 Harrison Ave, Boston, MA 02111 (linden.hu@tufts.edu).

Section Editors: Edward Livingston, MD, Deputy Editor, and Mary McGrae McDermott, MD, Senior Editor.

The *Ixodes scapularis* tick is responsible for transmission of at least 7 human pathogens in the United States (Figure 1). Three of these accounted for the majority of cases of *Ixodes*-transmitted diseases in 2015²: *Borrelia burgdorferi*, accounting for approximately 34 000 confirmed and probable reported cases of Lyme disease; *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, for approximately 2600 reported cases of human granulocytic anaplasmosis (HGA); and *Babesia microti*, for approximately 1700 reported cases of babesiosis. This review summarizes current evidence regarding the diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of these 3 infections.

Society of America (IDSA) guidelines report in November 2006.³ At least 2 authors reviewed abstracts of these publications. Any article selected by at least 1 author was reviewed in detail. Recommendations were based on the quality of the studies (randomized trials received the highest priority, and case reports received the lowest priority) and the preponderance of evidence from multiple sources.

Recommendations were independently graded by at least 2 authors using the American Heart Association scoring system⁴ (eTable in the Supplement) and then reviewed and agreed on by all authors. Any discrepancies in grading were resolved by discussion and majority opinion. Scores are reported as (class-level of evidence).

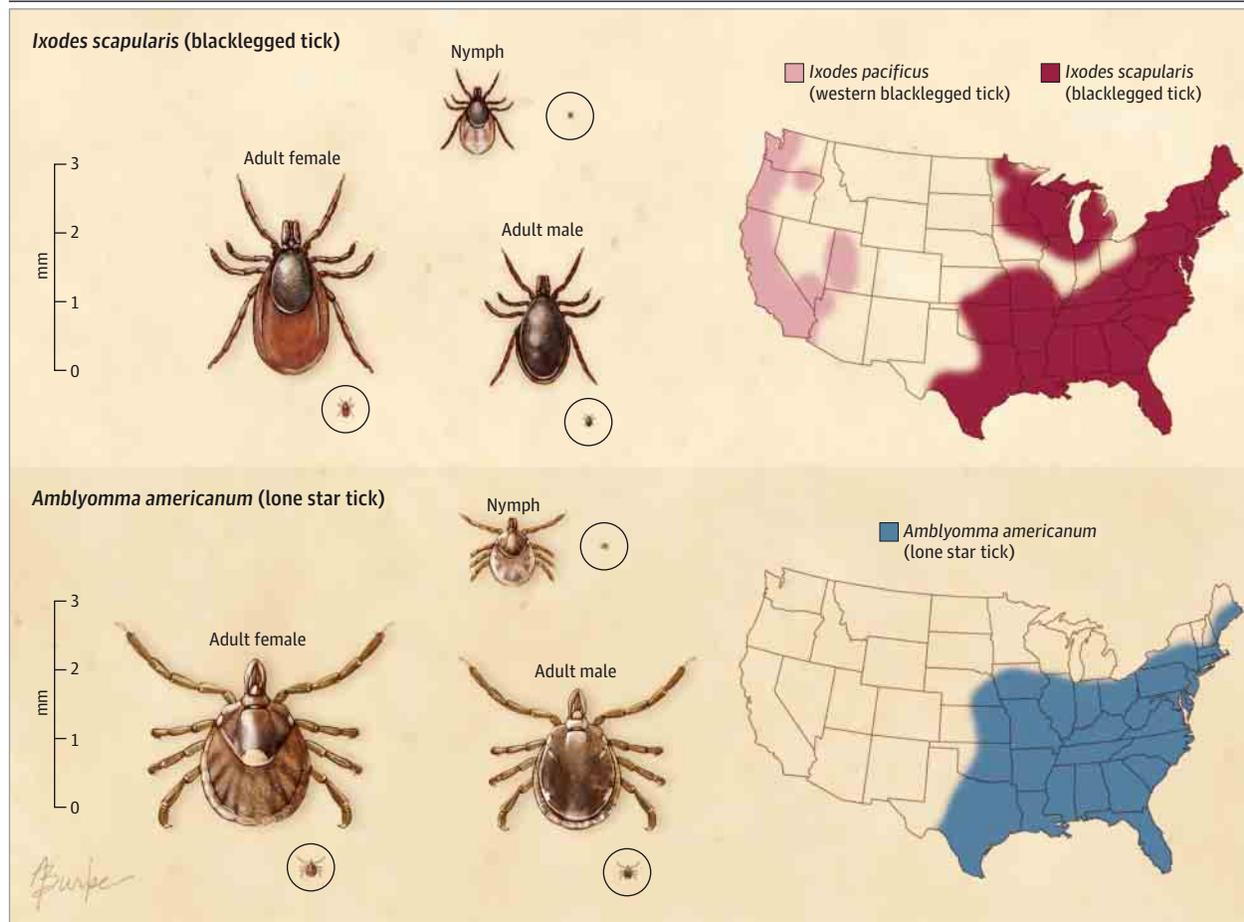
Methods

We searched PubMed and Scopus for articles published in English from January 2005 through December 2015 that pertained to the diagnosis, treatment, or prevention of Lyme disease, HGA, and babesiosis (eFigure in the Supplement). In doing so, we captured articles published shortly prior to, and since, the Infectious Diseases

Results

The searches generated 3550 articles related to diagnosis and treatment and 752 articles related to prevention. Of these articles, 361 were selected for detailed review (eFigure in the Supplement).

Figure 1. *Ixodes* and *Amblyomma americanum* Ticks and Their Geographic Distributions in the United States



Top, *Ixodes scapularis* nymphal and adult ticks (ticks in black circles are shown at actual size). The nymphs and adult females can transmit *Borrelia burgdorferi*, *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, and *Babesia microti*; adult males may attach but do not feed and thus do not transmit these pathogens. Bottom, *Amblyomma americanum* nymphal and adult ticks linked to southern tick-associated rash

illness (STARI) (ticks in black circles are shown at actual size). As shown on the right, the geographic distributions of *I scapularis* and *A americanum* in the United States overlap, with the exception of the upper Midwest. *Borrelia burgdorferi* is also transmitted by *Ixodes pacificus* ticks found along the Pacific Coast. Adapted from Tibbles et al.¹

Diagnosis

Lyme Disease

The most common and earliest clinical manifestation of Lyme disease is a skin lesion called erythema migrans, which is present in 70% to 80% of patients.⁵ Erythema migrans typically occurs within 1 to 2 weeks following a tick bite. Other relatively common clinical features include early neurologic Lyme disease (10%-15%), myopericarditis (1%-2%), and Lyme arthritis (up to 30% per Centers for Disease Control and Prevention surveillance but much lower in other studies^{6,7}). Early neurologic Lyme disease presents with facial nerve palsy, lymphocytic meningitis, and radiculopathy⁸; myopericarditis typically presents with varying forms of heart block.⁹ Both cardiac and early neurologic Lyme disease usually occur within weeks to a couple of months after the tick bite. Lyme arthritis is a migratory monoarticular or pauciarticular arthritis of large joints and is the hallmark of late Lyme disease, occurring months (on average >6 months) following the tick bite.¹⁰ Diagnosis of Lyme disease is typically made by recognition of the erythema migrans skin lesion, serologic testing to identify antibodies against *B burgdorferi* antigens in patients with extracutaneous manifestations of Lyme disease such as those described above, or both.

Clinical Diagnosis

Diagnosis of erythema migrans is made by visual inspection of an expanding, erythematous skin lesion, 5 cm or larger in diameter, that develops at the site of the tick bite (Figure 2). These lesions may be homogeneous in color or have either central clearing or a target-like appearance. Antibodies are not consistently detectable in patients with erythema migrans (<40% sensitivity).¹¹ The differential diagnosis includes a number of skin conditions, such as tinea and nummular eczema.¹ One condition that can be clinically indistinguishable is southern tick-associated rash illness (STARI), a disease of unknown etiology that also follows a tick bite but is from the bite of the *Amblyomma americanum* tick.¹²⁻¹⁶ Although there is overlap in the geographic distributions of STARI and Lyme disease (Figure 1), STARI cases are uncommon in most Lyme disease–endemic areas. All patients diagnosed with erythema migrans in Lyme disease–endemic areas should be presumed to have Lyme disease, unless there is definitive identification of *A americanum* as the biting tick (IIa-C).¹⁷⁻²¹

None of the extracutaneous manifestations is sufficiently specific for a definitive clinical diagnosis (IIa-C), unless there is a concomitant erythema migrans skin lesion.

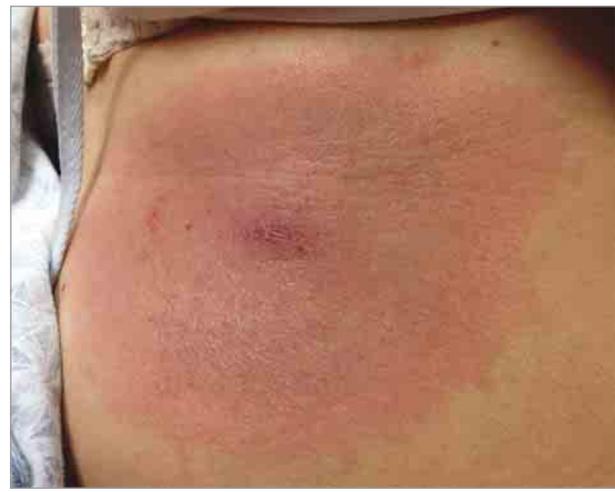
Laboratory Testing

Serologic Testing

Serologic testing is the mainstay of laboratory diagnosis for patients with extracutaneous manifestations of Lyme disease (Table 1). Seropositivity in a patient for whom there are objective findings of extracutaneous Lyme disease is sufficient to make a presumptive diagnosis.

Current recommendations are for 2-step testing that typically consists of an enzyme immunoassay (EIA) followed, if the EIA is reactive, by Western blot testing.³ Most EIAs use a whole-cell sonicate of *B burgdorferi* as antigen. For patients with an illness of 4 weeks or less duration whose first-step EIA is reactive, separate IgM and IgG Western blot tests are recommended as second-step testing.³ If symptoms have been present for more than 4 weeks, IgG Western blot alone is recommended, as it is highly sensitive for Lyme disease of more than 4 weeks' duration (I-B).^{3,27} To avoid loss of specificity, the following practices should be avoided (all III-B): using assays not approved by

Figure 2. Erythema Migrans Skin Lesion at the Site of a Tick Bite on the Abdomen of a Patient



The lesion is circular and homogeneous, a pattern more common than the well-recognized "bull's-eye" appearance. The primary erythema migrans lesion typically is at least 5 cm in diameter. Photograph courtesy of Roger Clark, DO, Faulkner Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts.

the US Food and Drug Administration; omitting the first-step assay; performing Western blot testing despite a negative first-step test; and using IgM Western blots to confirm the diagnosis in a patient with longstanding symptoms and a negative IgG Western blot.²⁸ In addition, use of unconventional criteria for Western blot interpretation can substantially degrade the performance of these tests (III-B).²⁹

Serologic testing is highly sensitive for patients with neurologic or cardiac manifestations at time of presentation ($\geq 80\%$).³⁰ If initial testing is negative but early neurologic or cardiac Lyme disease remains suspected, serologic testing should be repeated in 2 to 4 weeks (IIa-C).

Attempts have been made to simplify and improve the accuracy of the 2-step testing strategy while also minimizing time and costs. For example, the use of "striped" Western blots in which purified antigens are placed at defined locations on a strip ensures a greater standardization between test runs and allows objective quantification using densitometric scanning.³¹ Another approach has been to develop EIAs with fewer cross-reactive antigens. For example, the C6 peptide EIA, which uses a highly invariant region of the *B burgdorferi* VlsE (variable major protein-like sequence, expressed) protein, has greater specificity than most whole-cell sonicate-based EIAs.^{32,33} Although use of C6 as a stand-alone test is not routinely recommended owing to a small reduction in specificity compared with 2-step testing,^{33,34} C6 testing alone should be considered when patients are suspected to have acquired the disease in Europe. The rationale for this recommendation is that Western blots designed for use in the United States have relatively poor sensitivity for European species of Lyme *Borrelia* and that the C6 epitope is conserved across different species and strains, making it a useful diagnostic antigen in Europe, where most cases of Lyme disease are caused by *Borrelia garinii* and *Borrelia afzelii*^{35,36} (IIa-B). PepC10, an invariant epitope of *B burgdorferi* outer surface protein C, is another peptide antigen that has been approved by the US Food and Drug Administration for diagnosing Lyme disease and shows increased sensitivity in early disease.³⁷

Table 1. Diagnosis of Lyme Disease, Human Granulocytic Anaplasmosis, and Babesiosis

Disease	Manifestation	Diagnostic Approach	Additional Considerations
Lyme disease	Erythema migrans	Visual inspection of skin lesion ¹	Serology not recommended because sensitivity of seropositivity is <40% on acute-phase serum sample ¹¹
	Extracutaneous manifestations include but are not limited to facial nerve palsy, meningitis, radiculopathy, myopericarditis, arthritis	Serologic testing ²² : EIA followed by Western blot (IgM and IgG Western blots if ≤4 weeks of symptoms; IgG Western blot only if >4 weeks or for Lyme arthritis) ^a	In Lyme meningitis, consider testing CSF for intrathecal borrelial antibody production and for borrelial DNA ⁸ ; in Lyme arthritis, consider testing synovial fluid for borrelial DNA ²³
HGA	Fever, typically with leukopenia, thrombocytopenia, and/or increased transaminases	Blood smear ²⁴ ; buffy coat smear; PCR for <i>Anaplasma phagocytophilum</i> DNA	Serology not routinely recommended except for retrospective diagnosis in treated patients. Sensitivity of seropositivity <50% on acute-phase serum sample and seropositivity alone does not establish the presence of active infection ²⁵ . Failure to defervesce within 48 h of initiation of doxycycline is evidence against the diagnosis ³
Babesiosis	Fever, typically with anemia, thrombocytopenia, elevated lactate dehydrogenase, hyperbilirubinemia, and/or increased transaminases	Blood smear preferred ²⁶ ; PCR for <i>Babesia microti</i> DNA is an alternative	Serologic testing for IgM/IgG antibodies by indirect immunofluorescent assay can be performed, but seropositivity per se does not indicate active infection ²⁶

Abbreviations: CSF, cerebrospinal fluid; EIA, enzyme immunoassay; HGA, human granulocytic anaplasmosis; PCR, polymerase chain reaction.

^a See text for potential alternative testing strategies under consideration.

Figure 3. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* Bacteria in Human Neutrophils



Anaplasma phagocytophilum microcolonies (often called morulae) are observed within a neutrophil on a Giemsa-stained buffy coat smear (original magnification ×1000). Arrowheads indicate the morulae. Micrograph courtesy of Maria Aguero-Rosenfeld, MD, New York University, New York, New York.

Testing strategies that omit the IgM Western blot are being developed to avoid its recognized potential for false-positive test results.²⁸ One approach is to incorporate the VlsE band into the IgG Western blot, because IgG reactivity to this antigen is highly specific and often obtained in early infection.³¹ Another approach is to use an EIA with 1 or several highly specific antigens (eg, C6 or VlsE/PepC10) as the second-step test instead of the Western blot.³⁸⁻⁴⁰ In several studies, a whole-cell sonicate-based EIA followed by the C6 EIA has shown a specificity similar to that of traditional 2-step testing (Ila-B).^{38,40} No serologic diagnostic approach is 100% specific, reinforcing current recommendations to not test patients with a low clinical pretest probability of Lyme disease, such as those who lack objective findings and have only nonspecific symptoms such as fatigue (I-B).^{3,41,42} Serologic tests also have a poor predictive value in geographic areas with a low prevalence of disease.⁴³

Laboratory Testing Other Than Serology

Central nervous system involvement can be established by testing cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) for intrathecal borrelial antibody production, borrelial DNA, or both, but these tests have variable or poor sensitivity such that their negative predictive value may be low (Ila-B).^{44,45} CXCL13 in

CSF has been proposed as a marker of neurologic Lyme disease, but sensitivity (88%-100%) and specificity (63%-98%) are not consistently high enough to recommend its routine use for clinical diagnosis (Iib-B).⁴⁶⁻⁴⁹ Another limiting factor of the CXCL13 assay is that CSF samples must be acquired before starting antibiotic therapy.

The most common application of polymerase chain reaction (PCR) in Lyme disease diagnosis is for establishing a diagnosis of Lyme arthritis. PCR assay of synovial fluid has a greater than 75% sensitivity in IgG-seropositive patients with Lyme arthritis.²³

Culture of *Borrelia* species from blood, skin biopsies, CSF, and synovial fluid is difficult and has poor sensitivity.³⁰ The following tests are not recommended for diagnosing Lyme disease: certain novel techniques to culture *Borrelia* in blood,^{50,51} CD57 cell numbers in blood,^{52,53} borrelial antibody testing of CSF without correcting for passive diffusion of antibody present in blood,⁵⁴ *Borrelia* antibody testing of synovial fluid,⁵⁵ tests of cellular immunity,⁵⁶ and urine antigen testing (all III-B).⁵⁷

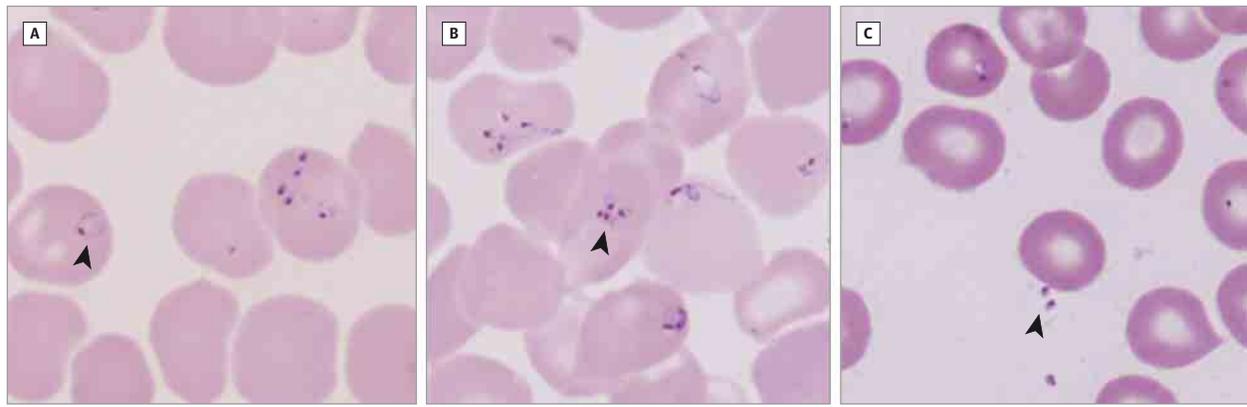
Human Granulocytic Anaplasmosis

HGA occurs in all Lyme disease-endemic areas in the United States and is caused by *A phagocytophilum*, a rickettsial bacterium. The diagnosis of HGA should be considered for a patient with tick exposure in an endemic area who presents with unexplained nonspecific symptoms such as fever, chills, headache, and myalgias, especially in the setting of abnormal laboratory features, which may include leukopenia, thrombocytopenia, and/or mild elevation of liver enzyme levels.⁵⁸⁻⁶⁰

Anaplasma phagocytophilum infection can be diagnosed by microscopic identification of morulae in neutrophils on blood smear or in buffy coat (Figure 3), by PCR assay of blood, and by serologic testing (acute plus convalescent titers, as acute serology alone is too insensitive) (all I-B) (Table 1). Antibody titers typically reach at least 1:640 during acute infection.²⁵ A recent study showed that both PCR and buffy coat examination for morulae have sensitivities in the range of 77% to 80% for patients who are culture positive for *A phagocytophilum*. Culture is available only as a research tool.⁵⁸

Babesiosis

Babesiosis, an infection caused by hemoprotozoan parasites of the genus *Babesia*, is prevalent in the Northeast and upper Midwest

Figure 4. *Babesia microti* Parasites in Human Red Blood Cells

A, *Babesia microti* trophozoites often appear as rings with 1 chromatin dot. Arrowhead indicates a classic ring form of babesia. B, Asexual division of the parasite yields up to 4 merozoites that can arrange in a tetrad, also known as a Maltese cross (arrowhead). Maltese crosses can be formed by *B microti*, *B duncani*, and *B divergens* in human red blood cells. C, After rupture of an

infected red blood cell, free merozoites (arrowhead) quickly seek to adhere and invade an intact red blood cell. Original magnification $\times 1000$; Giemsa stain. Micrographs courtesy of Rouette Hunter, BS, MT(ASCP), and Stephen Johnson, BS, from the Hematology Laboratory, Tufts Medical Center, Boston, Massachusetts.

regions of the United States.²⁶ In these regions, *B microti* is the etiologic agent and has a narrower geographic range than *B burgdorferi*.⁶¹ *Babesia duncani* has sporadically caused disease along the Pacific Coast (from northern California to Washington), whereas *Babesia divergens*-like organisms have been implicated in only 3 patients in the Midwest (Kentucky, Missouri) and the Northwest (Washington). Babesiosis is now a nationally reportable disease for 27 states. Most cases of babesiosis are tick transmitted; however, only *B microti* is transmitted by *I scapularis*.²⁶ Transfusion-transmitted babesiosis has increased in the past decade.⁶² Vertical transmission has also been reported.^{63,64}

Babesiosis should be considered in a patient with tick exposure in an endemic area who presents with unexplained nonspecific symptoms such as fever, often in conjunction with fatigue, chills, sweats, headache, myalgia, arthralgia, and/or anorexia, especially if laboratory features include thrombocytopenia, hemolytic anemia, and/or elevation of liver enzyme levels.^{3,26}

Diagnosis of active babesiosis is typically made by visualization of *Babesia* parasites on Giemsa- or Wright-stained thin blood smears (Table 1 and Figure 4) (I-B).^{3,26} Thick blood smears are not recommended because *B microti* and *B duncani* parasites are small organisms (diameter $< 3 \mu\text{m}$) that may be missed (III-C). Several real-time PCR assays are useful to detect low-grade *B microti* parasitemia in human blood and are more sensitive than blood smears. These assays have high diagnostic sensitivity and specificity, do not amplify DNA from the *Plasmodium* species that cause human malaria, and are designed to avoid cross-reactivity with *B duncani*.⁶⁵⁻⁶⁹ PCR should be considered early in the infection, when parasites are difficult to visualize on blood smears.²⁶ PCR should be used with caution when monitoring the response to therapy, because *B microti* DNA can be detected for weeks to months after parasites are no longer visualized on blood smears (IIb-B).^{67,68,70}

Serology can confirm the diagnosis of babesiosis (I-B) but cannot replace microscopy or PCR because *Babesia*-specific antibody may be absent or undetectable early in the course of illness and because antibody persists beyond resolution of infection.^{3,26} Antibody is detected in serum using an indirect immunofluorescence assay (IFA), but other

modalities of detection are under development.^{71,72} A positive IgM titer is only suggestive of infection and must be accompanied by a positive IgG titer.²⁶ IgG titers to *B microti* of 1:1024 or greater signify active or recent infection. The IFA should use antigens for the *Babesia* species relevant to the geographic area of the patient because of lack of cross-reactivity.^{73,74} The IFA that uses whole *B microti* antigen has a 88% to 96% sensitivity and a 90% to 100% specificity.⁷⁵ There have been too few cases of *B duncani* infection to validate an IFA.⁷⁴

Treatment

Lyme Disease

Suggested treatments for adult patients in the United States who present with the most common objective clinical manifestations of Lyme disease are shown in Table 2. The first-line antibiotics for treating Lyme disease are doxycycline, amoxicillin, and cefuroxime axetil orally and ceftriaxone intravenously (all I-A). Macrolides are considered second-line agents (IIa-A) reserved for patients unable to tolerate beta-lactams and doxycycline, owing to higher rates of treatment failure in some but not all studies.^{3,83-86}

Older treatment trials used a 20-day course of antibiotic therapy for erythema migrans,^{87,88} but more recent studies provide evidence that a 10-day course of doxycycline is highly effective and as effective as longer treatment durations (I-A).^{18,76,77} There is now stronger evidence that oral doxycycline is effective treatment for Lyme meningitis, cranial neuropathy, and radiculopathy.⁷⁸⁻⁸² In a prospective, randomized, double-blind study, Ljøstad et al⁷⁸ compared doxycycline (200 mg once daily orally) with ceftriaxone (2 g once daily intravenously) for 14 days in 102 participants from Norway with neurologic Lyme disease and found no treatment failure in either treatment group. The Lyme *Borrelia* species found in Europe do not strictly overlap with those found in the United States, but there are no data to suggest a differential response to antibiotics among Lyme *Borrelia* species. Based on these studies, oral doxycycline at the dose of 200 mg daily for adults given for 14 days can be considered first-line therapy for neurologic Lyme disease in Europe (I-A) and for ambulatory patients with early neurologic Lyme disease in the United States (IIa-C) (Table 2).

Table 2. Suggested Treatments for Adult Patients With the Most Common Clinical Manifestations of Lyme Disease in the United States

Manifestation	Antibiotic	Duration	Evidence Grade ^{a,b}
Erythema migrans	Doxycycline, 100 mg orally twice daily	10 d ^c	I-A
	Amoxicillin, 500 mg orally 3 times daily	14 d ^c	IIa-C
	Cefuroxime axetil, 500 mg orally twice daily	14 d ^c	IIa-C
Erythema migrans in a patient unable to take beta-lactams or tetracyclines	Azithromycin, 500 mg orally once daily	7-10 d	IIa-A
Lyme meningitis			
Ambulatory	Doxycycline, 100 mg orally twice daily or 200 mg once daily ^d	14 d ^c	IIa-C ^e
Hospitalized	Ceftriaxone, 2 g intravenously once daily	14 d ^{c,f}	I-B
Lyme cranial neuropathy or radiculopathy	Doxycycline, 100 mg orally twice daily or 200 mg once daily	14d ^{d,g}	IIa-B ^e
Lyme cranial neuropathy or radiculopathy in a patient unable to take tetracyclines	Amoxicillin, 500 mg orally 3 times daily	14d ^{c,g}	IIa-B
	Cefuroxime axetil, 500 mg orally twice daily	14d ^{c,g}	IIa-B
Cardiac Lyme disease			
Ambulatory	Same as for erythema migrans	14 d (range, 14-21 d)	IIa-C
Hospitalized	Ceftriaxone, 2 g intravenously once daily until stabilized or discharged Complete course with oral antibiotic recommended for erythema migrans	14 d (range, 14-21 d) ^f	IIa-C IIa-C
Lyme arthritis			
Initial	Doxycycline, 100 mg orally twice daily	28 d	IIa-B
	Amoxicillin, 500 mg orally 3 times daily	28 d	IIa-B
	Cefuroxime axetil, 500 mg orally twice daily	28 d	IIa-C
Persistent Lyme arthritis after first course of oral therapy	Re-treat using 1 of the above oral regimens	28 d	IIb-C
	Ceftriaxone, 2 g intravenously once daily	14-28 d	IIb-C

^a Grading pertains to the antibiotic at the specific dosage and duration. All listed antibiotics have activity against *Borrelia burgdorferi* (I-A).
^b See eTable in the Supplement for American Heart Association evidence-based scoring system.
^c Represents a change from the 2006 Infectious Diseases Society of America (IDSA) guidelines³ by virtue of elimination of a longer range in duration of therapy (of up to 21 days for erythema migrans and of up to 28 days for meningitis or radiculopathy).^{18,76,77}
^d Represents a change from the 2006 IDSA guidelines³ by suggesting oral doxycycline rather than parenteral antibiotic therapy (for meningitis or radiculopathy).⁷⁸⁻⁸²
^e For patients who acquire Lyme disease in Europe, this recommendation is I-A.
^f On hospital discharge, may complete the course of treatment with oral doxycycline for neurologic Lyme disease; for cardiac Lyme disease, may complete the course of therapy with any of the first-line oral regimens used for erythema migrans.
^g Treatment does not accelerate rate of recovery of facial palsy but is recommended to prevent other sequelae.

No new evidence was found to alter the existing antibiotic recommendations from IDSA for treatment of other extracutaneous manifestations of Lyme disease.³

Human Granulocytic Anaplasmosis

There is no new evidence to alter the existing IDSA recommendations for treatment of HGA.³ The IDSA guidelines state that all patients suspected of having HGA should receive empirical therapy with doxycycline for 10 days and do not need laboratory confirmation (Table 3) (I-B).⁹⁵ Response to doxycycline therapy for HGA is typically rapid and often seen after a single dose of antibiotic.⁹⁶ Failure to improve within 48 hours of initiation of doxycycline therapy should raise concern that the patient does not have HGA or has a coinfection that is not responsive to doxycycline, such as babesiosis.

Doxycycline is not considered safe in pregnancy. In the case of life-threatening HGA, however, use of doxycycline may be warranted.²⁴ A treatment period shorter than 10 days may be reasonable depending on the clinical response, but systematic studies are lacking. There have been reports of successful use of rifampin in treating HGA in pregnant women and young children, but data are limited (IIb-C, Table 3).^{97,98}

Babesiosis

Current guidelines recommend therapy for symptomatic patients only.³ Patients with mild to moderate babesiosis should be treated with a 7- to 10-day course of oral azithromycin combined with oral atovaquone (I-B) (Table 3). This recommendation is supported by

data from a prospective, nonblinded, randomized trial in 58 patients with non-life-threatening babesiosis caused by *B microti*.⁹⁹ In this trial, azithromycin plus atovaquone was not different from clindamycin plus quinine in resolving symptoms but was associated with fewer adverse effects. In addition, clearance of parasite DNA in blood, an indirect measure of parasitemia, did not differ significantly between the 2 regimens.⁹⁹

The IDSA guidelines for treating severe babesiosis recommend a 7- to 10-day course of intravenous clindamycin combined with oral quinine (I-C).³ This recommendation is based on expert opinion, as the efficacy and benefit-risk ratio of this regimen have not been addressed in a clinical trial. Because quinine therapy often is interrupted because of drug toxicity, consideration should be given to a regimen of intravenous azithromycin plus oral atovaquone when treating severe babesiosis in hospitalized patients (IIb-C). Some patients have been successfully treated with a combination of intravenous clindamycin and oral atovaquone,^{63,92,93} but the efficacy of this regimen, like those of most antibabesia drug regimens, has not been tested in a clinical trial (IIb-C).

Persistent or relapsing babesiosis often occurs in highly immunocompromised individuals, particularly in patients with B-cell lymphoma who are or were recently treated with rituximab.¹⁰⁰⁻¹⁰² Other risk factors have not been clearly defined but appear to include human immunodeficiency virus infection with low CD4 cell counts^{100,103} and immunosuppressive therapy for solid organ¹⁰¹ or stem cell¹⁰⁴ transplants. Evidence from a recent retrospective case-control study supports treating such highly immunocompromised patients

Table 3. Suggested Treatments for Adult Patients With Human Granulocytic Anaplasmosis or Babesiosis in the United States

Disease	Antibiotic(s)	Evidence Grade ^a	Alternative Option	Evidence Grade ^a
Human granulocytic anaplasmosis	Doxycycline, 100 mg orally or intravenously twice daily for 10 d	I-B	Rifampin, 300 mg orally twice daily for 10 d	IIB-C
Babesiosis				
Mild	Azithromycin, 500 mg orally on day 1 and 250 mg orally once daily from day 2 to days 7-10 plus atovaquone, 750 mg orally twice daily from day 1 to days 7-10	I-B		
Severe	Clindamycin, 300-600 mg intravenously 4 times daily plus quinine, 650 mg orally 3 to 4 times daily for 7-10 d	I-C ^{b,c,d}	Azithromycin, 500 mg intravenously once daily plus atovaquone, 750 mg orally twice daily for 7-10 d, or:	IIB-C ^{b,e}
			Clindamycin, 300-600 mg intravenously 4 times daily plus atovaquone, 750 mg orally twice daily for 7-10 d	IIB-C ^{b,c,d,f}
	Consider adjunctive exchange transfusion	Ila-C ^b	Consider adjunctive exchange transfusion	Ila-C ^b
In severely immunocompromised patients	Drug regimen(s) administered for at least 6 wk, including 2 wk with no parasites on blood smear See text for the various drug regimens	I-B ^g		

^a See eTable in the Supplement for American Heart Association evidenced-based scoring system.

^b Recommended for the treatment of severe babesiosis in hospitalized patients.

^c Quinidine may be used in lieu of quinine (when poorly tolerated or intravenous administration is desired) or atovaquone (when intravenous administration is desired), although efficacy data are scarce.⁸⁹ Quinidine requires cardiac monitoring, owing to the risk of QT interval prolongation and torsade de pointes.⁹⁰

^d Intravenous clindamycin may be replaced with oral clindamycin (600 mg administered 3 times per day) once the patient has improved.

^e This regimen was not included in the 2006 Infectious Diseases Society of

America (IDSA) guidelines³ but should be considered when intravenous administration is desired. Intravenous azithromycin may be replaced with oral azithromycin (500 mg per day) once the patient has improved. Atovaquone should not be replaced with intravenous quinidine because patients receiving both azithromycin and quinidine may be at increased risk of cardiac arrhythmias.^{90,91}

^f This regimen was not included in the 2006 IDSA guidelines³ but has been used successfully in several cases.^{63,92,93}

^g When treating highly immunocompromised patients, higher doses of azithromycin (600-1000 mg per day orally) should be considered.^{3,94}

for 6 weeks or longer, including negative blood smears for 2 weeks or longer prior to discontinuation (I-B).¹⁰⁰ Several antimicrobial regimens have been used, including 2-drug regimens such as azithromycin + atovaquone or clindamycin + atovaquone or 3-drug regimens such as atovaquone + azithromycin + clindamycin or atovaquone + clindamycin + artemisinin.^{100,101,105} Atovaquone/proguanil has been included in various drug regimens.^{101,103-105} No particular antibabesia drug regimen appears to be superior,¹⁰⁰ but systematic studies are lacking. Reducing or discontinuing immunosuppressive therapy is desirable. Higher doses of oral azithromycin (from 600 to 1000 mg per day) should be considered for severely immunocompromised patients (IIB-C),⁹⁴ because several cases of antibiotic resistance have developed with lower dosages.¹⁰¹

Partial or complete red blood cell exchange transfusion should be considered for patients with high-grade parasitemia ($\geq 10\%$), severe hemolysis, or pulmonary, renal, or hepatic compromise (Ila-C).³ However, there are no systematic studies on this therapeutic modality, nor are there data on the benefit and optimal use of red blood cell exchange vs whole blood or plasma exchange. A review of 24 cases of life-threatening babesiosis revealed that hemolysis is the most frequent indication for exchange transfusion in babesiosis.¹⁰⁶ This series, although limited in size, suggested that (1) early use of exchange transfusion may prevent organ dysfunction and possibly death, (2) a 90% reduction in parasitemia should be the minimally desired target of red blood cell exchange, and (3) this target can be achieved by exchanging with 2.5 times the patient red blood cell volume.¹⁰⁶

Splenic infarct and splenic rupture may complicate the course of babesiosis.¹⁰⁷ Patients with splenic infarct or rupture often experience low levels of parasitemia and do not present with the com-

plications typically associated with severe babesiosis.^{108,109} Non-surgical control of splenic rupture is preferred, particularly when the patient is at risk of recurrent exposure to *Babesia* species, because splenectomy predisposes to severe babesiosis.^{107,110}

Co-infections

Co-infections that include Lyme disease plus either HGA or babesiosis are well documented.⁶¹ The number of symptoms in patients with concurrent Lyme disease and babesiosis is greater than in patients with Lyme disease alone.^{111,112} The same observation has been reported for Lyme disease and HGA in some studies but not all.¹¹²⁻¹¹⁴ Co-infection should be considered for patients with Lyme disease who have fever for more than 48 hours while receiving antibiotic therapy or for those with unexplained leukopenia, thrombocytopenia, and/or anemia. Doxycycline may be included empirically in the treatment regimen for babesiosis when Lyme disease or HGA co-infection is suspected. When a co-infection has been documented, patients should receive therapies appropriate for the treatment of each infection (I-C).

Other Ixodes-Transmitted Infections

Borrelia miyamotoi, *Borrelia mayonii*, deer tick virus, and *Ehrlichia muris*-like agent are transmitted by the *I. scapularis* tick and are recognized as emerging human pathogens. *Borrelia miyamotoi* is most closely related to relapsing fever borrelia and causes an undifferentiated febrile illness that may include findings of increased liver enzyme levels, leukopenia/thrombocytopenia, and, in immunocompromised patients, chronic meningoencephalitis.¹¹⁵⁻¹¹⁹ *Borrelia miyamotoi* can be diagnosed by detection of antibody to the GlpQ protein or PCR amplification of the *glpQ* gene, which is not present

Box. Take-Home Messages**Lyme Disease**

- Erythema migrans is diagnosed based on visual inspection rather than laboratory testing
- Two-step serologic testing that consists of an enzyme immunoassay followed by supplemental Western blot testing is a sensitive and specific approach to diagnose extracutaneous manifestations of Lyme disease
- Most manifestations of Lyme disease can be successfully treated with oral doxycycline (100 mg twice daily for 10-14 days, except for arthritis, which has been traditionally treated for 28 days)

Human Granulocytic Anaplasmosis

- Buffy coat smear and polymerase chain reaction assay of blood are the preferred diagnostic modalities
- Doxycycline (100 mg orally twice daily) is a highly effective therapy

Babesiosis

- Thin blood smear examination and polymerase chain reaction assay are the preferred diagnostic modalities
- Azithromycin (500 mg orally on day 1, then 250 mg orally once daily) plus atovaquone (750 mg orally twice daily) should be used to treat patients with mild babesiosis
- Clindamycin (300-600 mg intravenously 4 times daily) plus quinine (650 mg orally 3 to 4 times daily) is recommended for patients with severe babesiosis
- Highly immunocompromised patients require at least 6 weeks of therapy, with negative blood smears for at least 2 weeks prior to discontinuation

in *B burgdorferi*.¹¹⁹⁻¹²¹ The first-line antibiotics used to treat erythema migrans appear effective against *B miyamotoi*,^{115,119} but no systematic study has been carried out. A new Lyme *Borrelia* species, *B mayonii*, has been reported in the Midwestern United States as causing a Lyme disease–like illness.¹²² Criteria for diagnosis and appropriate treatment have not been definitively determined but are likely to be similar to those for *B burgdorferi*. Deer tick virus is a discrete subtype of Powassan virus that can cause a severe meningoencephalitis, although there is likely a spectrum of severity from asymptomatic to severe.¹²³ Diagnosis is made by serologic testing, PCR, or both.^{124,125} Treatment is supportive only. The *E muris*–like agent has only been reported in Minnesota and Wisconsin.¹²⁶ It also causes an undifferentiated febrile illness that can be associated with increased liver enzyme levels and cytopenias. Diagnosis is typically made by PCR on a blood specimen.¹²⁵ Serology can cross react with *Ehrlichia chaffeensis* but not *A phagocytophilum*. Treatment with doxycycline appears effective.¹²⁵ Diagnostic testing for each of these pathogens is performed by only a few specialized laboratories.

Disease Prevention

There are no available human vaccines for Lyme disease, HGA, or babesiosis. A single 200-mg prophylactic dose of doxycycline following a tick bite was 87% effective in preventing the development of erythema migrans at the bite site,¹²⁷ but the confidence interval surrounding this efficacy rate was wide. Prophylaxis is only recommended when an *Ixodes* tick from a Lyme disease–endemic area has been attached for 36 hours or longer and prophylaxis can be started within 72 hours.³ The effect of single-dose prophylaxis with doxycycline on other *I scapularis*–transmitted infections is unknown.

Current recommendations to reduce risk of transmission include daily body checks for ticks, use of tick repellents containing DEET, use of clothing impregnated with acaricides such as permethrin, and minimizing skin exposure to ticks.¹²⁸ Bathing or showering within 2 hours of tick exposure helps prevent attachment of ticks and reduces the odds of contracting Lyme disease, as does use of protective clothing.¹²⁹ Tick checks and use of tick repellents have yielded inconsistent results,^{129,130} but adherence to these measures was not assessed, and failures may be attributable to lack of full adherence to preventive measures during exposures. Placing clothes in a dryer for up to 1 hour effectively kills ticks¹³¹ but has not been evaluated for reduction of Lyme disease cases. These interventions have minimal potential risks, so although they may have limited benefit, they can be recommended.

Modifications of the home environment have not clearly been shown to affect transmission risk. Spraying pesticides around the home effectively reduces tick populations but is not associated with the incidence of Lyme disease.^{129,132} This discrepancy may be attributable to risks of exposure away from home. Alternatively, the decrease in tick numbers, while large, may need to be even larger to reduce risk of tick-borne diseases. Targeted application of acaricides to mice or deer has yielded mixed results¹³³⁻¹³⁶ or, in the case of the 4-poster device (a feeding station designed to apply acaricides), has raised concerns about the spread of other diseases such as chronic wasting disease in deer. Altering landscape characteristics by removing leaf litter or having a barrier to adjacent wooded areas has not consistently reduced the incidence of Lyme disease.¹²⁹

Conclusions

Evidence is evolving regarding the diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of Lyme disease, HGA, and babesiosis. Important considerations for clinicians are summarized in the **Box**. Recent evidence supports treating patients with erythema migrans for no longer than 10 days when doxycycline is used and prescription of a 14-day course of oral doxycycline for early neurologic Lyme disease in ambulatory patients. The duration of antimicrobial therapy for babesiosis in severely immunocompromised patients should be extended to 6 weeks or longer.

ARTICLE INFORMATION

Author Contributions: Dr Hu had full access to all of the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

Study concept and design: All authors.

Acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data: All authors.

Drafting of the manuscript: All authors.

Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: All authors.

Administrative, technical, or material support: Sanchez.

Study supervision: Hu.

Conflict of Interest Disclosures: All authors have completed and submitted the ICMJE Form for Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest. Dr Sanchez reported being supported by grant

T32AI055412. Dr Vannier reported owning stock in Eli Lilly, Pfizer, and GlaxoSmithKline and receiving grant support from The Gordon and Lura Gund Foundation and the Dorothy Egan Harrison Foundation. Dr Wormser reported receiving research grants from Immunetics Inc, Institute for Systems Biology, Rarecyte Inc, and bioMérieux SA; owning equity in Abbott; serving as an expert witness in malpractice cases involving Lyme disease

and babesiosis; serving as an unpaid board member of the American Lyme Disease Foundation; and serving as a consultant to Baxter for Lyme disease vaccine development. Dr Hu reported receiving research funding from Massbiologics at the University of Massachusetts Medical School; working as a consultant for Abzyme; and being supported by National Institutes of Health grants U01AI109656, R21AI111317, R21AI103905, and R42AI078631 and by the Steven and Alexandra Cohen Foundation.

Submissions: We encourage authors to submit papers for consideration as a Review. Please contact Edward Livingston, MD, at Edward.livingston@jamanetwork.org or Mary McGrae McDermott, MD, at mdm608@northwestern.edu.

REFERENCES

- Tibbles CD, Edlow JA. Does this patient have erythema migrans? *JAMA*. 2007;297(23):2617-2627.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Notifiable diseases and mortality tables. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep*. 2016;64:ND-923-ND-940. http://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/preview/mmwrhtml/mm6452md.htm?s_cid=mm6452md_w. Accessed April 4, 2016.
- Wormser GP, Dattwyler RJ, Shapiro ED, et al. The clinical assessment, treatment, and prevention of Lyme disease, human granulocytic anaplasmosis, and babesiosis: clinical practice guidelines by the Infectious Diseases Society of America. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2006;43(9):1089-1134.
- Goff DC Jr, Lloyd-Jones DM, Bennett G, et al; American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines. 2013 ACC/AHA guideline on the assessment of cardiovascular risk: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2014;63(25, pt B):2935-2959.
- Steere AC. Lyme disease. *N Engl J Med*. 2001;345(2):115-125.
- Steere AC, Sikand VK, Meurice F, et al; Lyme Disease Vaccine Study Group. Vaccination against Lyme disease with recombinant *Borrelia burgdorferi* outer-surface lipoprotein A with adjuvant. *N Engl J Med*. 1998;339(4):209-215.
- Wormser JP, McKenna D, Nadelman RB, Nowakowski J, Weinstein A. Lyme disease in children. *N Engl J Med*. 1997;336(15):1107.
- Halperin JJ. Nervous system Lyme disease. *Infect Dis Clin North Am*. 2015;29(2):241-253.
- Forrester JD, Meiman J, Mullins J, et al; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Notes from the field: update on Lyme carditis, groups at high risk, and frequency of associated sudden cardiac death—United States. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep*. 2014;63(43):982-983.
- Arvikar SL, Steere AC. Diagnosis and treatment of Lyme arthritis. *Infect Dis Clin North Am*. 2015;29(2):269-280.
- Wormser GP, Nowakowski J, Nadelman RB, Visintainer P, Levin A, Aguero-Rosenfeld ME. Impact of clinical variables on *Borrelia burgdorferi*-specific antibody seropositivity in acute-phase sera from patients in North America with culture-confirmed early Lyme disease. *Clin Vaccine Immunol*. 2008;15(10):1519-1522.
- Herman-Giddens ME. Southern tick-associated rash illness: further considerations. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2012;54(6):887-888.
- Blanton L, Keith B, Brzezinski W. Southern tick-associated rash illness: erythema migrans is not always Lyme disease. *South Med J*. 2008;101(7):759-760.
- Feder HM Jr, Hoss DM, Zemel L, Telford SR III, Dias F, Wormser GP. Southern tick-associated rash illness (STARI) in the North: STARI following a tick bite in Long Island, New York. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2011;53(10):e142-e146.
- Kirkland KB, Klimko TB, Meriwether RA, et al. Erythema migrans-like rash illness at a camp in North Carolina: a new tick-borne disease? *Arch Intern Med*. 1997;157(22):2635-2641.
- Wormser GP, Masters E, Liveris D, et al. Microbiologic evaluation of patients from Missouri with erythema migrans. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2005;40(3):423-428.
- Nizić T, Velikanje E, Ružič Sabljčić E, Arnež M. Solitary erythema migrans in children: comparison of treatment with clarithromycin and amoxicillin. *Wien Klin Wochenschr*. 2012;124(13-14):427-433.
- Stupica D, Lusa L, Ružič Sabljčić E, Cerar T, Strle F. Treatment of erythema migrans with doxycycline for 10 days versus 15 days. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2012;55(3):343-350.
- Aucott J, Morrison C, Munoz B, Rowe PC, Schwarzwalder A, West SK. Diagnostic challenges of early Lyme disease: lessons from a community case series. *BMC Infect Dis*. 2009;9:79.
- Massarotti EM, Luger SW, Rahn DW, et al. Treatment of early Lyme disease. *Am J Med*. 1992;92(4):396-403.
- Dattwyler RJ, Volkman DJ, Conaty SM, Platkin SP, Luft BJ. Amoxicillin plus probenecid versus doxycycline for treatment of erythema migrans borreliosis. *Lancet*. 1990;336(8728):1404-1406.
- Johnson BJB. Laboratory diagnostic testing for *Borrelia burgdorferi* infection. In: Halperin JJ, ed. *Lyme Disease: An Evidence-based Approach*. Cambridge, MA: CABI; 2011:73-88.
- Nocton JJ, Dressler F, Rutledge BJ, Rys PN, Persing DH, Steere AC. Detection of *Borrelia burgdorferi* DNA by polymerase chain reaction in synovial fluid from patients with Lyme arthritis. *N Engl J Med*. 1994;330(4):229-234.
- Chapman AS, Bakken JS, Folk SM, et al; Tickborne Rickettsial Diseases Working Group; CDC. Diagnosis and management of tickborne rickettsial diseases: Rocky Mountain spotted fever, ehrlichiosis, and anaplasmosis—United States: a practical guide for physicians and other health-care and public health professionals. *MMWR Recomm Rep*. 2006;55(RR-4):1-27.
- Aguero-Rosenfeld ME. Diagnosis of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis: state of the art. *Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis*. 2002;2(4):233-239.
- Vannier E, Krause PJ. Human babesiosis. *N Engl J Med*. 2012;366(25):2397-2407.
- Schriefer ME. Lyme disease diagnosis: serology. *Clin Lab Med*. 2015;35(4):797-814.
- Seriburi V, Ndukwe N, Chang Z, Cox ME, Wormser GP. High frequency of false positive IgM immunoblots for *Borrelia burgdorferi* in clinical practice. *Clin Microbiol Infect*. 2012;18(12):1236-1240.
- Fallon BA, Pavlicova M, Coffino SW, Brenner C. A comparison of Lyme disease serologic test results from 4 laboratories in patients with persistent symptoms after antibiotic treatment. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2014;59(12):1705-1710.
- Aguero-Rosenfeld ME. Lyme disease: laboratory issues. *Infect Dis Clin North Am*. 2008;22(2):301-313.
- Branda JA, Aguero-Rosenfeld ME, Ferraro MJ, Johnson BJ, Wormser GP, Steere AC. 2-tiered antibody testing for early and late Lyme disease using only an immunoglobulin G blot with the addition of a VlsE band as the second-tier test. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2010;50(1):20-26.
- Bacon RM, Biggerstaff BJ, Schriefer ME, et al. Serodiagnosis of Lyme disease by kinetic enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay using recombinant VlsE1 or peptide antigens of *Borrelia burgdorferi* compared with 2-tiered testing using whole-cell lysates. *J Infect Dis*. 2003;187(8):1187-1199.
- Wormser GP, Schriefer M, Aguero-Rosenfeld ME, et al. Single-tier testing with the C6 peptide ELISA kit compared with two-tier testing for Lyme disease. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2013;75(1):9-15.
- Steere AC, McHugh G, Damle N, Sikand VK. Prospective study of serologic tests for Lyme disease. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2008;47(2):188-195.
- Branda JA, Strle F, Strle K, Sikand N, Ferraro MJ, Steere AC. Performance of United States serologic assays in the diagnosis of Lyme borreliosis acquired in Europe. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2013;57(3):333-340.
- Wormser GP, Tang AT, Schimmoeller NR, et al. Utility of serodiagnostics designed for use in the United States for detection of Lyme borreliosis acquired in Europe and vice versa. *Med Microbiol Immunol*. 2014;203(1):65-71.
- Mathiesen MJ, Christiansen M, Hansen K, Holm A, Asbrink E, Theisen M. Peptide-based OspC enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay for serodiagnosis of Lyme borreliosis. *J Clin Microbiol*. 1998;36(12):3474-3479.
- Branda JA, Linsley K, Kim YA, Steere AC, Ferraro MJ. Two-tiered antibody testing for Lyme disease with use of 2 enzyme immunoassays, a whole-cell sonicate enzyme immunoassay followed by a VlsE C6 peptide enzyme immunoassay. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2011;53(6):541-547.
- Porwancher RB, Hagerty CG, Fan J, et al. Multiplex immunoassay for Lyme disease using VlsE1-IgG and pepC10-IgM antibodies: improving test performance through bioinformatics. *Clin Vaccine Immunol*. 2011;18(5):851-859.
- Wormser GP, Levin A, Soman S, Adenikinju O, Longo MV, Branda JA. Comparative cost-effectiveness of two-tiered testing strategies for serodiagnosis of Lyme disease with noncutaneous manifestations. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2013;51(12):4045-4049.
- Lipsett SC, Pollock NR, Branda JA, et al. The positive predictive value of Lyme ELISA for the diagnosis of Lyme disease in children. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 2015;34(11):1260-1262.
- Shapiro ED. Clinical practice: Lyme disease. *N Engl J Med*. 2014;370(18):1724-1731.
- Lantos PM, Branda JA, Boggan JC, et al. Poor positive predictive value of Lyme disease serologic testing in an area of low disease incidence. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2015;61(9):1374-1380.

44. Avery RA, Frank G, Eppes SC. Diagnostic utility of *Borrelia burgdorferi* cerebrospinal fluid polymerase chain reaction in children with Lyme meningitis. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 2005;24(8):705-708.
45. Steere AC, Berardi VP, Weeks KE, Logigian EL, Ackermann R. Evaluation of the intrathecal antibody response to *Borrelia burgdorferi* as a diagnostic test for Lyme neuroborreliosis. *J Infect Dis*. 1990;161(6):1203-1209.
46. Hytönen J, Kortela E, Waris M, Puustinen J, Salo J, Oksi J. CXCL13 and neopterin concentrations in cerebrospinal fluid of patients with Lyme neuroborreliosis and other diseases that cause neuroinflammation. *J Neuroinflammation*. 2014;11:103.
47. Sillanpää H, Skogman BH, Sarvas H, Seppälä JJ, Lahdenne P. Cerebrospinal fluid chemokine CXCL13 in the diagnosis of neuroborreliosis in children. *Scand J Infect Dis*. 2013;45(7):526-530.
48. Tjernberg I, Henningsson AJ, Eliasson I, Forsberg P, Ernerudh J. Diagnostic performance of cerebrospinal fluid chemokine CXCL13 and antibodies to the C6-peptide in Lyme neuroborreliosis. *J Infect*. 2011;62(2):149-158.
49. Ljøstad U, Mygland A. CSF B-lymphocyte chemoattractant (CXCL13) in the early diagnosis of acute Lyme neuroborreliosis. *J Neurol*. 2008;255(5):732-737.
50. Sapi E, Pabbati N, Datar A, Davies EM, Rattelle A, Kuo BA. Improved culture conditions for the growth and detection of *Borrelia* from human serum. *Int J Med Sci*. 2013;10(4):362-376.
51. Johnson BJ, Pilgard MA, Russell TM. Assessment of new culture method for detection of *Borrelia* species from serum of Lyme disease patients. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2014;52(3):721-724.
52. Stricker RB, Winger EE. Natural killer cells in chronic Lyme disease. *Clin Vaccine Immunol*. 2009;16(11):1704.
53. Marques A, Brown MR, Fleisher TA. Natural killer cell counts are not different between patients with post-Lyme disease syndrome and controls. *Clin Vaccine Immunol*. 2009;16(8):1249-1250.
54. Halperin JJ. Nervous system Lyme disease. *Clin Lab Med*. 2015;35(4):779-795.
55. Barclay SS, Melia MT, Auwaerter PG. Misdiagnosis of late-onset Lyme arthritis by inappropriate use of *Borrelia burgdorferi* immunoblot testing with synovial fluid. *Clin Vaccine Immunol*. 2012;19(11):1806-1809.
56. Jin C, Roen DR, Lehmann PV, Kellermann GH. An enhanced ELISPOT assay for sensitive detection of antigen-specific T cell responses to *Borrelia burgdorferi*. *Cells*. 2013;2(3):607-620.
57. Klemperer MS, Schmid CH, Hu L, et al. Intralaboratory reliability of serologic and urine testing for Lyme disease. *Am J Med*. 2001;110(3):217-219.
58. Wormser GP, Aguero-Rosenfeld ME, Cox ME, et al. Differences and similarities between culture-confirmed human granulocytic anaplasmosis and early Lyme disease. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2013;51(3):954-958.
59. Weil AA, Baron EL, Brown CM, Drapkin MS. Clinical findings and diagnosis in human granulocytic anaplasmosis: a case series from Massachusetts. *Mayo Clin Proc*. 2012;87(3):233-239.
60. Bakken JS, Aguero-Rosenfeld ME, Tilden RL, et al. Serial measurements of hematologic counts during the active phase of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2001;32(6):862-870.
61. Diuk-Wasser MA, Vannier E, Krause PJ. Coinfection by Ixodes tick-borne pathogens: ecological, epidemiological, and clinical consequences. *Trends Parasitol*. 2016;32(1):30-42.
62. Herwaldt BL, Linden JV, Bosserman E, Young C, Olkowska D, Wilson M. Transfusion-associated babesiosis in the United States: a description of cases. *Ann Intern Med*. 2011;155(8):509-519.
63. Joseph JT, Purtil K, Wong SJ, et al. Vertical transmission of *Babesia microti*, United States. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2012;18(8):1318-1321.
64. Cornett JK, Malhotra A, Hart D. Vertical transmission of babesiosis from a pregnant, splenectomized mother to her neonate. *Infect Dis Clin Pract*. 2012;20:408-410.
65. Bloch EM, Lee TH, Krause PJ, et al. Development of a real-time polymerase chain reaction assay for sensitive detection and quantitation of *Babesia microti* infection. *Transfusion*. 2013;53(10):2299-2306.
66. Rollend L, Bent SJ, Krause PJ, et al. Quantitative PCR for detection of *Babesia microti* in *Ixodes scapularis* ticks and in human blood. *Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis*. 2013;13(11):784-790.
67. Teal AE, Habura A, Ennis J, Keithly JS, Madison-Antenucci S. A new real-time PCR assay for improved detection of the parasite *Babesia microti*. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2012;50(3):903-908.
68. Wang G, Villafuerte P, Zhuge J, Visintainer P, Wormser GP. Comparison of a quantitative PCR assay with peripheral blood smear examination for detection and quantitation of *Babesia microti* infection in humans. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2015;82(2):109-113.
69. Wang G, Wormser GP, Zhuge J, et al. Utilization of a real-time PCR assay for diagnosis of *Babesia microti* infection in clinical practice. *Ticks Tick Borne Dis*. 2015;6(3):376-382.
70. Krause PJ, Spielman A, Telford SR III, et al. Persistent parasitemia after acute babesiosis. *N Engl J Med*. 1998;339(3):160-165.
71. Priest JW, Moss DM, Won K, et al. Multiplex assay detection of immunoglobulin G antibodies that recognize *Babesia microti* antigens. *Clin Vaccine Immunol*. 2012;19(9):1539-1548.
72. Levin AE, Williamson PC, Erwin JL, et al. Determination of *Babesia microti* seroprevalence in blood donor populations using an investigational enzyme immunoassay. *Transfusion*. 2014;54(9):2237-2244.
73. Persing DH, Herwaldt BL, Glaser C, et al. Infection with a babesia-like organism in northern California. *N Engl J Med*. 1995;332(5):298-303.
74. Hunfeld KP, Hildebrandt A, Gray JS. Babesiosis: recent insights into an ancient disease. *Int J Parasitol*. 2008;38(11):1219-1237.
75. Krause PJ, Telford SR III, Ryan R, et al. Diagnosis of babesiosis: evaluation of a serologic test for the detection of *Babesia microti* antibody. *J Infect Dis*. 1994;169(4):923-926.
76. Kowalski TJ, Tata S, Berth W, Mathiason MA, Agger WA. Antibiotic treatment duration and long-term outcomes of patients with early Lyme disease from a Lyme disease-hyperendemic area. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2010;50(4):512-520.
77. Wormser GP, Ramanathan R, Nowakowski J, et al. Duration of antibiotic therapy for early Lyme disease: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Ann Intern Med*. 2003;138(9):697-704.
78. Ljøstad U, Skogvoll E, Eikeland R, et al. Oral doxycycline versus intravenous ceftriaxone for European Lyme neuroborreliosis: a multicentre, non-inferiority, double-blind, randomised trial. *Lancet Neurol*. 2008;7(8):690-695.
79. Borg R, Dotevall L, Hagberg L, et al. Intravenous ceftriaxone compared with oral doxycycline for the treatment of Lyme neuroborreliosis. *Scand J Infect Dis*. 2005;37(6-7):449-454.
80. Dotevall L, Hagberg L. Successful oral doxycycline treatment of Lyme disease-associated facial palsy and meningitis. *Clin Infect Dis*. 1999;28(3):569-574.
81. Karlsson M, Hammers-Berggren S, Lindquist L, Stiernstedt G, Svenungsson B. Comparison of intravenous penicillin G and oral doxycycline for treatment of Lyme neuroborreliosis. *Neurology*. 1994;44(7):1203-1207.
82. Bremell D, Dotevall L. Oral doxycycline for Lyme neuroborreliosis with symptoms of encephalitis, myelitis, vasculitis, or intracranial hypertension. *Eur J Neurol*. 2014;21(9):1162-1167.
83. Luft BJ, Dattwyler RJ, Johnson RC, et al. Azithromycin compared with amoxicillin in the treatment of erythema migrans: a double-blind, randomized, controlled trial. *Ann Intern Med*. 1996;124(9):785-791.
84. Strle F, Maraspin V, Lotric-Furlan S, Ruzić-Sabljic E, Cimperman J. Azithromycin and doxycycline for treatment of *Borrelia* culture-positive erythema migrans. *Infection*. 1996;24(1):64-68.
85. Arnez M, Pleterski-Rigler D, Luznik-Bufon T, Ruzić-Sabljic E, Strle F. Solitary erythema migrans in children: comparison of treatment with azithromycin and phenoxymethylpenicillin. *Wien Klin Wochenschr*. 2002;114(13-14):498-504.
86. Arnez M, Ruzić-Sabljic E. Azithromycin is equally effective as amoxicillin in children with solitary erythema migrans. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 2015;34(10):1045-1048.
87. Nadelman RB, Luger SW, Frank E, Wisniewski M, Collins JJ, Wormser GP. Comparison of cefuroxime axetil and doxycycline in the treatment of early Lyme disease. *Ann Intern Med*. 1992;117(4):273-280.
88. Luger SW, Pappone P, Wormser GP, et al. Comparison of cefuroxime axetil and doxycycline in treatment of patients with early Lyme disease associated with erythema migrans. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 1995;39(3):661-667.
89. Herwaldt BL, Springs FE, Roberts PP, et al. Babesiosis in Wisconsin: a potentially fatal disease. *Am J Trop Med Hyg*. 1995;53(2):146-151.
90. Wroblewski HA, Kovacs RJ, Kingery JR, Overholser BR, Tisdale JE. High risk of QT interval prolongation and torsades de pointes associated with intravenous quinidine used for treatment of resistant malaria or babesiosis. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2012;56(8):4495-4499.

91. Ray WA, Murray KT, Hall K, Arbogast PG, Stein CM. Azithromycin and the risk of cardiovascular death. *N Engl J Med*. 2012;366(20):1881-1890.
92. Wittner M, Lederman J, Tanowitz HB, Rosenbaum GS, Weiss LM. Atovaquone in the treatment of *Babesia microti* infections in hamsters. *Am J Trop Med Hyg*. 1996;55(2):219-222.
93. Shatzel JJ, Donohoe K, Chu NQ, et al. Profound autoimmune hemolysis and Evans syndrome in two asplenic patients with babesiosis. *Transfusion*. 2015;55(3):661-665.
94. Weiss LM, Wittner M, Tanowitz HB. The treatment of babesiosis. *N Engl J Med*. 2001;344(10):773.
95. Hamburg BJ, Storch GA, Micek ST, Kollef MH. The importance of early treatment with doxycycline in human ehrlichiosis. *Medicine (Baltimore)*. 2008;87(2):53-60.
96. Bakken JS, Dumler S. Human granulocytic anaplasmosis. *Infect Dis Clin North Am*. 2008;22(3):433-448.
97. Buitrago MI, Ijdo JW, Rinaudo P, et al. Human granulocytic ehrlichiosis during pregnancy treated successfully with rifampin. *Clin Infect Dis*. 1998;27(1):213-215.
98. Krause PJ, Corrow CL, Bakken JS. Successful treatment of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in children using rifampin. *Pediatrics*. 2003;112(3, pt 1):e252-e253.
99. Krause PJ, Lepore T, Sikand VK, et al. Atovaquone and azithromycin for the treatment of babesiosis. *N Engl J Med*. 2000;343(20):1454-1458.
100. Krause PJ, Gewurz BE, Hill D, et al. Persistent and relapsing babesiosis in immunocompromised patients. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2008;46(3):370-376.
101. Wormser GP, Prasad A, Neuhaus E, et al. Emergence of resistance to azithromycin-atovaquone in immunocompromised patients with *Babesia microti* infection. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2010;50(3):381-386.
102. Häselbarth K, Tenter AM, Brade V, Krieger G, Hunfeld KP. First case of human babesiosis in Germany—clinical presentation and molecular characterisation of the pathogen. *Int J Med Microbiol*. 2007;297(3):197-204.
103. Vyas JM, Telford SR, Robbins GK. Treatment of refractory *Babesia microti* infection with atovaquone-proguanil in an HIV-infected patient: case report. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2007;45(12):1588-1590.
104. Lubin AS, Snyderman DR, Miller KB. Persistent babesiosis in a stem cell transplant recipient. *Leuk Res*. 2011;35(6):e77-e78.
105. Stowell CP, Gelfand JA, Shepard JA, Kratz A. Case records of the Massachusetts General Hospital: case 17-2007: a 25-year-old woman with relapsing fevers and recent onset of dyspnea. *N Engl J Med*. 2007;356(22):2313-2319.
106. Spaete J, Patrozou E, Rich JD, Sweeney JD. Red cell exchange transfusion for babesiosis in Rhode Island. *J Clin Apher*. 2009;24(3):97-105.
107. El Khoury MY, Gandhi R, Dandache P, Lombardo G, Wormser GP. Non-surgical management of spontaneous splenic rupture due to *Babesia microti* infection. *Ticks Tick Borne Dis*. 2011;2(4):235-238.
108. Farber FR, Muehlenbachs A, Robey TE. A traumatic splenic rupture from *Babesia*: a disease of the otherwise healthy patient. *Ticks Tick Borne Dis*. 2015;6(5):649-652.
109. Wormser GP, Lombardo G, Silverblatt F, et al. Babesiosis as a cause of fever in patients undergoing a splenectomy. *Am Surg*. 2011;77(3):345-347.
110. Semel ME, Tavakkolizadeh A, Gates JD. Babesiosis in the immediate postoperative period after splenectomy for trauma. *Surg Infect (Larchmt)*. 2009;10(6):553-556.
111. Krause PJ, Telford SR III, Spielman A, et al. Concurrent Lyme disease and babesiosis: evidence for increased severity and duration of illness. *JAMA*. 1996;275(21):1657-1660.
112. Krause PJ, McKay K, Thompson CA, et al; Deer-Associated Infection Study Group. Disease-specific diagnosis of coinfecting tickborne zoonoses: babesiosis, human granulocytic ehrlichiosis, and Lyme disease. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2002;34(9):1184-1191.
113. Horowitz HW, Aguero-Rosenfeld ME, Holmgren D, et al. Lyme disease and human granulocytic anaplasmosis coinfection: impact of case definition on coinfection rates and illness severity. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2013;56(1):93-99.
114. Belongia EA, Reed KD, Mitchell PD, et al. Clinical and epidemiological features of early Lyme disease and human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in Wisconsin. *Clin Infect Dis*. 1999;29(6):1472-1477.
115. Platonov AE, Karan LS, Kolyasnikova NM, et al. Humans infected with relapsing fever spirochete *Borrelia miyamotoi*, Russia. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2011;17(10):1816-1823.
116. Gugliotta JL, Goethert HK, Berardi VP, Telford SR III. Meningoencephalitis from *Borrelia miyamotoi* in an immunocompromised patient. *N Engl J Med*. 2013;368(3):240-245.
117. Hovius JW, de Wever B, Sohne M, et al. A case of meningoencephalitis by the relapsing fever spirochaete *Borrelia miyamotoi* in Europe. *Lancet*. 2013;382(9892):658.
118. Chowdri HR, Gugliotta JL, Berardi VP, et al. *Borrelia miyamotoi* infection presenting as human granulocytic anaplasmosis: a case report. *Ann Intern Med*. 2013;159(1):21-27.
119. Molloy PJ, Telford SR III, Chowdri HR, et al. *Borrelia miyamotoi* disease in the Northeastern United States: a case series. *Ann Intern Med*. 2015;163(2):91-98.
120. Krause PJ, Narasimhan S, Wormser GP, et al. Human *Borrelia miyamotoi* infection in the United States. *N Engl J Med*. 2013;368(3):291-293.
121. Krause PJ, Narasimhan S, Wormser GP, et al; Tick Borne Diseases Group. *Borrelia miyamotoi* sensu lato seroreactivity and seroprevalence in the northeastern United States. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2014;20(7):1183-1190.
122. Pritt BS, Mead PS, Johnson DK, et al. Identification of a novel pathogenic *Borrelia* species causing Lyme borreliosis with unusually high spirochaetaemia: a descriptive study [published online February 5, 2016]. *Lancet Infect Dis*. doi: 10.1016/S1473-3099(15)00464-8.
123. Hinten SR, Beckett GA, Gensheimer KF, et al. Increased recognition of Powassan encephalitis in the United States, 1999-2005. *Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis*. 2008;8(6):733-740.
124. El Khoury MY, Camargo JF, White JL, et al. Potential role of deer tick virus in Powassan encephalitis cases in Lyme disease-endemic areas of New York, U.S.A. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2013;19(12):1926-1933.
125. Wormser GP, Pritt B. Update and commentary on four emerging tick-borne infections: *Ehrlichia muris*-like agent, *Borrelia miyamotoi*, deer tick virus, heartland virus, and whether ticks play a role in transmission of *Bartonella henselae*. *Infect Dis Clin North Am*. 2015;29(2):371-381.
126. Pritt BS, Sloan LM, Johnson DK, et al. Emergence of a new pathogenic *Ehrlichia* species, Wisconsin and Minnesota, 2009. *N Engl J Med*. 2011;365(5):422-429.
127. Nadelman RB, Nowakowski J, Fish D, et al; Tick Bite Study Group. Prophylaxis with single-dose doxycycline for the prevention of Lyme disease after an *Ixodes scapularis* tick bite. *N Engl J Med*. 2001;345(2):79-84.
128. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Preventing Tick Bites. CDC website. http://www.cdc.gov/ticks/avoid/on_people.html. 2015. Accessed March 22, 2016.
129. Connolly NP, Durante AJ, Yousey-Hindes KM, Meek JI, Nelson RS, Heimer R. Peridomestic Lyme disease prevention: results of a population-based case-control study. *Am J Prev Med*. 2009;37(3):201-206.
130. Vázquez M, Muehlenbein C, Cartter M, Hayes EB, Ertel S, Shapiro ED. Effectiveness of personal protective measures to prevent Lyme disease. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2008;14(2):210-216.
131. Carroll JF. A cautionary note: survival of nymphs of two species of ticks (*Acari: Ixodidae*) among clothes laundered in an automatic washer. *J Med Entomol*. 2003;40(5):732-736.
132. Hinckley AF, Meek JI, Ray JA, et al. Effectiveness of residential acaricides to prevent Lyme and other tick-borne diseases in humans [published online January 5, 2016]. *J Infect Dis*. 2016;jiv775. doi:10.1093/infdis/jiv775.
133. Gear JS, Koethe R, Hoskins B, Hillger R, Dapsis L, Pongsiri M. The effectiveness of permethrin-treated deer stations for control of the Lyme disease vector *Ixodes scapularis* on Cape Cod and the islands: a five-year experiment. *Parasit Vectors*. 2014;7:292.
134. Solberg VB, Miller JA, Hadfield T, Burge R, Schech JM, Pound JM. Control of *Ixodes scapularis* (*Acari: Ixodidae*) with topical self-application of permethrin by white-tailed deer inhabiting NASA, Beltsville, Maryland. *J Vector Ecol*. 2003;28(1):117-134.
135. Deblinger RD, Rimmer DW. Efficacy of a permethrin-based acaricide to reduce the abundance of *Ixodes dammini* (*Acari: Ixodidae*). *J Med Entomol*. 1991;28(5):708-711.
136. Stafford KC III. Effectiveness of host-targeted permethrin in the control of *Ixodes dammini* (*Acari: Ixodidae*). *J Med Entomol*. 1991;28(5):611-617.