



Importance of surgical antibiotic prophylaxis to eliminate the risk of surgical site infections

Dr. Samreen Afroz *¹, **T. Lavanya**², **Reshma Tabassum**², **Mohd Rizwan**², **T. Pochaiiah**²,
Dr. Are Anusha³ and **Dr. Mandava Kiranmai**⁴.

¹Assistant professor, Department of Pharmacy practice, St Pauls college of Pharmacy Turkayamjal, Hyderabad, T.S. INDIA- 501510

² Pharm-D Interns, Department of Pharmacy practice, St Pauls college of Pharmacy Turkayamjal, Hyderabad. T.S. INDIA- 501510

³Associate Professor, Head of Department Pharmacy Practice, St Pauls college of Pharmacy Turkayamjal, T.S. INDIA- 501510

⁴Principal & Professor, St Pauls college of Pharmacy Turkayamjal, Hyderabad. T.S. INDIA- 501510

Corresponding author- **Dr. Anusha Are**

Email Id: dranushajoel@gmail.com

Abstract

Antibiotic prophylaxis can lower the incidence of surgical wound infections, however antimicrobial abuse and overuse raises both the cost and the selection pressure that favours the growth of resistant bacteria. Our major goal was to investigate the use of prophylactic antibiotics in various procedures across a large number of patients. ^[1]

A pre-tested proforma was completed, which contained information on patient characteristics, antimicrobial drug choice, route, timing, and total length of prophylaxis. Antibiotic prophylaxis was also evaluated in accordance with normal guidelines. Interventions are needed to encourage the creation, distribution, and implementation of evidence-based antimicrobial prophylactic guidelines. Findings support the use of antibiotics after surgery to prevent infections and corroborate the significance of SAP in lowering postoperative SSI across a variety of operations.

The findings of this scoping review have added to the evidence base that can be used to help build global guidelines to prevent SSI. However, high-quality systematic reviews and research that encompasses a wide range of demographics and contexts are required. Surgical site infections (SSIs) are infections that appear within 30 days of an operation or surgical wound infection surveillance. The objective of this study was to assess preoperative and postoperative antimicrobial uses. ^[2]

DOI: 10.48047/ecb/2023.12.si4.1000

1. INTRODUCTION

Antibiotics are described as "a chemical substance produced by micro-organisms with the property of suppressing the growth of bacteria or eliminating other micro-organisms," according to Waksman in a high-dilution situation. ^[3] Antibiotics are made through a fermentation process in which a large number of microorganisms and humans are allowed to develop in optimal conditions in the presence of growth media before being destroyed to produce antibiotics that can kill microorganisms when given at low

concentrations. Apart from the above-mentioned industry procedure, they are natural compounds that can prevent microbial development in both animals and humans.^[4]

Example-antibodies.

Antibiotics classification [5]

Penicillins - natural - penicillin G, penicillin VK

Penicillin resistant - methicillin, oxacillin, nafcillin.

Cephalosporins –

First generation -, Cephalothin Cefazolin (Ancef, Kefzol) Cephapirin Cephalexin (Keflex)

Second generation - Cefacor, Cefotetan (Cefotan) other

Third generation - Ceftriaxone (Rocephin) other

Fourth generation - cefpirome, cefipime

Fifth generation - Ceftarloine.

Fluroquinolones- Ciprofloxacin (Cipro), Levofloxacin (Levaguin), Moxifloxacin, (Avelox)Norfloxacin

Aminoglycosides - amikacin, gentamycin, neomycin, tobramycin.

Monobactams - azetreonam

Carbapenams - meropenam, ertapenam, imienem.

Macrolides - azithromycin, clarithromycin, clindamycin, erythromycin.

Others - vancomycin, doxycycline, linezolid, tetracycline, rifampin, trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole

Prophylactic use of antibiotics –

Pre-clinical manifestation antibiotics are used as prophylactics to prevent and suppress the formation of infection at the surgical site, which is known as prophylactic therapy. This treatment is used to fight against any infection-causing microbes. After surgery, targeted therapy is used to inhibit the recurrence of infection, and the entire course should be completed to avoid resistance.^[6-7]

Prophylactic treatment of infection at surgical site –

Surgical site infection is an infection that develops in the area of the body where the incision was made following surgery. Surgical site infection can sometimes be a superficial infection that mostly affects the skin^[8]. Other sites are more serious and can affect tissues beneath the skin, organs, or implants. SSI varies based on the type of operation and the pathogen infecting the patient.^[9]

Ssi is the most frequent type of hospital-acquired illness, and it is also the most preventable. It is the most significant unfavourable surgical outcome, and it is most commonly documented in low- and middle-income nations. [10]

Epidemiology Ssi is the third most frequent nosocomial infection, accounting for 14 to 16 percent of all infections. Nosocomial infections are the most prevalent among surgical patients. It is responsible for 20% of all HAIs in hospitalised patients. Up to 60% of ssis is thought to be avoidable if evidence-based guidelines are followed.

Each ssi is linked to an additional 7 to 11 days in the hospital after surgery. When compared to operational patients without a ssi, patients with a ssi had a 2 to 11 times IR risk. Ssi is directly responsible for 77 percent of mortality in patients with ssi.

The postoperative complication is usually seen between 7 to 10 days of the operation and is a life-threatening complication that affects the patient's quality of life and is related with higher morbidity and lengthening the hospital stay, which can result in financial hardship for the patient. The majority of ssi can be avoided. [11]

Causes

The causative organism is mostly depending on the type of surgery and the most commonly isolated organisms are

- ✓ Staphylococcus aureus
- ✓ Coagulase negative
- ✓ Staphylococci
- ✓ Enterococcus spp.
- ✓ E.coli

The majority of ssis are caused by microbial contamination at the incision site from the patient's own body after surgery. During surgery, infections produced by microorganisms from outside sources are less common than infections caused by the patient's own body flora.

Gram-positive cocci are the most common pathogens found on skin and mucosal surfaces. In the groyne and perineal areas, however, gramme negative areobes and anaerobic bacteria contaminate the skin.

TABLE 1 [12]

Pathogen	Frequency (%)
Staphylococcus aureus	20
Coagulase negative staphylococci	14
Enterococci	12
e.coli	8
Pseudomonas auregnosa	8
Enterobacter species	7
Protease mirabilis	3

Klebsiella pneumonia	3
Other streptococci	3
Candida albicans	3
Group d streptococci	2
Other gram positive aerobes	2
Bacteroids fragilis	2

Risk factors

- ✓ Surgery that lasts more than 2 hrs
- ✓ Having other comorbid conditions.
- ✓ Being an elderly adult
- ✓ Obesity
- ✓ Smoking
- ✓ Cancerous patient
- ✓ Weak immune system.
- ✓ Undergone any emergency surgery

TYPES

Surgical wounds are divided into four kinds by the American College of Surgeons–National Surgical Quality Improvement Program (ACS-NSQIP): clean, clean/contaminated, contaminated, and dirty wounds. [4 Surgical wounds are divided into four kinds by the American College of Surgeons–National Surgical Quality Improvement Program (ACS-NSQIP): clean, clean/contaminated, contaminated, and dirty wounds.

CLASS I – CLEAN

In which surgical procedures are clean and in which disinfection of operative field is controlled. This class of lowest rate of wound infection. Antibiotics are not used prophylactically but in case of operation time greater than 4hrs or breaks in sterile technique, the infection rate may rise considerably. Example in case of class I complicated procedure such as CABG which may have infection rate of 5% or even higher even though antibiotics is given.

CLEAN- Elective, non-traumatic surgery, no viscera or tract entered, no infection at the site, no break in technique i.e., these are not inflamed or contaminated wound so that there is no involvement of surgeries on internal organs.

EXAMPLES- herniorrhaphy, mastectomy, cosmetic surgery. [13]

CLASS II- CLEAN- CONTAMINATED- in which surgical procedures are clean contaminated which involve cutting across mucous membrane electively where the minimal spillage of contents takes place. Antibiotics is considered higher than the class I surgery because the rate of wound infection is higher than that the class I surgery and ranges from 8% to 29% depending on the type of procedure.

EXAMPLES – Hysterectomy and elective intestinal surgery. [14]

CLEAN -CONTAMINATED - Elective surgery with opening of any viscera/ tract but minimal spillage, no contact with infected material, minor break-in technique, these have no evidence of infection at the time of surgery but do involve surgeries on internal organ.

EXAMPLES – Laryngectomy, uncomplicated appendectomy, cholecystectomy, transurethral resection of prostate gland.

CLASS III – CONTAMINATED - in which surgical procedures are contaminated which involve perforation of inflamed tissue where infection is already present or where excessive spillage from a viscous occurs.

CONTAMINATED – Gross spillage from GI-tract, the opening of the infected biliary or genitourinary tract, penetrating injury <4 hr old, grafting on the chronic open wound, a major break-in technique, these involve the operating on an internal organ where the spilling of contents from the organ into the wound take place.

EXAMPLES – Large bowel resection, biliary or genitourinary tract surgery with infected bile or urine.

CLASS IV – DIRTY in which surgical procedures are dirty which involve gross purulence is encountered.

DIRTY – opening of abscess or purulent site, preoperative penetrating injury >4hrs, these are wounds in which a known infection is already present at the time of surgery.

GUIDELINES

antimicrobial Prophylaxis for Surgery: An Advisory Statement from the National Surgical Infection Prevention Project (NSIPP), 200.

Antibiotic choice - Cefazolin, cefuroxime, or cefamandole If the patient has a beta-lactam allergy, vancomycin or clindamycin.

Dose - Cefazolin IV: 1-2 gm (20-30) mg per kg standard dose. If < 80 kg, use 1 gm; if > 80 kg, use 2 gm. End stage renal disease $t_{1/2}$ = 40-70 hours.

Cefuroxime IV: 1.5 gm standard dose, 50 mg/kg adjusted dose. End stage renal disease $t_{1/2}$ = 15-22 hours. Cefamandole IV: 1 gm standard dose. End stage renal disease $t_{1/2}$ = 12.3-18 hours.

Vancomycin IV infusion: 1 gm over 60 minute standard dose, 10-15 mg per kg (adult) adjusted. End stage renal disease $t_{1/2}$ = 44.1-406.4 hours.

Clindamycin IV: 600-900 mg standard dose. If < 10 kg, use at least 37.5 mg; if > 10 kg, use 3-6 mg/kg. End stage renal disease $t_{1/2}$ = 3.5-5.0 hours

Duration of antibiotic use - 24 hours or less. [30]

The Society of Thoracic Surgeons (STS) Practice Guideline Series: Antibiotic Prophylaxis In Cardiac Surgery, 2006-2007b

Antibiotic choice - Cefazolin

If presumed or known MRSA colonization, vancomycin (1-2 doses) + cefazolin

if patients with beta-lactam allergy, vancomycin (up to 48 hours) + aminoglycoside (1 pre-operative and 1 post-operative dose)

Dose - Cefazolin IV: 1 gm pre-operative prophylactic dose; for a patient > 60 kg, 2 gm is recommended.

Vancomycin IV infusion over 1 hour: dose of 1-1.5 gm or a weight-adjusted dose of 15 mg per kg

Aminoglycoside IV; (usually gentamicin, 4 mg per kg) in addition to vancomycin prior to cardiac surgery.

Duration antibiotic use - 48 hours or less. [31]

2. METHODOLOGY

Study site -

The proposed study was conducted at inpatient wards of general medicine and surgery department of KIMS hospitals Hyderabad. KIMS hospital is a 300 bed multi speciality tertiary care hospital having various departments like general medicine, surgery, pediatrics,

Psychiatry, pulmonology, Neurology, Nephrology, Ophthalmology, Gastroenterology, Skin, Orthopedics, Urology, Obstetrics and Gynecology, Ear, Nose, and Throat [ENT] and Sexually Transmitted Diseases [STD] and Radiology. Medicine and surgery departments accommodate about 200 patients in each department. Patients are admitted either from the outpatient, emergency and casualty departments or transferred from the wards of other clinical specialties to above departments.

STUDY DESIGN-

The present study was Retrospective Observational Study.

STUDY DURATION-

The study was conducted over a period of six months from December 2021 to May 2022.

STUDY CRITERIA-

INCLUSION CRITERIA

Age – of all groups

Gender – including both genders

Case specificity – patients with planned surgeries .

EXCLUSION CRITERIA

Immunocompromised patients

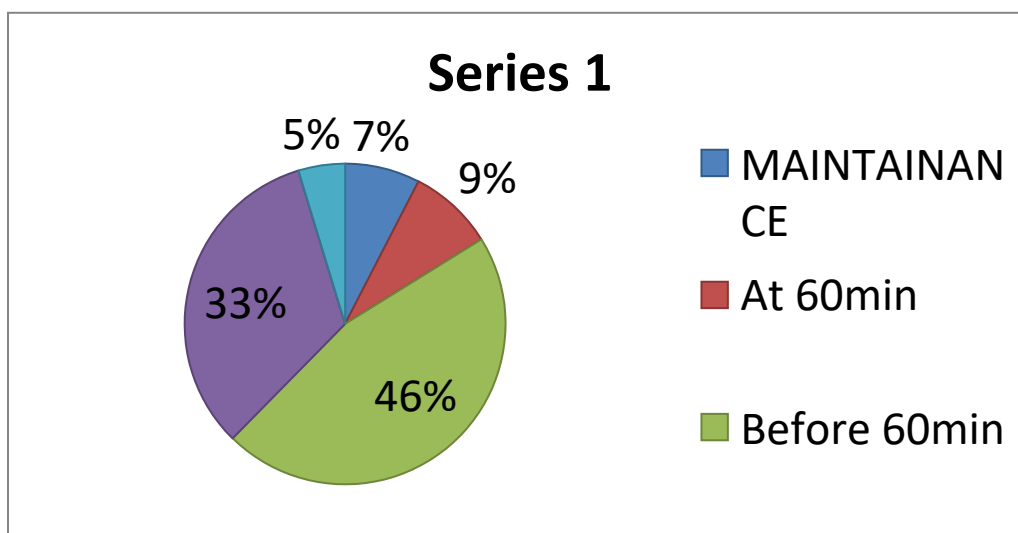
Sepsis

Patients on immunosuppressants

Congenital or acquired immunogenicity.

	TIME	NO.OF PATIENTS
RESULTS	MAINTENANCE	37
	AT 60MIN	42
	BEFORE 60MIN	226
	AFTER 60 MIN	167
	AT INSCION	23

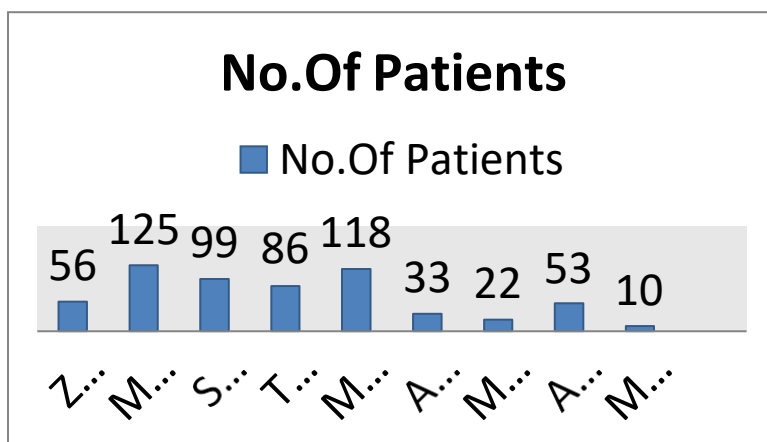
ANTIBIOTICS GIVEN TIME



ANTIBIOTICS USED

ANTIBIOTIC	NO. OF PATIENTS
ZOSTUM	56
MONOCEF	125
SUPACEF	99
TAXIM	86
MAGNEXFORTE	118

AUGMENTIN	33
MEROPENAM	22
AMIKACIN	53
METROGYL	10



3. DISCUSSION :

In the present study conducted on 720 patients it was found that the most of the patients treated with antibiotics were of age-group 30 – 40(26%) age group, followed by age group.60-70 (17%) Young adults were prescribed less when compared to geriatric patients. It was also founded that male were given with more antibiotics when compared to females. Patients with age group 30-60 were prescribed more antibiotics (48.5%) and patients below age 12 were given least antibiotics (8.5%).

In the study conducted, it was found that the most commonly prescribed antimicrobial class was Cephalosporins (52.1%), fluoroquinolones (18.62%), macrolides (8.27%). According to Siavash Shahbazi Nia et.al at 2018, the most commonly prescribed class of antimicrobials were cephalosporins (91.4%), followed by fluoroquinolones (28.7%), then anti-fungals (26%).

From the present study it was also founded that the most prescribed drugs class at the time of discharge was cephalosporins (34.17%), followed by fluoroquinolones (17.72%) The most prescribed anti-microbial was found to be monocef (17.8%), then magnex forte(16.8%) supacef (14.1%), taxim (12.2%), zostum (8%), amikacin (7.57%) , augmentin (4.71%), meropenem (3.14%) .metrogyl (1,42%).

In the study conducted, it was found that antibiotics were mostly given in iv route when compared to other routes of administration . the percentage was found to be IV (92%) ORAL (5%) MAINTAINENCE DOSE (3%).

In the present study , the antibiotic given time was found to be

At 60min – 15%

Before 60 min – 32%

After 60min – 23%

At incision – 6%

According to the standard American guidelines of surgery , antibiotic has to be administered 30min to 60 min prior to the incision to prevent surgical site infections. In this study , out of 700 patients 70% of them were administered antibiotics at correct time according to the guidelines provided.

4. CONCLUSION

An efficient management technique for lowering postoperative infections is surgical antibiotic prophylaxis, offered that the right antibiotics are administered at the proper time for both for the right surgical procedures and the right lengths of time. Surgery antibiotic prophylaxis is typically administered as a once the patient has stabilised, administer a single intravenous dosage prior to a skin incision while under anaesthesia. It is crucial to use a focused antibiotic that is suitable for the surgical location. Guidelines for hospital surgical antibiotic prophylaxis should have periodic evaluations, as both the price of individual medicines. Considering the prevalence of microorganisms with multiple resistance in specific units or Hospitals are frequently changing.

An evidence-based prophylactic antibiotic regimen would probably result in significant savings on antibiotic costs without raising patient risk . A technique like this one might help lower the cost of treating SSI brought on by resistant pathogens. It should be highlighted that such a methodology couldn't be created without sensitivity test programme. But there should be substantial thought put into moving to a single prophylactic pre-operative dose plan. This simple adjustment in procedure might result in a large cost decrease and possibly slow the emergence of infections with heightened resistance.

5. REFERENCES

- [1]. Branch-Elliman W, O'Brien W, Strymish J, Itani K, Wyatt C, Gupta K. Association of duration and type of surgical prophylaxis with antimicrobial-associated adverse events. *JAMA surgery.*

- 2019 Jul 1;154(7):590-8.
- [2]. Westyn Branch-Elliman, MD, MMSc; William O'Brien, MS; Judith Strymish, MD; Kamal Itani, MD; Christina Wyatt, MD; Kalpana Gupta, MD, MPH
- [3]. Ashok P, Subramanian VT. Importance of drug utilization evaluation studies in patient health care. *Indian Journal of Pharmacy Practice*. 2017;10(3).
- [4]. Marks JW, Shiel Jr WC. Medical Author.
- [5]. Béahdy J. Recent developments of antibiotic research and classification of antibiotics according to chemical structure. *Advances in applied microbiology*. 1974 Jan 1;18:309-406.
- [6]. Satoskar RS, Bhandarkar SD. *Pharmacology and pharmacotherapeutics*. Elsevier India; 2020 Jul 10.
- [7]. Wecker L. *Brody's Human Pharmacology*. Elsevier Health Sciences; 2018 May 31.
- [8]. Gouvêa M, Novaes CD, Pereira DM, Iglesias AC. Adherence to guidelines for surgical antibiotic prophylaxis: a review. *Brazilian Journal of Infectious Diseases*. 2015 Sep;19:517-24.
- [9]. Patil BS, Khot AM, Patil AV, Naikwadi AA. Analysis of drug utilization pattern of antimicrobials used as surgical prophylaxis for general surgical procedures in a Tertiary Care Hospital of North Karnataka: An observational study.
- [10]. Wilson J. Surgical site infection: the principles and practice of surveillance. Part 1: Key concepts in the methodology of SSI surveillance. *Journal of Infection Prevention*. 2013 Jan;14(1):6-12.
- [11]. Gaikwad MM, Dabhade SS, Ghongane BB. Evaluation of adherence to surgical prophylaxis guidelines and expenditure on antimicrobial agents used for surgical prophylaxis. *J Med Sci Clin Res*. 2017;5:28894-904.
- [12]. Owens CD, Stoessel K. Surgical site infections: epidemiology, microbiology and prevention. *Journal of hospital infection*. 2008 Nov 1;70:3-10.
- [13]. Sharma P, Goel D. Utilization assessment of antimicrobial prophylaxis in surgical patients at tertiary care teaching hospital. *Saudi Journal for Health Sciences*. 2018 Jan 1;7(1):23.
- [14]. Harrington P. Prevention of surgical site infection. *Nursing standard*. 2014 Jul 30;28(48).
- [15]. National Collaborating Centre for Women's and Children's Health (UK). *Surgical site infection: prevention and treatment of surgical site infection*.
- [16]. Bratzler DW, Dellinger EP, Olsen KM, Perl TM, Auwaerter PG, Bolon MK, Fish DN, Napolitano LM, Sawyer RG, Slain D, Steinberg JP. Clinical practice guidelines for antimicrobial prophylaxis in surgery. *Surgical infections*. 2013 Feb 1;14(1):73-156.
- [17]. Douglas A, Udy A a., Wallis SC, Jarrett P, Stuart J, Lassig-Smith M, et al. Plasma and tissue pharmacokinetics of cefazolin in patients undergoing elective and semielective abdominal aortic aneurysm open repair surgery. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2011;55(11):5238-42.
- [18]. Abbo LM and Grossi PA, *Surgical site infections: Guidelines from the American Society of Transplantation Infectious Diseases Community of Practice*, *Clin Transplant*. 2019 Sep;33(9):e13589.doi: 10.1111/ctr.13589. Epub 2019 May 23.
- [19]. Original Author/Date: Marisa Holubar MD MS, Emily Mui PharmD, Stan Deresinski MD, Lina Meng PharmD, Lucy Tompkins MD PhD 6/2/2016.
- [20]. *Antibiotic prophylaxis for surgery. Treatment guidelines. The Medical Letter* 2004;2(20):27-32.
- [21]. Plowman R, Graves, N, Griffin, M, et al., *The socio-economic burden of hospital-acquired*

- infection. London: Public Health Laboratory Service; 2000.
- [22]. Goossens H, Ferech M, Vander Stichele R, Elseviers M. Outpatient antibiotic use in Europe and association with resistance: a crossnational database study. *Lancet* 2005;365(9459):579-87.
- [23]. Davey PG, Duncan ID, Edward D, Scott AC. Cost-benefit analysis of cephadrine and mezlocillin prophylaxis for abdominal and vaginal hysterectomy. *Br J Obstet Gynaecol* 1988;95(11):1170-7.
- [24]. El-Shaboury SR, Saleh GA, Mohamed FA, Rageh AH. Analysis of cephalosporin antibiotics. *Journal of pharmaceutical and biomedical analysis*. 2007 Sep 21;45(1):1-9.
- [25]. Nightingale CH, Greene DS, Quintiliani R. Pharmacokinetics and clinical use of cephalosporin antibiotics. *Journal of pharmaceutical sciences*. 1975 Dec 1;64(12):1899-927.
- [26]. Ke YY, Lin TH. A theoretical study on the activation of Ser70 in the acylation mechanism of cephalosporin antibiotics. *Biophysical chemistry*. 2005 Apr 22;114(2-3):103-13.
- [27]. Garau J, Wilson WW, Wood M, Carlet J. Fourth-generation cephalosporins: a review of in vitro activity, pharmacokinetics, pharmacodynamics and clinical utility. *Clinical Microbiology and Infection*. 1997 Apr;3:s87-101.
- [28]. Al-Momany NH, Al-Bakri AG, Makahleh ZM, Wazaify MM. Adherence to international antimicrobial prophylaxis guidelines in cardiac surgery: a Jordanian study demonstrates need for quality improvement. *Journal of Managed Care Pharmacy*. 2009 Apr;15(3):262-71.
- [29]. Eagle KA, Guyton RA, Davidoff R, Edwards FH, Ewy GA, Gardner TJ, Hart JC, Herrmann HC, Hillis LD, Hutter Jr AM, Lytle BW. ACC/AHA 2004 guideline update for coronary artery bypass graft surgery: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines (committee to update the 1999 guidelines for coronary artery bypass graft surgery). *Circulation*. 2004 Oct 5;110(14):e340-437.
- [30]. Al-Momany NH, Al-Bakri AG, Makahleh ZM, Wazaify MM. Adherence to international antimicrobial prophylaxis guidelines in cardiac surgery: a Jordanian study demonstrates need for quality improvement. *Journal of Managed Care Pharmacy*. 2009 Apr;15(3):262-71.
- [31]. Bratzler DW, Houck PM, Workgroup SI. Antimicrobial prophylaxis for surgery: an advisory statement from the National Surgical Infection Prevention Project. *The American Journal of Surgery*. 2005 Apr 1;189(4):395-404.