

## Antibiotic Preventative Therapy for Endocarditis and Bacteremia Following Oral Surgery

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### ABSTRACT:-

It is generally established that patients who are at risk for infective endocarditis (IE) and who are undergoing oral surgery operations should receive antibiotic prophylaxis. Recommendations are based on the outcomes of prophylaxis studies in animal models of endocarditis, in vitro susceptibility data of pathogens that cause endocarditis, procedure-related studies of bacteremia, and studies of the efficacy of antimicrobial prophylaxis for prevention of postsurgical bacteremia because there haven't been any controlled clinical trials of antibiotic regimens for the prevention of endocarditis in humans. When preventive antibiotics were employed, clinical study results showed a rapid and significant decrease in bacteremia following oral surgery, however other research questioned the effectiveness of antibiotic prophylaxis for post-extraction bacteremia.

**Keywords:** Endocarditis, Bacteremia, Oral Surgery

### INTRODUCTION: -

The results of various clinical investigations utilising conventional blood culture systems have shown a significant decrease in postoperative bacteremia with the use of antibiotic prophylaxis after dental extraction, which has been considered the most crucial element in the prevention of IE. Penicillin V, amoxicillin, erythromycin, clindamycin, or cefaclor preventive treatment did not, as compared to placebo, diminish the incidence or the severity of bacteremia after tooth extraction in recent studies involving lysing and filtration of blood. It

appears that the antimicrobial defence mechanism for IE differs from a simple blood-based killing. Studies on animals show that the preventive effect may be exerted by limiting bacterial development on the vegetations, allowing host defence mechanisms to gradually eradicate the bacteria from the valves, while the implications for prophylaxis for IE in people are currently unclear.

Due to the high prevalence of bacteremia following various oral invasive procedures and the high viridans streptococci recovery rate in IE cases, dental treatment has frequently been blamed as a primary contributor to the disease. The idea of antibiotic prophylaxis for IE in patients with underlying cardiac disease has gained widespread acceptance, and numerous national boards have approved guidelines and particular antibiotic regimens. The effectiveness of antibiotics in preventing IE in humans has not been clinically documented for ethical as well as practical reasons, so the recommendations are primarily based on data from experimental animal models, pharmacokinetic studies, bacterial susceptibility studies, clinical experience, and studies of procedure-related bacteremia and the effectiveness of antimicrobial prophylaxis for bacteremia.

### Oral bacterial infection

Numerous clinical treatments and interventions, especially those that involve infected sites or extensively colonised mucosal surfaces, have been linked to bacterial invasion of the bloodstream [5]. The lymphatic system carries the germs to the circulatory system once they have been mechanically translocated into tissues. Under normal circumstances, the reticuloendothelial system subsequently quickly eliminates the bacteria. The importance of the macrophages in the spleen and liver for the removal of bacteria from blood was first noted by Beeson and colleagues in 1945 [6]. They demonstrated that the bacterial colony counts in patients with bacterial endocarditis' hepatic venous blood were between 50% and 95% lower than the colony counts seen in their arterial blood.

In 1935, Okell and Elliott reported that 61% of their 138 patients had streptococcal bacteremia after having their teeth extracted [9]. Burket and Bum painted 90 patients' gingival fissures with coloured *Serratiamarcescens* before extracting their teeth two years later, in 1937 [10]. Following the operation, the organism was found in 20% of the blood cultures, proving that mouth bacteria can enter the bloodstream through dental manipulations. According to Taran's account from 1944, endocarditis may be brought on by dental extraction and subsequent bacteremia [11]. Persistent streptococcal bacteremia was reported in four rheumatic heart disease patients who had negative preoperative blood cultures; all four passed away from subacute IE. Although it is generally accepted that viridans streptococci isolated from the blood of endocarditis patients come from the oral cavity, there is currently no conclusive evidence to support this claim. However, a recent research by Fiehn and colleagues [12] states that the relationship has now been established. The viridans strains recovered from the blood and oral cavity were shown to be similar in two patients with endocarditis using traditional microbiological techniques and ribotyping.

Hall et al. [2] examined the results of preventive cefaclor treatment on bacteremia following dental extraction in a different research. One hour before to having their teeth extracted, 39 patients were randomly randomised to receive either 1 g of cefaclor (19 patients) or a placebo (20 patients). Before, during, and 10 minutes after operation, blood samples were drawn for microbiological analysis and processed by lysis-filtration in anaerobic conditions. Viridans streptococci caused 79% of bacteremia in the cefaclor group and 50% in the placebo group during extraction. When the two patient groups were compared, there was no difference in the prevalence or severity of bacteremia.

### **Methods for Blood Cultures**

Since bloodstream invasion is one of the most significant consequences of infection, finding bacteria in blood is crucial. Blood culture protocols must be developed to overcome the often low magnitude of bacteria circulating and to suppress any antimicrobial characteristics or components in blood that can affect the recovery rate in the laboratory in order to effectively detect the infecting microorganisms [1]. The most basic manual blood culture method consists of broth medium-filled flasks with some headspace vacuum. Following inoculation, the aerobic and anaerobic bottles are incubated before being subcultured. During this time, the bottles are periodically checked for macroscopic signs of growth. The systems typically used by corporations include a plastic paddle with agar medium.

To blood culture media, sodium polyanetholsulfonate (SPS) is typically added. SPS inactivates aminoglycosides in addition to its anticoagulant, antiphagocytic, anticomplementary, and antilysozymal action. To inactivate penicillins, penicillinases may also be introduced to the medium. The pour-plate method is a straightforward blood culture technique that does not involve the purchase of expensive equipment.

Direct incorporation of the blood into nutritional agar followed by incubation. The effectiveness of this method for cultivating tiny quantities of blood (1 mL) has been compared to an automated BACTEC broth system (Becton Dickinson Microbiology Systems, Sparks, MD) for the diagnosis of low-grade polymicrobial bacteremia following dental extraction [5]. A number of businesses have created and commercialised a variety of automated blood culture systems, which primarily evaluate microbial growth in broth by CO<sub>2</sub> detection, in order to increase the efficiency of processing blood cultures. While both radiometric and nonradiometric blood culture systems (BACTEC) have been employed, continuous-monitoring blood culture systems are now most frequently used in clinical settings. There are numerous commercially available systems. Such devices keep an almost constant eye on the bottles for signs of microbial growth, allowing for earlier identification.

### **Susceptibility testing for antimicrobials**

The purpose of in vitro susceptibility tests is to assist doctors in selecting appropriate therapeutic or preventative antibiotic regimens. When a pathogen's susceptibility is unpredictable or an illness hasn't reacted to treatment that would seem to be appropriate,

testing is advised. This test is also used to assess the effectiveness of new antimicrobial drugs and gives important data for epidemiological investigations of antibiotic resistance. Some authorities advise susceptibility testing for bactericidal action in unique clinical circumstances. This need has been raised for infections in immunocompromised patients as well as bacterial endocarditis, meningitis, osteomyelitis, and chronically infected implants [7]. The minimal bactericidal concentration (MBC) is the lowest dose of a medicine that results in at least a 99.9% reduction of the starting inoculum (MBC).

Rarely, bactericidal testing may be required due to the occurrence of a particular type of resistance, antibiotic tolerance. Clinical failure in the therapy of staphylococcal endocarditis has been connected to this phenomena [8]. Bactericidal drugs seem to have a typical inhibitory action but a diminished bactericidal activity in tolerant bacteria. A MBC/MIC ratio of  $> 32$  is frequently used by researchers to define tolerance [14]. However, because to the test's numerous laboratory issues, the reproducibility and clinical significance of bactericidal tests have been questioned.

### Endocarditis prevention by antibiotic prophylaxis

**Animal Research:** Experimental animal models are the only way to evaluate the impact of prophylaxis in individuals under controlled conditions because clinical trials of antibiotic prophylaxis of endocarditis cannot be undertaken in humans for moral and statistical reasons. The rabbit endocarditis model was improved for use in rats in the 1980s by Glauser and colleagues, who employed a reduced bacterial inoculum that resulted in endocarditis in 90% of the animals (ID<sub>90</sub>).

They stated that under these circumstances, the size of the inoculum injected had a significant impact on the prophylactic antibiotics' effectiveness. When used with ID<sub>90</sub>, a single dose of amoxicillin or vancomycin prevented endocarditis, but failed when used with greater inoculum sizes [6, 7]. Endocarditis in the latter scenario could only be avoided by prolonged antibiotic exposure, such as is possible with extra doses [8]. Additional research revealed that the bactericidal activity of antibiotics was not their primary mode of action in the prevention of IE, contrary to what had been previously stated. Excellent protection against IE was obtained even when strains resistant to bacteriostatic or bactericidal drugs were employed, provided that the inoculum size was between ID<sub>90</sub> and ID<sub>120</sub> [7, 9,4]. The findings prompted the possibility that the primary mechanism of action of antibiotic prophylaxis is the prevention of bacterial adhesion to vegetations. The findings indicate that effective antibiotic prophylaxis for endocarditis can be achieved without bacterial killing of circulating bacteria and interference with bacterial adhesion. Instead, it is possible that antibiotics act by preventing bacterial growth on vegetations, allowing other defence mechanisms to gradually remove these bacteria from the valves.

## Animal studies to human studies

Despite objections to the therapeutic applicability of findings from animal studies, experimental studies have a significant impact on the formulation of the regimens suggested as endocarditis prevention. The nonhuman nature of the model, the substantial inoculum used to ensure endocarditis in untreated animals, and the foreign body (an intracardiac catheter) left in place throughout the experiment—whereas there is typically no intra-vascular foreign body present in humans—are all drawbacks of these models. However, due to ethical and logistical considerations, a placebo-controlled human investigation on the effectiveness of antibiotic prophylaxis is unlikely to be conducted. A sufficient number of patients, all with well diagnosed cardiac illness, would likely be needed for a prospective study to be effective [5]. Furthermore, it is unknown in humans whether the level of bacteremia correlates with the likelihood of developing endocarditis, and the presence of an intracardiac catheter is thought to resemble the clinical circumstances of patients who have prosthetic heart valves or other intravascular foreign bodies. As a result, testing antibiotic regimens to prevent IE in experimental animal models is rigorous and may increase the margin of safety when used to humans.

Clinical research have concentrated on the prevention of bacteremia by administration of antimicrobial drugs prior to therapy since studies on the efficacy of antibiotic prophylaxis of IE in people are debatable. Before the germs penetrate the circulatory system, one strategy has been to apply topical antiseptics to them in order to combat them. When used as a mouthwash or an irrigant in the gingival sulcus before tooth extraction, studies have proven the benefits of chlorhexidine and povidone iodine [10, 11], although other studies have failed to significantly change the character and incidence of bacteremia [2, 3]. Despite these contradictory findings, the American Heart Association [4] and the British Society for Antimicrobial Chemo-therapy (BSAC) [4] both advise antiseptic mouth rinse prior to oral invasive operations. The effectiveness of systemic administration of antibiotics on postsurgical bacteremia is a different strategy and one that has been the subject of the most research.

The prevalence of dental streptococcal bacteremia has also been demonstrated to be significantly decreased by intravenous vancomycin and teicoplanin treatment [4, 5]. When it comes to bacteriostatic medications, prophylactic erythromycin is said to have reduced the prevalence of postextraction streptococcal bacteremia from 43% in controls to 15% [6], while clindamycin is said to be more effective than erythromycin. The preventative efficacy of antibiotic prophylaxis on postextraction bacteremia hasn't been contested by many clinical research, nevertheless. When cases of prophylaxis with erythromycin and josamycin were compared to a placebo group, Sefton et al. [7] found no difference in postextraction bacteremia.

## CONCLUSION:-

In most nations, recommendations for IE prophylaxis have been in place for more than 30 years, and they are frequently revised in light of new scientific knowledge. The main principles of prophylaxis include identifying patients who are at cardiac risk, identifying risky procedures, using bactericidal drugs, and achieving serum concentrations that are higher than the MIC of the bacteria most likely to cause endocarditis while treating patients and after the "critical period" of about 9 hours. As a result, most national boards categorise cardiac disorders into several groups based on how risky they are. The classifications may differ slightly among various national guidelines because they are the result of consensus choices. Most regulations include all dental procedures that are known to cause mucosal or gingival bleeding. The AHA provides a list of dental treatments for which prophylaxis is advised against.

Patients who are allergic to penicillin should get 300–600 mg of oral clindamycin instead of the normal regimen of 3 g of oral amoxicillin. In exceptional circumstances, such as in patients with significant cardiac risk, patients receiving several procedures, and patients undergoing general anaesthesia, a maximal regimen is suggested. Amoxicillin (ampicillin) 2 g IV plus gentamicin 1.5 mg/kg IV is advised for this group, but vancomycin 1 g IV plus gentamicin 1.5 mg/kg IV is suggested for individuals who are penicillin-allergic. Along with the use of antibiotic prophylaxis, the majority of committees stress the importance of routine dental checkups for the preservation of excellent oral health in order to lessen the risk of bacterial seeding in patients who are vulnerable to IE.

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