

## **ROLE OF SYSTEMIC ANTIBIOTICS IN MINOR ORAL SURGICAL PROCEDURES: A PILOT STUDY**

**Anushri Ranjan<sup>1</sup>, Ravi Sharma<sup>2\*</sup>, Savya Saanchi Singh<sup>2</sup>, Madhuri Jain<sup>2</sup>**

<sup>1</sup>Department of Oral Medicine and Radiology, Seema Dental College, Rishikesh, Uttarakhand, India.

<sup>2</sup>Department of Maxillofacial Surgery, Smile Carve, Jaipur, Rajasthan, India.

### **Article Info**

*Received 23/07/2015*

*Revised 16/08/2015*

*Accepted 06/09/2015*

### **Key words:-**

Antibiotics,  
Bacteremia, Drug  
resistance, Extractions,  
oral surgery, Surgical  
site infection.

### **ABSTRACT**

Dental extractions and minor surgical procedures for causes other than infection are quite common in any dental practice. All these procedures involve breach in soft tissue and probably hard tissue integrity thereby providing microorganisms to harbor and spread through blood stream. Transient bacteremia is inevitable with surgical procedure of any kind and may lead to septicemia, bacterial endocarditis, toxic shock syndrome, etc. all being life threatening but rare conditions. Prophylactic and post operative antibiotic therapy has been used extensively to prevent surgical site infection and other systemic complications but at the expense of added financial burden, adverse drug effects and drug resistance. The rational to use systemic antibiotics in clean procedures to prevent few rare complications and in availability of broad spectrum local antimicrobial agents should be justified.

### **INTRODUCTION**

Minor oral surgeries and exodontia are frequently performed at dental centers, many of them for non-infectious reasons. Any dental extraction or surgical procedure in the oral cavity is expected to produce bacteremia, mostly anaerobic in nature [1-3]. For decades, dental surgeons around the world have relied upon use of systemic antibiotics for prevention of post operative infection and other associated complications [4-6]. However, recently several studies have questioned this age long wisdom of prescribing antibiotics after minor surgical procedures [5, 7-9]. It has been advocated that the minor surgical procedures and dental extractions if performed under strict aseptic conditions do not produce considerable bacteremia [10].

This study attempts to assess the need of systemic antibiotics followed by aseptic minor intraoral surgical procedures and dental extractions in healthy individuals.

### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

This prospective study was conducted at our maxillofacial aesthetic and dental centre, Jaipur, Rajasthan. The patients reported to our centre from 1<sup>st</sup> June 2013 to 17<sup>th</sup> June 2015 were considered for the study. All healthy ASA I patients without any systemic conditions affecting wound healing or risk of infection, seeking treatment for non-infectious causes and willing to involve in our clinical trial were included in this study. Dental or surgical procedures considered for the inclusion in the study were orthodontic extractions, uncomplicated extractions due to non infectious reasons, biopsy, frenectomies, alveoloplasty and soft tissue excision <1cm. Exclusion criteria for the study were ASA II or above, patients with poor oral hygiene, tobacco chewer or smoker, patient with systemic condition or infectious pathology and procedures other than mentioned above.

Written consent was obtained from all the patients included in this study. A strict aseptic protocol was followed in all the patients. The patients were instructed to gargle with antimicrobial mouthwash (chlorhexidine 0.2% w/v) 15 min prior to the procedure, immediately after the procedure and twice daily thereafter

Corresponding Author

**Ravi Sharma**

Email: - [ravisharma\\_19@yahoo.com](mailto:ravisharma_19@yahoo.com)



for seven days. The surgical wound was closed primarily with 3-0 silk or 4-0 vicryl sutures wherever indicated. Standard post operative and oral hygiene instructions were given to all the patients.

The patients were divided into two groups. The patients were screened for inclusion in the study by the two authors and all the surgeries were performed by the single blinded surgeon while the instructions and prescriptions were given to the patient by another author based upon their respective group. The patients were allotted in the group in alternating fashion for randomization. Group A included patients who were prescribed post operative antibiotics (amoxicillin 500mg per oral thrice daily for seven days) and routine analgesic (Paracetamol 500mg thrice daily per oral for seven days). Group B patients were abstained from systemic antibiotic therapy. Post operative follow up were made on 3<sup>rd</sup>, 7<sup>th</sup> and 30<sup>th</sup> day after the procedure. The post operative assessment was made by the surgeon with the help of clinical examination and intra-oral periapical (IOPA) radiographs.

## RESULTS

Total 118 patients fit in inclusion criteria and were included in the study. 59 patients were allotted in Group A while rest 59 in group B. The age range of group A patients was 9 years to 57 years with the mean age of 31.59. Thirty eight patients were male while twenty one were female. In group B, 32 were male while 27 were female (Fig. 1) within the age range of 8 years to 53 years with the mean age of 30.58.

The details of various procedures performed are enumerated in table 1. The incidence of post-operative complications relevant to the study is tabulated in table 2. On comparing both groups, no significant variations in the pain scores or incidence of swelling were observed. The incidence of dry socket was equal in group A and B respectively.

Significant rise in gastrointestinal complications were observed in group A patients. The local and systemic complications were found to be less in group B as compared to group A. No incidences of post operative fever or drug allergy were found in this study.

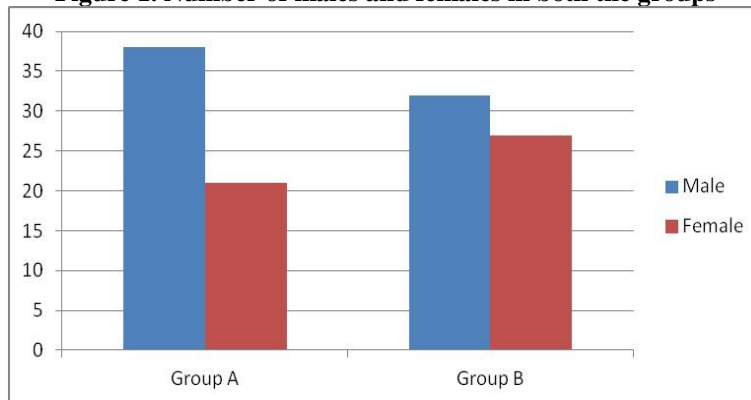
**Table 1. Procedures included in the study**

Procedure	Group A	Group B	Total
Extractions	35	42	77
Biopsy	7	4	11
Alveoloplasty	11	8	19
Frenectomy	4	5	9
Mini screw placement	2	0	2
Total	59	59	118

**Table 2. Incidence of various complications observed in the groups**

Complication	Group A (%)	Group B (%)	Total (%)
Dry socket	1 (16.67%)	1 (33.33%)	2 (22.22%)
Surgical site infection	1 (16.67%)	0 (0%)	1 (11.11%)
Wound dehiscence	1 (16.67%)	1 (33.33%)	2 (22.22%)
Fever	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Gastrointestinal	3 (50%)	1 (33.33%)	4 (44.44%)
Drug allergy	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Total	6 (100%)	3 (100%)	9 (100%)

**Figure 1. Number of males and females in both the groups**



## DISCUSSION

Post operative infection is one of the most common complications of the dental extractions or surgical procedures which may occur in best hands and aseptic conditions [3]. Maintaining near aseptic conditions in oral cavity during and after any procedure is a daunting task mainly due to irregular hard and soft tissue surfaces, flow of saliva, communication with internal and external environment. Any breach in the hard or soft tissue will allow microorganisms to harbor at the surgical site and enter into the blood stream leading to transient bacteremia. Various local factors such as oral hygiene, preoperative infection, wound size, etc. and systemic conditions such as age, diabetes, thrombocytopenia, immunodeficiency, etc. have been suggested to aid in surgical site infection [11]. Surgical site infection may lead to delayed wound healing, pain, swelling, halitosis, bacteremia, fever and other complications; all being embarrassing to any dental surgeon.

Systemic antibiotics have been an essential part of prescriptions after any dental extractions or the oral surgery [4-6]. Preoperative antibiotic prophylaxis can significantly reduce risk of infection or bacteremia in susceptible individuals such as diabetics or patients at risk of bacterial endocarditis [12-14]. However few authors have raised doubts over use of antibiotic prophylaxis [15-17]. Similarly, post operative systemic antibiotic therapy can significantly reduce incidence of infection and other systemic complications following dental procedures [6] but they also add significant financial burden over the patient and other complications such as adverse drug reaction, gastrointestinal disturbances, drug resistance, etc. [5]. Several authors in the past have questioned the wisdom of using antibiotics in clean, non-infected procedures [5, 7-9, 18, 19].

The incidences of local and systemic complications in group A is 5.08% each while in group B, it is 3.39% and 1.7% respectively. No statistical difference was found in the incidence of dry socket after dental extractions in both the groups. One case of alveolar osteitis was found in each group, both being elderly which were successfully managed by intraoral wound irrigation with povidone iodine solution, hydrogen peroxide and eugenol dressing placement [20].

Surgical site infection along with wound dehiscence was found in a young child after lingual frenectomy from the group A. The age of the child, inability to clean the area, tongue movements and large wound can be contributing factor for the surgical site infection and wound dehiscence as in this case.

In this study the incidence of complications are more in antibiotic group as compared to non-antibiotic group. This should not be confused as we have considered both local and systemic complications. The localized complications were almost equal in both the groups while the systemic complications or the incidence of gastrointestinal complaints was three folds in group A

patients as compared to group B which was statistically significant. Various antibiotics are known to cause gastrointestinal disturbances; nausea, vomiting and diarrhea being the commonest [21]. No long term complications were observed in any of our patients.

Various local drug delivery systems have been developed to avoid or in adjunct to systemic antibiotic therapy. Broad spectrum antimicrobial mouth rinses (povidone iodine, chlorhexidine, phenolic compounds, etc) have been found to be effective in postoperative period [22]. Tetracycline fibers have been extensively used in periodontal surgeries and can be used in extraction wounds [23]. Topical endoalveolar application of minocyclin [10 mg in bioresorbable poly (D, L-lactide-co-glycolide) lactide sustained-release microspheres], chlorhexidine gel and clindamycin have also shown to be effective in reducing post operative infection [24-26]. These local drug formulations can effectively deliver drug directly at the surgical site without any systemic adverse effects. Recent biomaterials such as calcium hydroxide have shown osteogenic potential and antimicrobial effect and therefore can be considered for use in post operative wounds [27]. Recently platelet rich plasma (PRP) has been successfully used to accelerate wound healing and prevent alveolar osteitis [28]. The anti-inflammatory and antimicrobial activity of aloe vera can be harnessed in prevention of surgical site infection and early healing [29].

In developing countries where the treatment cost is an essential factor for the patient and the doctor as well, the use of systemic antibiotics should be assessed and reserved for the cases that are at risk of local infection and associated systemic complications. According to the National Center for Disease Control and Prevention approximately one-third of all outpatient antibiotic prescriptions are unnecessary [30]. The misuse of antibiotics has led to drug resistance which is a problem of great concern [5].

Our study delineates the fact that use of systemic antibiotics might not have any possible advantage in clean and uninfected surgical wound healing process. Further, systemic antibiotics can contribute to the systemic adverse drug effect and added cost in the treatment of the patient and thereby can be avoided or replaced by local drug system at the discretion of the consulting surgeon and other factors.

We have included variety of minor oral surgical procedures involving hard and soft tissues and patients from various age groups have been included which is the strength of the study. Small sample size, lack of patient blinding, lack of local site and blood culture investigations are the main drawback of the study. Multicentric trials or studies with large sample size are needed to further assess the merits and demerits of using systemic antibiotics in clean surgical procedures. The decision of using antibiotics after these surgeries should be made by the surgeon only after thorough local and systemic examination, type of the pathology and the post operative



wound. Aseptic protocols and local drug deliveries can substantially reduce the need for systemic antibiotics in many patients and can significantly reduce the cost of the treatment.

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENT: NIL**

**CONFLICT OF INTEREST: NIL**

## REFERENCES

1. Rajasuo A, Nyfors S, Kanervo A, Jousimies-Somer H, Lindqvist C, Suuronen R. (2004). Bacteremia after plate removal and tooth extraction. *Int J Oral Maxillofac Surg*, 33(4), 356-60.
2. Rajasuo A, Perkki K, Nyfors S, Jousimies-Somer H, Meurman JH. (2004). Bacteremia following surgical dental extraction with an emphasis on anaerobic strains. *J Dent Res*, 83(2), 170-4
3. Powell CA, Mealey BL, Deas DE, McDonnell HT, Moritz AJ. (2005). Post-surgical infections, prevalence associated with various periodontal surgical procedures. *J Periodontol*, 76(3), 329-33.
4. Yoshii T, Hamamoto Y, Muraoka S, Furudoi S, Komori T. (2002). Differences in postoperative morbidity rates, including infection and dry socket, and differences in the healing process after mandibular third molar surgery in patients receiving 1-day or 3- day prophylaxis with lenampicillin. *J Infect Chemother*, 8, 87-93.
5. Dar-Odeh NS, Abu-Hammad OA, Al-Omiri MK, Khraisat AS, Shehabi AA. (2010). Antibiotic prescribing practices by dentists, a review. *Ther Clin Risk Manag*, 6, 301-6.
6. Bischof WH. (1998). The use of systemic antibiotics in dental practice. *Ann R Australas Coll Dent Surg*, 14, 62-5.
7. Oswal S, Ravindra S, Sinha A, Manjunath S. (2014). Antibiotics in periodontal surgeries, A prospective randomised cross over clinical trial. *J Indian Soc Periodontol*, 18(5), 570-4.
8. Poeschl PW, Eckel D, Poeschl E. (2004). Postoperative prophylactic antibiotic treatment in third molar surgery — a necessity? *J Oral Maxillofac Surg*, 62, 3-8
9. Hill M. (2005). No benefit from prophylactic antibiotics in third molar surgery. *Evid Based Dent*, 6(1), 10
10. Lockhart PB, Brennan MT, Sasser HC, Fox PC, Paster BJ, Bahrani-Mougeot FK. (2008). Bacteremia Associated with Tooth Brushing and Dental Extraction. *Circulation*, 117(24), 3118-3125.
11. Barasch A, Safford MM, Litaker MS, Gilbert GH. (2008). Risk factors for oral postoperative infection in patients with diabetes. *Spec Care Dentist*, 28(4), 159-66.
12. Salmerón-Escobar JI, Del Amo-Fernández de Velasco A. (2006). Antibiotic prophylaxis in Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery. *Med Oral Patol Oral Cir Bucal*, 11, E 292-6.
13. Gutiérrez JL , Bagán JV, Bascones A, Llamas R, Llena J, Morales A, Noguerol B, Planells P, Prieto J , Salmerón JI. (2006). Consensus document on the use of antibiotic prophylaxis in dental surgery and procedures. *Med Oral Patol Oral Cir Bucal*, 11, E188-205.
14. Wilson W, Taubert KA, Gewitz M, Lockhart PB, Baddour LM, Levison M, Bolger A, Cabell CH, Takahashi M, Baltimore RS, Newburger JW, Strom BL, Tani LY, Gerber M, Bonow RO, Pallasch T, Shulman ST, Rowley AH, Burns JC, Ferrieri P, Gardner T, Goff D, Durack DT, American Heart Association Rheumatic Fever, Endocarditis and Kawasaki Disease Committee, Council on Cardiovascular Disease in the Young, Council on Clinical Cardiology, Council on Cardiovascular Surgery and Anesthesia, Quality of Care and Outcomes Research Interdisciplinary Working Group, American Dental Association. (2006). Prevention of infective endocarditis, guidelines from the American Heart Association, a guideline from the American Heart Association Rheumatic Fever, Endocarditis and Kawasaki Disease Committee, Council on Cardiovascular Disease in the Young, and the Council on Clinical Cardiology, Council on Cardiovascular Surgery and Anesthesia, and the Quality of Care and Outcomes Research Interdisciplinary Working Group. *J Am Dent Assoc*, 138(6), 739-45, 747-60.
15. Monaco G, Tavernese L, Agostini R, Marchetti C. (2009). Evaluation of Antibiotic Prophylaxis in Reducing Postoperative Infection After Mandibular Third Molar Extraction in Young Patients. *J Oral Maxillofac Surg*, 67, 1467-72.
16. Costantinides F, Clozza E, Ottaviani G, Gobbo M, Tirelli G, Biasotto M. (2014). Antibiotic prophylaxis of infective endocarditis in dentistry, clinical approach and controversies. *Oral Health Prev Dent*, 12(4), 305-11.
17. Lawler B, Sambrook PJ, Goss AN. (2005). Antibiotic prophylaxis for dentoalveolar surgery, is it indicated? *Aust Dent J*, 50(4 Suppl 2), S54-9.
18. S R, Reddy B P. (2014). Efficacy of postoperative prophylactic antibiotic therapy in third molar surgery. *J Clin Diagn Res*, 8(5), ZC14-6.
19. Lodi G, Figini L, Sardella A, Carrassi A, Del Fabbro M, Furness S. (2012). Antibiotics to prevent complications following tooth extractions. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 14, 11, CD003811.
20. Blum IR. (2002). Contemporary views on dry socket (alveolar osteitis), a clinical appraisal of standardization, aetiopathogenesis and management, a critical review. *Int. J. Oral Maxillofac. Surg*, 31, 309-317.
21. Montgomery EH, Kroeger DC. (1984). Use of antibiotics in dental practice. *Dent Clin North Am*, 28(3), 433-53.
22. Mandel ID. (1994). Antimicrobial mouthrinses, overview and update. *J Am Dent Assoc*, 125 Suppl 2, 2S-10S.



23. Sakellari D, Vouros I, Konstantinidis A. (2003). The use of tetracycline fibres in the treatment of generalised aggressive periodontitis, clinical and microbiological findings. *J Int Acad Periodontol*, 5(2), 52-60.
24. Stavropoulos MF, Shugars DA, Phillips C, Conrad SM, Fleuchaus PT, White RP Jr. (2006). Impact of topical minocycline with third molar surgery on clinical recovery and Health-Related Quality of Life Outcomes. *J Oral Maxillofac Surg*, 64, 1059–65.
25. Haraji A, Rakhshan V. (2015). Chlorhexidine gel and less difficult surgeries might reduce post-operative pain, controlling for dry socket, infection and analgesic consumption, a split-mouth controlled randomised clinical trial. *J Oral Rehabil*, 42(3), 209-19.
26. Vezeau PJ. (2000). Dental extraction wound management, medicating postextraction sockets. *J Oral Maxillofac Surg*, 58(5), 531-7.
27. Mitchell DF, Shankwalker GB. (1958). Osteogenic potential of calcium hydroxide and other materials in soft tissue and bone wounds. *J Dent Res*, 37(6), 1157-63.
28. Rutkowski JL, Fennell JW, Kern JC, Madison DE, Johnson DA. (2007). Inhibition of alveolar osteitis in mandibular tooth extraction sites using platelet-rich plasma. *J Oral Implantol*, 33(3), 116-21.
29. G Sujatha, G Senthil Kumar, J Muruganandan, T Srinivasa Prasad. (2014). Aloe Vera in Dentistry *J Clin Diagn Res*, 8(10), ZI01–ZI02.
30. Swift JQ & Gulden WS. (2002). Antibiotic therapy—managing odontogenic infections. *Dent Clin North Am*, 46(4), 623-633.

