### Available online on www.ijpcr.com

International Journal of Pharmaceutical and Clinical Research 2023; 15(6); 165-172

**Original Research Article** 

# **Risk Factors and Etiological Analysis of Surgical Site Infections** Following Abdominal Caesareans

Isha Yadav<sup>1</sup>, Desh Nidhi Singh<sup>2</sup>, R.Sujatha<sup>3</sup>, Khutija Sarah<sup>4</sup>, Suneet Kumar Yadav<sup>4</sup>. Deepak Sameer Bind<sup>5</sup>\*

<sup>1</sup>P.G. student, Department of Microbiology, Rama Medical College Hospital & Research Centre

<sup>2</sup>Professor, Department of Microbiology, Rama Medical College Hospital & Research Centre

<sup>3</sup>Professor & HOD, Department of Microbiology, Rama Medical College Hospital & Research Centre

<sup>4</sup>Assistant Professor Department of Microbiology, Rama Medical College Hospital & Research Centre

<sup>5</sup>Demonstrator, Department of Microbiology, Rama Medical College Hospital & Research Centre

Received: 25-03-2023 / Revised: 21-04-2023 / Accepted: 15-05-2023 Corresponding author: Deepak Sameer Bind Conflict of interest: Nil

### Abstract

**Background:** The present study aimed to analyse the risk factors and etiological agent of Surgical site infection (SSI) following abdominal caesareans. Change in microbial profile and their sensitivity compel clinicians to conduct periodic analysis of SSI in their area.

**Material & Methods:** This was a cross-sectional prospective analytical study conducted on 264 cases undergoing abdominal caesareans. Risk factors were asses that cause SSI. Patients were followed from the day of surgery till 30 days after the discharge. Samples collected from the wounds were processed by conventional microbiological methods, and AST was performed by using the Kirby Bauer disk diffusion method.

**Result:** Postoperative hospital stay (65.4%), emergency procedures (81.8%), and patients with anaemia (96.3%) are significantly associated with the occurrence of SSI. The most common pathogen causing SSI was *E coli* (25.4%), followed by Pseudomonas aeruginosa (21.8%) and Staphylococcus aureus (16.3%), while the least isolated organism was Proteus (3.63%) and Acinetobacter (3.63%).

**Conclusion:** To decrease the chances of SSI, a proper assessment of risk factors should be carefully done, and also, we should have to decrease the duration of surgeries, focus on antimicrobial audit, and ensures proper management. Also, conduct periodic surveillance to check on SSI.

Keywords: SSI, Caesarean, Emergency Procedures, Antimicrobial Susceptibility Pattern.

This is an Open Access article that uses a funding model which does not charge readers or their institutions for access and distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0) and the Budapest Open Access Initiative (http://www.budapestopenaccessinitiative.org/read), which permit unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided original work is properly credited.

### Introduction

Surgical site infection (SSI) is a common, generic postoperative event that causes considerable morbidity but sometimes leads to death. Surveillance of SSI is an important infection control activity [1]. SSIs are responsible for increasing the treatment cost, length of hospital stay, and significant morbidity and mortality.

Yadav et al.

International Journal of Pharmaceutical and Clinical Research

Despite the technical advances in infection control and surgical practices, SSI still continues to be a major problem, even in hospitals with the most modern facilities [2]. These infections are usually caused by both exogenous and endogenous microorganisms, which were enter the operative wound either during the surgery (primary infection) or after the surgery (secondary infection). Primary infections are usually more serious than secondary infections, appearing within five to seven days of surgery [3]. Most of the SSIs are uncomplicated and involve only the skin and subcutaneous tissue but sometimes can progress to the internal organ or body cavity, causing tissue necrosis. The usual presentation of infected surgical wounds can be identified by pain, tenderness, warmth, erythema, swelling, and pus formation [4,5]. Surgical site infections remain a major cause of hospital-acquired infections irrespective of improvements being done in operating room practices, instrument sterilization methods, better surgical techniques, and the best efforts of infection prevention strategies. SSI rates are still increasing globally, even in hospitals with the most modern facilities and standard protocols of preoperative preparation and antibiotic prophylaxis[6].

Most research on surgical site infections in abdominal caesarean section patients has been conducted outside India[7].As a result, not much information is accessible on the rates of SSI taking after abdominal caesarean segment in Indian clinics, particularly in Kanpur, U.P. The data also lack knowledge of common pathogens causing surgical site infection in abdominal caesarean. Therefore, there is a need to investigate intraoperative and postoperative risk factors and microbial analysis for SSI after abdominal caesarean.

# **Material & Methods**

This was a prospective cross-sectional study was carried out in the Department of

Microbiology and Department of Obstetrics and Gynaecology, Rama Medical College Hospital & Research Centre Mandhana, Kanpur, from July 2022 to April 2023. The institutional ethical committee approved the study protocol.

The patients were observed for any sign and symptoms of SSI for 30 days. Patients developed SSI were screened for microbial investigations. Pus discharge was collected from the surgical incision site with sterile cotton swabs. The bacterial isolates obtained were identified as per standard identification procedures [8].

The antimicrobial sensitivity testing for all the isolates were done on Muller Hinton agar (Himedia, Mumbai) by Kirby-Bauer disc diffusion method McFarland 0.5 standard. The antibiotic susceptibility test result were interpreted as per CLSI 2022 guidelines. Data was recorded on a predesigned study questionnaire and managed on an Excel spreadsheet.

**Inclusion Criteria:** All female patient undergone abdominal surgery below 40 years of age were included in this study.

**Exclusion Criteria:** The HIV infected patients and patients on steroidal therapy excluded.

# Ethical Approval

Permission to collect samples was obtained from Rama Medical College, Hospital &Research Centre, Kanpur. Informed consent was obtained from all patients or guardian.

### Result

Out of 264 caesarean cases, 69 (26.5%) showed indication of SSI, while 195 (73.9%) showed no signs of SSI. Out of 69 cases, 55 (79.7%) samples were culture positive, while 14 (20.2%) were culture negative. The majority of the patients (62.5%) were in the age group of 21-30 years, followed by those in the age group 31-40 (33.3%), while only 4.16% were below the age group of 20 year (Table 1).

Most of the SSI cases are found in the age group between 21-30 (10.2%), in which superficial wound was most common (96.3%), followed by deep infection(3.6%). (Table 2). A total of nine types of organisms were isolated from pus culture in which E.coli (25.4%) was most common. followed by Pseudomonas (21.8%), Staphylococcus aureus (16.3%); other isolated organisms were MRSA (5.45%), MSSA(10.9%), CONS(7.2%), Klebsiella *spp* (5.45%), *Proteus* (3.63%) and Acinetobacter (3.63%) (Table 3).

Risk factors include Anaemia (96.3%), Emergency procedures (81.8%). Duration of postoperative hospital (65.4%) were the most common factor associated with surgical site infections. Table 4 lists the risk factors associated with SSI. The most effective antibiotic against gram-negative were Piperacillin-tazobactam bacilli followed by Meropenem and Imipenem, colistin (Table 5). Amikacin was the most effective drug against gram-positive cocci, followed by Vancomycin, Teicoplanin & Linezolid. (Table 6).

Age Group	SSI Cases	Percentage
11-20	2	0.75%
21-30	27	10.2%
31-40	26	9.84%

Table 2: Distribution of Wound Type				
Type of WoundNumbersPercentage (%)				
Superficial	53	96.3%		
Organ-Specific	0	0%		
Deep	2	3.6%		

Organism Isolated	Numbers	Percentage
Staphylococcus aureus	9	16.3%
MRSA	3	5.45%
MSSA	6	10.9%
Cons	4	7.2%
E.coli	14	25.4%
Klebsiella Spp.	3	5.45%
Proteus spp	2	3.63%
Pseudomonas spp	12	21.8%
Acinetobacter spp	2	3.63%
Total	55	

### Table 3. Types of Organisms Isolated

### Table 4. Common Risk Factors Associated with SSI

Table 4. Common Misk Factors Associated with 551				
Risk Factors	Range	Number of Patients		
BMI	>25	40		
Hb	<11	53		
Post-Hospital Stay	>5	36		
Diabetic Mellitus	-	9		
Elective Surgery	-	10		
Emergency Surgery	-	45		

Table 5: Antimicrobial Susceptibility Pattern of Gram-Negative Bacilli

Antibiotics	E.coli	Pseudomonas	Proteus	Acinetobacter	Klebseilla
Used	(n=14)	spp.	spp.	spp.	spp.
		(n=12)	(n=2)	(n=2)	(n=3)
СОТ	85%	44%	100%	100%	100%
GEN	78%	58%	100%	100%	66%
AK	92%	91%	100%	100%	66%
ТОВ	71%	16%	100%	100%	66%
ТЕ	85%	91%	50%	100%	100%
CIP	85%	58%	50%	0%	33%
CTR	57%	0%	100%	0%	100%
CPM	78%	0%	100%	0%	66%
CTX	64%	0%	100%	0%	100%
CAZ	85%	33%	100%	100%	100%
CFS	100%	41%	100%	50%	100%
LE	85%	91%	50%	100%	100%
OF	64%	75%	50%	100%	100%
AMC	57%	0%	50%	0%	0%
IPM	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
MRP	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
PI	78%	91%	100%	50%	66%
NET	92.8%	83%	100%	50%	100%
A/S	42%	0%	50%	0%	0%
СРТ	64%	0%	50%	0%	100%
AMP	64%	0%	100%	100%	100%
TCC	71%	41%	50%	100%	0%
TGC	100%	16%	50%	50%	66%
PB	100%	100%	0%	100%	100%
CL	100%	100%	0%	100%	100%
AT	92%	75%	100%	50%	100%
PTZ	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Table 6: Antimicrobial Susceptibility Pattern Of Gram-Positive Cocci

Antibiotics Used	Staph. aureus	CONS	MRSA	MSSA
СОТ	77%	100%	66%	66%
GEN	88%	100%	66%	83%
AK	100%	100%	100%	100%
ТОВ	55%	100%	33%	66%
ТЕ	77%	75%	100%	83%
CIP	55%	25%	66%	66%
LE	77%	100%	100%	66%
OF	77%	75%	66%	83%
NET	66%	100%	100%	83%
TGC	88%	100%	66%	83%
СХ	77%	100%	0%	100%
СРТ	44%	50%	33%	50%
Р	0%	25%	0%	0%
LZ	100%	100%	100%	100%
VA	100%	100%	100%	100%
TEI	100%	100%	100%	83%

International Journal of Pharmaceutical and Clinical Research

AZM	55%	75%	100%	33%
Ε	33%	75%	100%	83%
CD	33%	75%	100%	83%

### Discussion

In our study, Emergency procedures were a significant risk factor for SSI, while in an Irish case-control study by Saeed et al., emergency C.S. was delivered by 75% of women with SSI and 25% by elective C.S., and the overall rate of SSI following C.S. Emergency C.S. was an was 2%.[9]. independent risk factor for Caesarean Surgery, which was consistent with the present and other studies.[19,20]. Also, 7-12% of hospitalized patients end up with hospital-acquired infections globally, with more than 1.4 million people suffering from infectious complications acquired in the hospital [10]. Surgical site infection was an important outcome indicator after surgery. The situation was worsened by the emergence of polymicrobial-resistant strains of nosocomial pathogens [11]. The infection rate in the present study was 21%, including post-discharge surveillance, and compares favourably with other reported rates ranging from 2.5 to 41.9% [12-16]. Wound-related complication like surgical site infection following caesarean section was a major cause of morbidity and mortality, increasing both the duration of patient hospitalization and hospital costs [17]. It was the most common infection in surgical patients and constitutes 15% of nosocomial infections [18]. Most surgical site infections are caused by contamination of an incision with microorganisms present in the patient's own body during surgery [19]. Most surgical site infections are preventable [20]. Measures can be taken in the pre-, intra-, and postoperative phases of care to reduce the risk of infection [21, 22]. Proper postoperative surveillance of cases with risk factors reduces the incidence and complications of wound infection [23]. In India, the incidence of postoperative infections in various hospitals varies from 10 to 25% [24, 25, 26]. In the present study,

264 samples were tested, out of which only 55 samples were found to be positive for SSI. A body mass index of more than 25 has been shown to affect the outcome of surgery [27, 28, 29]. The local changes, such as the increase in adipose tissue, a need for larger incisions, decreased circulation to fat tissue, and an increase in local tissue trauma related to retraction, contribute to an increased incidence of SSI in these patients [30, 31]. Preoperative anaemia was an important predictor of infection and has been proved by several other studies [26, 32, 33]. In our study, SSI was significantly associated with patients who have anaemia (96.3%). Patients who received antibiotics 2 hours before surgery were found to be less prone to SSI as compared to those who did not receive it in a timely fashion. This association was found to be statistically significant, which was in accordance with other studies [34, 35, 36]. Shapiro et al. reported that with each hour of surgery, the infection rate almost doubles [37]. Α prolonged preoperative stay with exposure to the hospital environment, its ubiquitous therapies, and diagnostic procedures, microflora, including multidrug-resistant organisms, have been shown to increase the rate of SSI [38] as compared to Kowli et al. found an infection rate of 17.4% when the preoperative stay was 0-7 days and an infection rate of 71.4% with the preoperative stay of more than 21 days [16] while in our study postoperative hospital stay (65.4%) more than five days were significantly associated with the occurrence of SSI while Anvikar et al. in their study demonstrated an infection rate of 1.76% when the preoperative stay was up to one day, which increased to 5% when the preoperative stay was more than one week [12].

Common causative organisms leading to post-LSCS SSI include Gram-negative bacteria, anaerobes, and Staphylococcus aureus [36], while in our study, common isolates are E.coli(25.4%), Pseudomonas(21.8%), and Staphylococcus aureus(16.3%).

# Conclusion

In this study, we concluded that to decrease the chances of SSI, a proper assessment of risk factors should be carefully done, and also we should have to decrease the duration of surgeries, focus on antimicrobial audit, and ensure proper management. Also, conduct periodic surveillance to check on SSI.

## Acknowledgement

We deeply acknowledge, Our Principal Dr. (col).B.K Prasad, Dr. R.Sujatha (HOD & Professor, Department of Microbiology), and all the teaching & nonteaching staff of RMCH&RC, Kanpur, UP India, for their encouragement and provide facilities for this research.

# References

- T. C. Horan, R. P. Gaynes, W. J. Martone, W. R. Jarvis, and T. G. Emori, CDC definitions of nosocomial surgical site infections: a modification of CDC definitions of surgical wound infections, Infection Control and Hospital Epidemiology. 1992; 13: 606– 608;
- 2. Owens CD, Stoessel K. Surgical site infections: epidemiology, microbiology, and prevention. J Hosp Infect. 2008; 70 (2): 3-10.
- 3. Pradhan GB, Agrawal J. Comparative study of postoperative wound infection following emergency lower segment caesarean section with and without the topical use of fusidic acid. Nepal Med Coll J. 2009;11(3):189-91.
- 4. Ahmed, MI. Prevalence of nosocomial wound infection among postoperative patients and antibiotics patterns at a

teaching hospital in Sudan. N Am J Med Sci .2012;4(1):29-34.

- Mulu W, Kibru G, Beyene G, Datie M. Postoperative nosocomial infections and antimicrobial resistance patterns of bacterial isolates among patients admitted at FelegeHiwot Referral Hospital, Bahirdar, Ethiopia. Ethiop J Health Sci. 2012;22(1):7-18.
- Shrivastava Ashish Shrivastava Jyoti, Sharma Niharika, Khan Jeeshan. Surgical Site Infection in 160 Post-Operative Patients in a Government Hospital: A Prospective Observational Study. International Journal of Health Sciences & Research. 2016; 6(2):100-106.
- 7. De D, Saxena S, Mehta G, Yadav R, Dutta R. Risk factor analysis and microbial etiology of surgical site infections following lower segment caesarean section. International Journal of Antibiotics. 2013;2013.
- J. G. Collee and W. Marr, Culture of bacteria, in Mackie & McCartney Practical Medical Microbiology, J. G. Collee, B. P. Marmion, G. F. Andrew, and A. Simmons, Eds., Churchill Livingstone, Elsevier, 14th edition, 1996; 113-119.
- Saeed KB, Corcoran P, O'Riordan M, et al. Risk factors for surgical site infection after caesarean delivery: a case-control study. Am J Infect Control. 2019; 47:164-169.
- 10. Schneid-Kofman N, Sheiner E, Levy A, et al. Risk factors for wound infection following caesarean deliveries. Int J Gynaecol Obstet. 2005; 90:10-15.
- Martens MG, Kolrud BL, Faro S, et al. Development of wound infection or separation after caesarean delivery. Prospective evaluation of 2,431 cases. J Reprod Med. 1995; 40:171-175.
- 12. Introduction, in Prevention of Hospital Acquired Infections—A Practical Guide, G. Ducel, J. Fabry, and L. Nicolle, Eds., WHO, Geneva, Switzerland, 2nd edition, 2002, http://www

.who.int/csr/resources/publications/wh ocdscsreph200212.pdf.

- U. Kamat, A. Ferreira, R. Savio, and D. Motghare, Antimicrobial resistance among nosocomial isolates in a teaching hospital in Goa, Indian Journal of Community Medicine, 2008;33(2): 89–92.
- 14. A. R. Anvikar, A. B. Deshmukh, A. S. Damle, et al., A one-year prospective study of 3280 surgical wounds, Indian Journal of Medical Microbiology, 1999; 17:129–132.
- 15. S. L. Agarwal, Study of postoperative infections, Indian Journal of Surgery, 1972; 34:314–320.
- 16. A. S. Rao and M. Harsha, Postoperative wound infections, Journal of the Indian Medical Association, 1975; 64(4):90–93.
- 17. B. S. Tripathy and N. Roy, Postoperative wound sepsis, Indian Journal of Surgery, 1984; 47:285–288.
- S. S. Kowli, M. H. Nayak, A. P. Mehta, and R. A. Bhalerao, Hospital Infection, Indian Journal of Surgery, 1985; 48:475–486.
- 19. Protocol for surgical site infection surveillance with a focus on settings with limited resources [Internet], May 2022. https:// www.who.int/publications/i/item/proto col-for-surgical-siteinfectionsurveillance-with-a-focus-on-settingswith-limitedresources.
- 20. L. McKibben, T. Horan, J. I. Tokars, et al., Guidance on public reporting of healthcare-associated infections: recommendations of the Healthcare Infection Control Practices Advisory Committee, American Journal of Infection Control, 2005; 33(4): 217– 226.
- 21. N. M. Kaplan, A. A. Smadi, M. I. Al-Taani, and M. A. ElQudah, Microbiology of wound infection after caesarean section in a Jordanian hospital, Eastern Mediterranean Health Journal, 2003; 9:5-6: 1068–1074.

- 22. P. Lakhan, J. Doherty, M. Jones, and A. Clements, A systematic review of maternal intrinsic risk factors associated with surgical site infection following cesarean sections, Healthcare Infection, 2010; 15(2): 35–41.
- 23. P. J. Jenks, M. Laurent, S. McQuarry, and R. Watkins, Clinical and economic burden of surgical site infection (SSI) and 10 International Journal of Reproductive Medicine predicted financial consequences of elimination of SSI from an English hospital, Journal of Hospital Infection, 2014; 86(1): 24 – 33, 2014.
- 24. D. L. Stevens, A. L. Bisno, H. F. Chambers, et al., Practice guidelines for the diagnosis and management of skin and soft-tissue infections, Clinical Infectious Diseases, 2005; 41(10): 1373 –1406.
- 25. S. Bärwol ff, D. Sohr, C. Ge offers, et al., Reduction of surgical site infections after Caesarean delivery using surveillance, Journal of Hospital Infection, 2006; 64(2): 156-161.
- 26. N. Schneid-Kofman, E. Sheiner, A. Levy, and G. Holcberg, Risk factors for wound infection following cesarean deliveries, International Journal of Gynecology and Obstetrics, 2005; 90(1): 10–15.
- 27. Z. Canturk, B. C, etinarslan, and I. Tarkun, Nosocomial infections and obesity in surgical patients, Obesity Research, 2003; 11(6):69–775.
- 28. E. Waisbren, H. Rosen, E. Eriksson, A. M. Bader, S. R. Lipsitz, and S. O. Rogers Jr., Percent body fat and prediction of surgical site infection, Journal of the American College of Surgeons, 2010; 210(4) 381–389.
- 29. P. S. Choban, R. Heckler, J. Binge, and L. Flancbaum, Increased incidence of nosocomial infections in obese surgical patients, American Surgeon, 1995; 61(11): 1001–1005.
- P.-O. Nystrom, A. Jonstam, H. Hojer, and L. Ling, Incisional infection after colorectal surgery in obese patients,

Acta Chirurgica Scandinavica, 1987; 153(3):225–227.

- 31. P. Walter, M. Zwahlen, A. Busen, et al., The association of preoperative anemia and perioperative allogeneic blood transfusion with the risk of surgical site infection, Transfusion, 2009; 49(9): 1964–1970.
- 32. M. Zhou and L. Chen, Study of highrisk factors of surgical site infection after cesarean section, Di Jun Yi Da Xue Xue Bao, 2005; 25(8): 1075–1078.
- 33. C. A. Killian, E. M. Graffunder, T. J. Vinciguerra, and R. A. Venezia, Risk factors for surgical-site infections following cesarean section, Infection Control and Hospital Epidemiology, 2001; 22(10): 613–617.
- 34. M. Weinberg, J. M. Fuentes, A. I. Rinz, et al., Reducing infection among women undergoing cesarean section in Columbia, Archives of Internal Medicine, 2001;161(19): 2357–2365.

- 35. J. Shetty, S. Rajshekhar, and A. Kamath, Short-term antibiotic prophylaxis for emergency cesarean section: is there a difference? Internet Journal of Gynecology and Obstetrics, 2009; 11(1).
- 36. M. Shapiro, A. Munoz, and I. B. Tager, Risk factors for infection at the operative site after abdominal or vaginal hysterectomy, New England Journal of Medicine, 1982; 307(27): 1661–1666.
- 37. W. A. Altemeier, W. R. Culbertson, and R. P. Hummel, Surgical considerations of endogenous infections—sources, types, and methods of control, Surgical Clinics of North America, 1968; 48(1): 227–240.
- 38. F. G. Cunningham and J. P. Van Dorsten, Eds., Operative Obstetrics, McGraw Hill, New York, NY, USA, 2 edition, 2002.