Surgical Site Infections (SSIs) constitute a prevalent nosocomial concern among surgical patients. The incidence of SSIs typically ranges from 1-2% in the context of clean surgeries, irrespective of the use of antibiotic prophylaxis. Frequently, a single preoperative dose of antibiotics administered up to 60 minutes before surgery suffices. Effective prevention of SSIs involves a multi-faceted approach, those without SSIs, highlighting the critical need for intervention [11]. Care Unit (ICU) stays, and a doubled risk of mortality compared to face a higher likelihood of hospital readmission, increased Intensive effective preventive measures [8-10]. Patients who experience SSIs excess costs exceeding $1.6 billion, underscores the urgency of increase in hospital days, totaling 3.7 million annually, coupled with The aftermath of SSIs extends beyond the immediate postoperative in SSI rates across surgery types underscores the complexity of this issue, with clean surgeries exhibiting lower incidence compared to emergency colon surgeries in unsterile conditions [7]. The aftermath of SSIs extends beyond the immediate postoperative period, significantly impacting patients’ quality of life. The substantial increase in hospital days, totaling 3.7 million annually, coupled with excess costs exceeding $1.6 billion, underscores the urgency of effective preventive measures [8-10]. Patients who experience SSIs face a higher likelihood of hospital readmission, increased Intensive Care Unit (ICU) stays, and a doubled risk of mortality compared to those without SSIs, highlighting the critical need for intervention [11]. Effective prevention of SSIs involves a multi-faceted approach, including Surgical Antibiotic Prophylaxis (SAP) and chemoprophylaxis for surgical procedures. SAP, encompassing the administration of antibiotics before surgery, is crucial for preventing SSIs, recognising the invasive nature of surgical interventions [12]. SSIs in orthognathic surgery should follow up on patients for at least one year since SSIs are defined as infections that occur either within 30 days after surgery or within one year after the implantation of foreign material. SSIs would have been under-reported if the study had solely focused on the first 30 days after surgery. Reasons for a later onset of infection (after 30 days) are multifactorial [13]. Chemoprophylaxis, specifically in cardiac and orthopaedic procedures, incorporates decolonisation programs using intranasal mupirocin and chlorhexidine-glucolone baths, targeting staphylococci, notably S. aureus, common in incision site infections after clean surgeries [14]. In light of existing literature, there is a need for a more nuanced understanding of the factors influencing SSI incidence and the effectiveness of preventive strategies. The study by Kudchadkar AA and Bhounsiule SA, involving a diverse patient cohort and a focus on prophylactic antibiotic prescription patterns, provides valuable insights into SSI development [15]. Additionally, the emphasis on Cefazolin, a first-generation cephalosporin, as a preferred choice for prophylaxis in clean surgeries adds specificity to preventive measures [16-18]. Treatment strategies for SSIs involve pathogen identification, source control through incision opening or drainage, immediate empiric antibiotic coverage, timely de-escalation, and local wound care [19]. These strategies aim to effectively manage SSIs and improve patient outcomes. While antibiotic prophylaxis is standard practice in surgical settings to prevent SSIs, there might be limited evidence comparing different dosing regimens, especially in the context of clean surgeries. This

ABSTRACT
Introduction: Surgical Site Infections (SSIs) constitute a prevalent nosocomial concern among surgical patients. The incidence of SSIs typically ranges from 1-2% in the context of clean surgeries, irrespective of the use of antibiotic prophylaxis. Frequently, a single preoperative dose of antibiotics administered up to 60 minutes before surgery suffices. Effective prevention of SSIs involves a multi-faceted approach, those without SSIs, highlighting the critical need for intervention [11]. Care Unit (ICU) stays, and a doubled risk of mortality compared to face a higher likelihood of hospital readmission, increased Intensive effective preventive measures [8-10]. Patients who experience SSIs excess costs exceeding $1.6 billion, underscores the urgency of increase in hospital days, totaling 3.7 million annually, coupled with The aftermath of SSIs extends beyond the immediate postoperative in SSI rates across surgery types underscores the complexity of this issue, with clean surgeries exhibiting lower incidence compared to emergency colon surgeries in unsterile conditions [7]. The aftermath of SSIs extends beyond the immediate postoperative period, significantly impacting patients’ quality of life. The substantial increase in hospital days, totaling 3.7 million annually, coupled with excess costs exceeding $1.6 billion, underscores the urgency of effective preventive measures [8-10]. Patients who experience SSIs face a higher likelihood of hospital readmission, increased Intensive Care Unit (ICU) stays, and a doubled risk of mortality compared to those without SSIs, highlighting the critical need for intervention [11]. Effective prevention of SSIs involves a multi-faceted approach, including Surgical Antibiotic Prophylaxis (SAP) and chemoprophylaxis for surgical procedures. SAP, encompassing the administration of antibiotics before surgery, is crucial for preventing SSIs, recognising the invasive nature of surgical interventions [12]. SSIs in orthognathic surgery should follow up on patients for at least one year since SSIs are defined as infections that occur either within 30 days after surgery or within one year after the implantation of foreign material. SSIs would have been under-reported if the study had solely focused on the first 30 days after surgery. Reasons for a later onset of infection (after 30 days) are multifactorial [13]. Chemoprophylaxis, specifically in cardiac and orthopaedic procedures, incorporates decolonisation programs using intranasal mupirocin and chlorhexidine-glucolone baths, targeting staphylococci, notably S. aureus, common in incision site infections after clean surgeries [14]. In light of existing literature, there is a need for a more nuanced understanding of the factors influencing SSI incidence and the effectiveness of preventive strategies. The study by Kudchadkar AA and Bhounsiule SA, involving a diverse patient cohort and a focus on prophylactic antibiotic prescription patterns, provides valuable insights into SSI development [15]. Additionally, the emphasis on Cefazolin, a first-generation cephalosporin, as a preferred choice for prophylaxis in clean surgeries adds specificity to preventive measures [16-18]. Treatment strategies for SSIs involve pathogen identification, source control through incision opening or drainage, immediate empiric antibiotic coverage, timely de-escalation, and local wound care [19]. These strategies aim to effectively manage SSIs and improve patient outcomes. While antibiotic prophylaxis is standard practice in surgical settings to prevent SSIs, there might be limited evidence comparing different dosing regimens, especially in the context of clean surgeries. This

INTRODUCTION
Surgical Site Infections (SSIs), which encompass infections within the surgical site, pose a significant burden on both patients and healthcare systems worldwide. The classification by the Centres for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) into superficial, deep space, and organ space infections has established a foundational framework for understanding the diverse nature of SSIs [1-3]. Despite considerable efforts, SSIs remain prevalent, contributing to an estimated 500,000 infections annually and accounting for a noteworthy 21.8% of all Healthcare-associated Infections (HAIs) in the United States [4,5]. Observations indicate a disparity in SSI incidence between developed and developing nations, emphasising the need for tailored preventive measures [5]. A study conducted in India notably revealed varying rates between minimally invasive and open surgeries, shedding light on the nuanced factors influencing SSIs in different surgical approaches [6]. In the United States, the variability in SSI rates across surgery types underscores the complexity of this issue, with clean surgeries exhibiting lower incidence compared to emergency colon surgeries in unsterile conditions [7]. The aftermath of SSIs extends beyond the immediate postoperative period, significantly impacting patients’ quality of life. The substantial increase in hospital days, totaling 3.7 million annually, coupled with excess costs exceeding $1.6 billion, underscores the urgency of effective preventive measures [8-10]. Patients who experience SSIs face a higher likelihood of hospital readmission, increased Intensive Care Unit (ICU) stays, and a doubled risk of mortality compared to those without SSIs, highlighting the critical need for intervention [11]. Effective prevention of SSIs involves a multi-faceted approach, including Surgical Antibiotic Prophylaxis (SAP) and chemoprophylaxis for surgical procedures. SAP, encompassing the administration of antibiotics before surgery, is crucial for preventing SSIs, recognising the invasive nature of surgical interventions [12]. SSIs in orthognathic surgery should follow up on patients for at least one year since SSIs are defined as infections that occur either within 30 days after surgery or within one year after the implantation of foreign material. SSIs would have been under-reported if the study had solely focused on the first 30 days after surgery. Reasons for a later onset of infection (after 30 days) are multifactorial [13]. Chemoprophylaxis, specifically in cardiac and orthopaedic procedures, incorporates decolonisation programs using intranasal mupirocin and chlorhexidine-glucolone baths, targeting staphylococci, notably S. aureus, common in incision site infections after clean surgeries [14]. In light of existing literature, there is a need for a more nuanced understanding of the factors influencing SSI incidence and the effectiveness of preventive strategies. The study by Kudchadkar AA and Bhounsiule SA, involving a diverse patient cohort and a focus on prophylactic antibiotic prescription patterns, provides valuable insights into SSI development [15]. Additionally, the emphasis on Cefazolin, a first-generation cephalosporin, as a preferred choice for prophylaxis in clean surgeries adds specificity to preventive measures [16-18]. Treatment strategies for SSIs involve pathogen identification, source control through incision opening or drainage, immediate empiric antibiotic coverage, timely de-escalation, and local wound care [19]. These strategies aim to effectively manage SSIs and improve patient outcomes. While antibiotic prophylaxis is standard practice in surgical settings to prevent SSIs, there might be limited evidence comparing different dosing regimens, especially in the context of clean surgeries. This

Keywords: Chemoprophylaxis, Hernioplasty, Hospital stay, Nosocomial infection, Spectrum antibiotic
study addresses the existing gap in the literature by comprehensively examining SSI incidence, preventive strategies, and the impact on patient outcomes. The findings have the potential to guide healthcare practitioners in tailoring preventive measures, improving patient care, and ultimately reducing the burden of SSIs. This study aimed to compare the rates of postoperative infections following a single preoperative dose of prophylactic antibiotics with those receiving multiple postoperative doses.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This quasi-experimental study was conducted at Shri Nijalingappa Medical College and Research Centre in Bagalkot, Karnataka, India, from January 2020 to June 2021. Ethical clearance was obtained from the institute with Institutional Ethical Committee approval number: SNMC/I/CHSR/2019-20/A-19/1.2.

Inclusion criteria:

- Age group: 18 years and above
- Patients posted for elective clean surgeries
- Patients giving consent for the study

Exclusion criteria:

- Patients posted for emergency surgeries
- Patients with any pre-existing infection at the site of the skin incision
- Patients with immunocompromised status, co-morbid conditions, etc.
- Patients with pre-existing systemic infections who are on antibiotics

Sample size calculation: Sample size calculation was performed using Open Epi software version 2.3.1. At a 95% confidence level and 80% power of the study, α (two-tailed) = 0.050, and at 95% confidence level, β=0.200 with 80% power of the study. The standard normal deviate for α=Zα=1.960. The standard normal deviate for β=Zβ= 0.842.

Formula used: n = (Zα/2+Zβ)^2 * (p1 (1-p1)+p2(1-p2)) / (p1-p2)^2.

According to a study conducted by Garg S et al., the proportion of subjects with SSI in single-dose antibiotics was 8% [2]. The proportion of subjects with SSI in multiple-dose antibiotics was 0%. The estimated sample size was 98=100 in each group, i.e., 100 in the single-dose antibiotics group (Group A) and 100 in the multiple-dose antibiotics group (Group B).

Study Procedure

The process involved obtaining detailed medical histories, conducting thorough clinical examinations, and performing appropriate investigations. The study subjects were divided into two groups:

Group A: Patients received a single dose of broad-spectrum i.v. antibiotics according to the hospital’s antibiotic policy.

Group B: Patients received multiple doses of the same broad-spectrum antibiotic.

In Unit A, considered Group A, patients undergoing clean surgery received a single prophylactic dose of i.v. cefazoline 2 g stat 60 minutes before the skin incision for surgeries lasting up to four hours. If the surgery exceeded four hours, an additional intraoperative dose was administered. In Unit B, considered Group B, patients received multiple doses (i.nj.cetoperazone+Suibactum, 1.5 gm, BD) of postoperative antibiotic prophylaxis for five days, including cefazoline 2 g stat 60 minutes before the skin incision for surgeries lasting up to four hours. Patients in both groups received multimodal analgesia. Postoperatively, patients were examined for febrile episodes and signs of infection through clinical examination and relevant investigations. Dressings were changed on the 2nd postoperative day, and follow-up continued for 30 days in the outpatient department, checking for signs of SSI. Any wound discharge was sent for culture and sensitivity. In cases of suspected wound infection, a culture swab or aspiration was taken using a sterile syringe from the wound depth. If postoperative infections occurred, patients were treated with antibiotics based on culture and sensitivity. Patients were discharged upon completing the i.v. antibiotic course and showing no signs of SSI.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Data coding was performed, followed by entry into Microsoft excel and Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 19.0. Normality was assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk’s test and 2-scores for skewness and kurtosis. Independent parameters of outcome variables were analysed using the Chi-square test and Student’s t-test. Pearson’s correlation coefficient was calculated. A p-value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Out of 200 patients (100 in each group), 39 patients (30 in Group A and 9 in Group B) were unaccounted for due to various reasons like loss to follow-up, premature discharge from the hospital, breach of sterile precautions, personal family obligations, and death. Consequently, the study comprised 161 patients undergoing clean surgeries, with 70 in Group A and 91 in Group B. The mean age of subjects in Group A was 37.46±14.69 years, and in Group B, it was 44.6±12.02 years. The mean age of study participants was 41.25±13.47 years. The largest number of patients (n=51) belonged to the age group of 51-60 years [Table/Fig-1].

The majority of patients in Group A underwent excision procedures for benign tumours 24 (34.3%), while the majority of patients in Group B underwent Inguinal hernioplasty 43 (47.3%) [Table/Fig-3]. In the present study, the incidence of Surgical Site Infection (SSI) in Group A was 1.42%, whereas in Group B it was 2.20%. Overall, SSI was found in 2.5% of the total number of patients. The incidence of SSI was statistically non-significant between the groups (p-value=1.00) [Table/Fig-4-6].

The mean duration of hospital stay was significantly shorter in Group A (6.11±3.87 days) compared to Group B (7.60±4.08 days) with a p-value of 0.000033. Two out of three SSIs showed no organism growth, while one SSI showed Streptococcus species.
had 56% males and 44% females [21]. In contrast to the present study, a 2019 study by Das S et al., in West Bengal reported a gender distribution of 46.7% females and 53.3% males [22].

Regarding surgical procedures, in the present study, 44.3% of the patients in the study group underwent excision surgery, and 41.4% of the control group underwent Lichtenstein hernioplasty. This differs from Bendre DM where 46% in the study group underwent hernioplasty/hernorrhapsy, and 61% in the control group had hernioplasty/hernorrhapsy [23].

In the present study, the incidence of SSI was 1.42% in the study group (Group A single-dose antibiotic group) and 2.2% in the control group (Group B multiple-dose antibiotic group), with a non significant p-value of 1.000. Similar results were obtained in a study by Bendre DM [23].

In contrast to the present study, Bendre DM, reported insignificant differences in mean hospital stay between single-dose and multiple-dose antibiotic groups [23]. Similarly, Tamayo E et al., reported non significant differences in hospital stay between the study and control groups [24].

A study by Akhter MSJ et al., indicated that hospital stays of less than one week, 1-2 weeks, and more than two weeks had SSI incidences of 1.7%, 15.5%, and 39.1%, respectively [25]. Akhter MSJ et al., also showed that 43.5% of cases showed no organism growth, while the present study had two out of three SSIs showing no organism growth, and one SSI showing Streptococcus species [25].

The Surgical Antimicrobial Prophylaxis (SAP) is exclusively aimed at preventing SSIs due to intraoperative wound inoculation and not infections that originate thereafter or in other locations. SAP should be administered and maintained at sufficiently high concentrations in serum, tissue, and the surgical site during the time that the incision is open, but only while the incision is open. No conclusive evidence was identified for the benefit of postoperative continuation of SAP versus discontinuation. When best infection prevention practices were followed, the postoperative continuation of SAP did not add any additional benefit in reducing SSIs. Increasing the duration of antibiotic prophylaxis was associated with a higher risk of acute kidney injury and Clostridium difficile infection but did not lead to a reduction in SSIs [26]. The same conclusion was drawn in the present study, i.e., a single preoperative dose 30-45 minutes before surgery is sufficient.

**Limitation(s)**

The biggest limitation was the loss to follow-up of a few patients during the second and third follow-ups, as well as the unaccountability of patients due to various reasons. Further multicentric randomised controlled studies with larger patient cohorts are needed for stronger evidence.

**CONCLUSION(S)**

There was no significant difference in the incidence of SSI in the groups receiving single and multiple preoperative doses of prophylactic antibiotics. However, the duration of hospital stay was significantly shorter in the group receiving a single dose of preoperative prophylactic antibiotics. Patients receiving a single prophylactic antibiotic dose could be discharged earlier, saving productive hours, income, and reducing the risk of nosocomial infections and associated costs. Additionally, the approach may contribute to the prevention of antibiotic resistance and allergic reactions associated with prolonged antibiotic use. Prolonged preoperative hospital stay for multiple doses of antibiotics has been associated with increased SSI incidence, and the practice of cost-effective short-term antibiotic prophylaxis is crucial. Hence, the present study concludes that for clean surgeries without comorbidities, a single preoperative antibiotic dose is recommended with no or decreased SSI incidence.
REFERENCES


PARTICULARS OF CONTRIBUTORS:
1. Assistant Professor, Department of General Surgery, Nijalingappa Medical College and Kumareshwara Hospital, Bagalkot, Karnataka, India.
2. Senior Resident, Department of General Surgery, Nijalingappa Medical College and Kumareshwara Hospital, Bagalkot, Karnataka, India.
3. Professor, Department of General Surgery, Nijalingappa Medical College and Kumareshwara Hospital, Bagalkot, Karnataka, India.
4. Professor, Department of General Surgery, Nijalingappa Medical College and Kumareshwara Hospital, Bagalkot, Karnataka, India.

NAME, ADDRESS, E-MAIL ID OF THE CORRESPONDING AUTHOR:
Dr. C Shobha,
MCh Doctors New Quarters, Navnagar, Government District Hospital, Navnagar,
Bagalkot-587103, Karnataka, India.
E-mail: drshobhachakna@gmail.com

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