

Review Article Cardiac implantable electronic device infection: Microbiology and antibiotic prophylaxis

Shraddha Shivling Paralkar^{1,*}, Deepa Godbole¹, Swapnil Mundhe¹

¹Dept. of Microbiology, Bharati Hospital, Pune, Maharashtra, India



ARTICLE INFO	A B S T R A C T	
Article history: Received 07-07-2023 Accepted 23-08-2023 Available online 10-10-2023 <i>Keywords:</i> Staphylococcus species Blood culture Pocket infection	Cardiovascular implantable electronic devices (CIED) improve quality of life of patients with cardiac arrhythmias and also improves chances of survival. CIEDs, however it may cause complications. To avoid these complications surgical prophylaxis in CIED insertion is required to avoid infection. Due to the rise in antimicrobial resistance the use of antimicrobial agents should be rational and under control. To prevent resistance of antibiotics their use and duration of therapy should be monitored. The high-end and	
	restricted antibiotics should be used only if organisms grow in cultures or if suggested by infectious disease specialists. This review focuses on empirical antibiotics used as prophylaxis. The purpose of this document is to outline the antimicrobial options which can be used as an empirical prophylactic agent in CIED infections.	
	This is an Open Access (OA) journal, and articles are distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 License, which allows others to remix, tweak, and build upon the work non-commercially, as long as appropriate credit is given and the new creations are licensed under the identical terms.	

For reprints contact: reprint@ipinnovative.com

1. Introduction

Permanent pacemakers (PPMs), implantable cardioverter defibrillators (ICDs), and cardiac resynchronizing therapy (CRT) devices are examples of cardiovascular implantable electronic devices (CIEDs). Compared to low-income nations, high-income nations have a higher rate of CIED implantation. The implantable cardioverter-defibrillator (ICD) implantation rate in India is approximately 0.3 per 100,000 people, while the permanent pacemaker (PPM) implantation rate in India is approximately 3.3 per 100,000 people.¹ Septicaemia, pocket abscess, and skin erosion of the pulse generator or electrode can all result from CIED or PPM insertion. Nearly 40,000 CIED are implanted annually in India.² A survey by Indian Society of Electro cardiology and the Indian Heart Rhythm Society found Pacemaker for bradyarrhythmia was the most common (80%) of the devices implanted.3

After implanting a permanent pacemaker, infectionrelated complications that necessitate a second operation are less likely to occur if antibiotic prophylaxis is taken. *S aureus, E coli, E faecalis,* and *S epidermidis* are among the organisms that are ineffective.⁴ Prevalence of these organisms can differ by countries. Diabetes, chronic renal failure, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, renal procedures, and immunosuppressive therapy are all potential risk factors for CIED infections.⁵

2. Risk Factors of CIED Infection

- 1. **Patient factors:** Comorbidities (renal failure, heart failure, diabetes), fever within 24 hours before the implantation, anticoagulation, and steroid use.
- 2. **Device-related risk factors**: Use of more than two pacing leads and the need for early pocket re-exploration can cause central venous thrombosis.
- 3. **Procedure-related factors:** Procedure time, temporary pacemaker use prior to implantation, early re-intervention and postoperative haematoma at

^{*} Corresponding author. E-mail address: shraddhaparalkar79@gmail.com (S. S. Paralkar).

the device pocket site.6

Table 1: Microbiology in CIED infections

S.NoStudy type		Most	Least
1.	Prospective ⁷ Didier Klug (1997)	S. aureus, S. epidermidis, Pseudomonas aeruginosa	
2.	Cohort ⁸ Daniel Z. Uslan et al (2007)	S aureus, Ecoli, Klebsiella, Enterococcus, CoNS, Strep pneumoniae	Pseudomonas
3.	Prospective ⁹ Antoine Da Costa (1998)	Staphylococcus, epidermidis, hominis, haemolyticus, Enterobacter aerogenes, Serratia marcescens	Enterobacter aerogenes, Serratia marcescens
4.	Prospective ¹⁰ Eugene Y Fu. (1999)	S. aureus, S. epidermidis	
5.	Prospective ¹¹ Jimmy Dy Chua 2000	CoNS, S. aureus	
6.	Cohort study ¹² (2016) Ayman A. Hussein	MRSA (33.8%), CoNS (37.6%)	Enterococci, staphylococci anaerobes, fungi, mycobacteria
7.	2013 ¹³	Staph. Aureus (66%), gram positive cocci (14%)	E coli (3%)
8.	Abdulla Fakhro, 2016 ¹⁴	CoNS(42%), MSSA (25%)	MRSA (4%), Fungal (2%)

* CIED - Cardiovascular implantable electronic device infections

2.1. Diagnostic workup for suspected CIED infection

2.1.1. Pre-operative

- 1. It is necessary to obtain a complete blood count, procalcitonin levels, C reactive protein, and erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR).
- 2. Sets of blood samples before initiating empirical antibiotic therapy.
 - (a) Blood cultures for aerobic, anaerobic and candida species should be sent.

- (b) One Bactec plus one aerobic/F bottle and one Bactec lytic/10 anaerobic/F bottle of blood should be taken and incubated for five days on an automated Bactec FX instrument.
- (c) Blood cultures of fungal and mycobacterial organisms in culture-negative CIED infections; with immunocompromised hosts and central venous catheters.
- 3. Transoesophageal echocardiogram (TEE) should be performed in patients with positive blood cultures or who have systemic symptoms but negative blood cultures as a result of previous antibiotic therapy.

2.2. Intra-operative

- 1. Swab samples from the device for gram stain, and bacterial culture sensitivity.
 - (a) If suspected, consider fungal and mycobacterial cultures and acid-fast bacillus (AFB) smears.
- 2. Generator pocket tissue samples for culture and susceptibility testing.
- 3. Device sonication.
 - (a) Place the extracted device into a sterile jar/container with 50 to 100 ml of sterile saline and seal before submitting to the microbiology laboratory.¹⁵

3. Pathogenesis of Infection

During implantation or subsequent manipulation, lead and/or pulse generator contamination can result in cardiac implantable electronic device infections.⁹ The host, microorganism, or device can all play a role in the infection of the cardiac implantable electronic device (CIED). The air in the operating room, the patient's own skin flora, the materials used to make the surfaces of CIED polymers-silicone and polyvinylchloride adhere better than polytetrafluoroethylene, whereas polyurethane does not adhere as well as polyethylene does. In metals steel shows more bacterial adherence than titanium.¹⁹ The organisms isolated mostly were Gram-positive bacteria (70-90%), especially Coagulase Negative Staphylococci (37.6% of the isolates) and *Staphylococcus aureus* (30.8%), gram negative rods, Enterobacteriaceae and fungi were rare. This may differ from hospital to hospital or country to country. Studies of CIED infections have shown 33.8% Methicillin Resistant S aureus, 37.6% coagulase negative staphylococci. In Italy, 92.5 percent of isolates were gram positives, while coagulase-negative staphylococci (CoNS) were found in 69% of cases and S. aureus in 13.8%. Lead or lead material cultures, blood cultures, pocket tissue cultures, and pocket swab cultures can all be used to identify the source of infection.¹² Systemic infection related to endocarditis on pacemaker leads studied where the duration

 Table 2: Antimicrobial prophylaxis used in different studies (2010-2023)

S.No.	Study	Antimicrobial prophylaxis	Time/Duration
1.	Cohort (2019) ¹⁶	Cephalosporin - cefazolin, cefuroxime Alternatives: vancomycin (also for MRSA), clindamycin	1 hr prior 2 hrs prior
2.	Review ¹⁷ (2022) Post - OP Early management	Cephalexin TMP/SMX, Clindamycin	7-10 days
3.	Review ¹⁸	Vancomycin / Daptomycin	Duration varies according to infection
4.	Update from AHA (2020) ¹⁹	Cefazolin (1-2 gm), vancomycin (15mg/kg), Flucloxacillin (1-2gm) 1st line Vancomycin 2nd line Daptomycin or Linezolid	Cefazolin (1 hr prior), vancomycin (2 hrs prior) Should be tailored according to sensitivity reports.
5.	Sohail MR et al, (2022) ²⁰	Cefazolin 1gm, vancomycin	Cephazolin 1hr prior
6.	Cohort study, Kabulski GM et al (2019) ²¹	Cephalexin (44.3%), doxycycline (10.9%), Clindamycin (8.1%), trimethoprim/ sulfamethoxazole (4.5%)	Post OP- Vancomycin for 14 days (prior MRSA) infection) Cephalexin for 14 days (with existing ICD)
7.	Michael Koutentakis et al. (2014) ²²	Vancomycin, teicoplanin, ciprofloxacin	40-57 days post operative
8.	2011 ²³	Cephazolin (1st generation cephalosporin)/ Vancomycin (if oxacillin resistant staphylococci) Linezolid/daptomycin (if allergic to all above)	Cephazolin (1hr prior) Vancomycin (90-120min prior) Duration after CIED removal: 1. 10-14 days pocket site infection
			2. 14 days blood stream infection3. 4-6 weeks complicated infections
9.	2011 review ²⁴	Cloxacillin / cephalexin 1. Suspected endocarditis with >2 cm vegetation	7-14 days according to blood culture reports.1. 24-72 hrs post extraction of device, 7-14 days for re-implantation depending upon bacteraemia.
10.	Post operative management (2017) ²⁵	 Cefazolin Vancomycin (If not tolerating above antibiotics) Levofloxacin 	 2gm IV over 5 mins of incision repeated intraoperatively after 3 hrs. 1gm IV over 60 min, repeated at every 6 hrs if procedure is ongoing.
12.	Retrospective cohort study ²⁶	Vancomycin (83.1%), daptomycin (12.0%), linezolid (2.4%), cephalosporins (1.7%), rifampin (35.6%), gentamicin (14.0%)	3.500 mg every 24 hrs for 2 doses.

of antibiotic therapy before lead ablation was 9.7 ± 6.1 days in patients with a positive lead culture versus 15.3 ± 6.2 days in patients with a negative lead culture.⁷

4. Clinical Diagnosis

There are four types of CIED infection: Patients with

- 1. Local inflammatory changes at the generator pocket site, such as erythema, swelling, pain, discomfort, drainage, or erosion of the generator and/or leads through the skin.
- 2. Fever and no local changes at the generator pocket site.
- Bacteraemia and no local changes at the generator pocket site.

4. Lead thrombus or vegetation on echocardiography.¹⁵

5. Discussion

Antibiotic prophylaxis can reduce the risk of complications which require repeat operation.⁴ Before insertion of CIED it should be ensured that patients do not have signs of infection. CIED infections are differentiated as Pocket Hematoma, Post-implantation inflammation, Superficial infection of surgical wound and uncomplicated pocket infection.²⁷ The use of antibiotics for surgical prophylaxis has varied from cefazolin to higher end or restricted antibiotics. Vancomycin is an alternative for patients who are allergic to cephalosporins of the first generation. Additionally, daptomycin or linezolid are alternatives if

patient is allergic to both vancomycin and first-generation cephalosporin.²⁸ Antibiotics taken post-operatively do not significantly differ from pre-operative antibiotics. One case with a history of MRSA received vancomycin for 14 days and another one with existing ICD received 14 days of cephalexin prophylaxis. Another patient with prior methicillin-resistant S. aureus bacteraemia as a result of infected haemodialysis fistula, received 14 days of vancomycin for initial placement of a singlechamber pacemaker prophylaxis.²¹ If superficial infection is suspected, oral empirical antibiotics can be started for 14 days after collection of blood samples. The pocket infection should be differentiated clinically from soft tissue infection, hematoma and allergic reactions to dressings, tapes or disinfectants. Monotherapy with cephalexin, clindamycin, trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole, doxycycline, linezolid or cephalexin in combination with doxycycline or trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole are suggested options. The use of Linezolid is restricted to infectious disease specialists.¹⁸ The treatment should cover Staphylococcus aureus as it is most common in CIED infections. Due to the lack of current data on MRSA prevalence and use, treatment decisions should be based on the institution's or patients' risk.¹⁹ The duration of antimicrobial therapy varies from 6 weeks in valve vegetation or septic phlebitis and osteomyelitis to 2 weeks in CIED erosion through skin without obvious purulence.¹⁸ Yeast infections are rare. But candida species are most frequent including C. parapsilosis and C. albicans. In these cases, empirical amphotericin B, either with or without 5-flucytosine, or an echinocandin, can be used as the first line of treatment. It can be then deescalated to fluconazole 400-800 mg daily according to sensitivity of microorganisms or negative cultures.²⁹ Complete device removal is the only effective measure for the eradication of CIED infections. Michael Koutentakis et al. the study has treated 6 CIED infections caused by staph species; the postoperative course of antibiotics was 40-57 days.²²

6. Conclusion

Antibiotic prophylaxis has reduced the infections associated with CIED. In the complicated infections extraction of CIED system remains the option. Though staphylococcus species are leading cause in infections, empiric antimicrobial coverage should be decided based on clinical findings, epidemiologic factors and results of blood cultures and sensitivity. After collection of blood cultures, antibiotics should be tailored according to sensitivity reports. 1st generation cephalosporins are usually recommended as empiric surgical prophylactic. As the antimicrobial resistance is at rise; the use of Vancomycin and Linezolid should be restricted to infectious disease specialists.

7. Source of Funding

None.

8. Conflict of Interest

None.

References

- Sharif Z, Ptaszek LM. Global disparities in arrhythmia care: mind the gap. *Heart Rhythm O2*. 2022;3(6Part B):783–92.
- Bohora S, Vora A, Kapoor A, Arora V, Naik N, Selvaraj R, et al. Consensus statement for implantation and follow-up of cardiac implantable electronic devices in India. *Indian Pacing Electrophysiol* J. 2018;18(6):188–92.
- Shenthar J, Bohra S, Jetley V, Vora A, Lokhandwala Y, Nabar A, et al. A survey of cardiac implantable electronic device implantation in India: By Indian Society of Electrocardiology and Indian Heart Rhythm Society. *Indian Heart J.* 2016;68(1):68–71.
- Mounsey JP, Griffith MJ, Tynan M, Gould FK, Macdermott AF, Gold RG, et al. Antibiotic prophylaxis in permanent pacemaker implantation: a prospective randomised trial. *Br Heart J*. 1994;72(4):339–43.
- Datta G. A study on pacemaker pocket infection. J Cardiol Cardiovasc Med. 2020;5:56–9.
- Tarakji KG, Ellis CR, Defaye P, Kennergren C. Cardiac implantable electronic device infection in patients at risk. *Arrhythm Electrophysiol Rev.* 2016;5(1):65–71.
- Klug D, Lacroix D, Savoye C, Goullard L, Grandmougin D, Hennequin JL, et al. Systemic infection related to endocarditis on pacemaker leads: clinical presentation and management. *Circulation*. 1997;95(8):2098–107.
- Uslan DZ, Sohail MR, Sauver JL, Friedman PA, Hayes DL, Stoner SM, et al. Permanent pacemaker and implantable cardioverter defibrillator infection: a population-based study. *Arch Intern Med.* 2007;167(7):669–75.
- Costa AD, Lelièvre H, Kirkorian G, Célard M, Chevalier P, Vandenesch F, et al. Role of the preaxillary flora in pacemaker infections: a prospective study. *Circulation*. 1998;97(18):1791–5.
- Fu EY, Shepard RK. Permanent pacemaker infections. Card Electrophysiol Rev. 1999;3(1):39.
- Chua JD, Wilkoff BL, Lee I, Juratli N, Longworth DL, Gordon SM. Diagnosis and management of infections involving implantable electrophysiologic cardiac devices. *Ann Intern Med.* 2000;133(8):604–8.
- Hussein AA, Baghdy Y, Wazni OM, Brunner MP, Kabbach G, Shao M, et al. Microbiology of cardiac implantable electronic device infections. *JACC Clin Electrophysiol*. 2016;2(4):498–505.
- Mulpuru SK, Pretorius VG, Birgersdotter-Green UM. Device infections: management and indications for lead extraction. *Circulation*. 2013;128(9):1031–8.
- Fakhro A, Jalalabadi F, Brown RH, Izaddoost SA. Treatment of infected cardiac implantable electronic devices. *Semin Plast Surg.* 2016;30(2):60–5.
- Desimone DC, Sohail MR. Approach to diagnosis of cardiovascular implantable-electronic-device infection. J Clin Microbiol. 2018;56(7):1683–17.
- Goel PK, Rajput P, Sahu AK, Khanna R, Garg N, Tewari S, et al. Incidence, management patterns, and outcomes of cardiovascular implantable electronic device-related infection-A retrospective registry-based analysis. *J Indian Coll Cardiol.* 2022;12(4):156–61.
- Pagore PA, Gaidhane SA. Effects and Complications of Subcutaneous Implantable Cardioverter-Defibrillator in the Prevention of Sudden Cardiac Death: A Narrative Review. *Cureus*. 2022;14(10):e30170.
- 18. Phillips P, Krahn AD, Andrade JG, Chakrabarti S, Thompson CR, Harris DJ, et al. Treatment and Prevention of Cardiovascular

Implantable Electronic Device (CIED) Infections. *CJC Open*. 2022;4(11):946–58.

- 19. Blomström-Lundqvist C, Traykov V, Erba PA, Burri H, Nielsen JC, Bongiorni MG, et al. European Heart Rhythm Association (EHRA) international consensus document on how to prevent, diagnose, and treat cardiac implantable electronic device infections-endorsed by the Heart Rhythm Society (HRS), the Asia Pacific Heart Rhythm Society (APHRS), the Latin American Heart Rhythm Society (LAHRS), International Society for Cardiovascular Infectious Diseases (ISCVID) and the European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases (ESCMID) in collaboration with the European Association for Cardio-Thoracic Surgery (EACTS). *Europace*. 2020;22(4):515–49.
- Cunha CB. Schlossberg's Clinical Infectious Disease. Oxford: Oxford University Press; 2022.
- Kabulski GM, Northup A, Wiggins BS. Postoperative antibiotic prophylaxis following cardiac implantable electronic device placement. J Innov Card Rhythm Manag. 2019;10(8):3777–84.
- Koutentakis M, Siminelakis S, Korantzopoulos P, Petrou A, Priavali E, Mpakas A, et al. Surgical management of cardiac implantable electronic device infections. *J Thorac Dis.* 2014;6(1):173–9.
- Dimitris MS. Infections of Permanent Pacemakers and Implantable Cardioverter-Defibrillators. In: Das RM, editor. Modern Pacemakers -Present and Future. InTech; 2011. p. 381. doi:10.5772/556.
- Gould PA, Gula LJ, Yee R, Skanes AC, Klein GJ, Krahn AD. Cardiovascular implantable electrophysiological device-related infections: a review. *Curr Opin Cardiol.* 2011;26(1):6–11.
- Marriott L. Postoperative Management. In: Poole J, Larson LW, et al., editors. Surgical Implantation of Cardiac Rhythm Devices (e book). Netherlands: Elsevier; 2017. p. 237.
- Talha KM, Ishaq H, Ramesh R, Arshad W, Arshad V, Baddour LM, et al. Association between high vancomycin minimum inhibitory

concentration and clinical outcomes in patients with methicillinresistant Staphylococcus aureus bacteraemia - A retrospective cohort study. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2021;40(7):1503–10.

- Toriello F, Saviano M, Faggiano A, Gentile D, Provenzale G, Pollina AV, et al. Cardiac Implantable Electronic Devices Infection Assessment, Diagnosis and Management: A Review of the Literature. *J Clin Med*. 2022;11(19):5898. doi:10.3390/jcm11195898.
- Baddour LM, Epstein AE, Erickson CC, Knight BP, Levison ME, Lockhart PB, et al. Update on cardiovascular implantable electronic device infections and their management: a scientific statement from the American Heart Association. *Circulation*. 2010;121(3):458–77.
- Halawa A, Henry PD, Sarubbi FA. Candida endocarditis associated with cardiac rhythm management devices: review with current treatment guidelines. *Mycoses*. 2011;54(4):168–74.

Author biography

Shraddha Shivling Paralkar, Antimicrobial Stewardship CP (b) https://orcid.org/0009-0003-2488-8390

Deepa Godbole, Antimicrobial Stewardship CP

Swapnil Mundhe, Antimicrobial Stewardship CP https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5809-0430

Cite this article: Paralkar SS, Godbole D, Mundhe S. Cardiac implantable electronic device infection: Microbiology and antibiotic prophylaxis. *Indian J Microbiol Res* 2023;10(3):129-133.