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Diagnosis and Therapeutic Approaches for Osteomyelitis, Review

[1]Nuha Hazem Bukhari, [2]Abdullah Mohammedalsasi A Alawamir,
[3]Abdullah Sabti S Almoeirfi, [4]Sultan Mursi Albogami, [5]Salah Ghazi S Almatrafi,
[6]Abdulrhman Mohammed Almehmadi, [7]Ali Hassan Altrabolsi,
[8]Khaled Saad Mohammed Alboaqami

Abstract: **The main objective of this review was to evaluate and discuss the evidence related to pathogenesis, diagnosis and therapeutic approaches to the osteomyelitis, also to emphasize the risk factors and causes of this serious bone disease. MEDLINE, EMBASE, and Google scholar databases were used in detailed search for relative articles concerning osteomyelitis in any clinical aspect, but restricted to only English language published articles up to May,2017. Furthermore, references of these articles were searched for more relevant studies that could contribute in our review. Osteomyelitis is a major infection connected with substantial morbidity. The occurrence is increasing with the occurrence of diabetes. High clinical suspicion is essential to early diagnosis, and recognition of the pathogen is essential for management. MRI has the greatest diagnostic precision amongst radiological studies. Antibiotic routines for the empiric treatment of acute osteomyelitis, especially in children, need to consist of an agent directed versus S. aureus. Betalactam prescription antibiotics are first-line alternatives unless MRSA is believed. If methicillin resistance amongst community isolates of Staphylococcus is greater than 10 percent, MRSA must be considered in preliminary antibiotic protection. In some situations, it may not be possible to securely eliminate a piece of contaminated prosthetic product, or a sequestrum of lethal bone. In such cases, it might be necessary to prescribe an oral antibiotic for long-lasting suppression of infection.**

Keywords: **Osteomyelitis, therapeutic approaches, English language published articles.**

1. INTRODUCTION

Osteomyelitis is an infection of bone sustained most frequently by bacteria, although fungal etiology is rarely described, particularly in immunocompromised children [(1)]. According to the time duration between medical diagnosis and sign beginning, osteomyelitis is classified as acute (< 2 weeks), sub-acute (2 weeks–3 months), or chronic (> 3 months). Typical bone is extremely resistant to infection. In experimental models, a large inoculum of germs is typically required to induce osteomyelitis [(2)]. Bacteria possess a range of virulence factors that contribute to the development and chronicity of osteomyelitis, such as proteins called adhesins which facilitate accessory to bone, and the capability to form biofilm, a slime layer which shields the bacteria from antimicrobial representatives (4).

The estimated occurrence of acute osteomyelitis has to do with 8 cases per 100,000 children/year [(5,6)]. Children under 5 years of age are affected in about 50% of the cases, with a M: F ratio of 2:1. Acute osteomyelitis is around two times more frequent than septic arthritis, and its incidence is steadily increasing. Gafur et al. [(7)] observed that the incidence of acute osteomyelitis has tripled over the last 20 years while the incidence of septic arthritis stayed constant. Early detection is important given that a delay in the diagnosis of only 4 days is a risk factor for long-term sequelae (**Table 1**) [(7)].

Signs and symptoms might differ depending upon the classification of infection, organism, anatomic place, and host. Hematogenous osteomyelitis takes place usually in prepubertal children and usually includes the metaphysis of long bones, particularly the tibia and femur. Patients usually provide with signs of acute infection such as fever, chills, pain, and local indications of inflammation [(4)]. In grownups, the most common site is the vertebral bodies, followed by long

bones, pelvis, and clavicle. The primary blood supply of the vertebrae is the segmental arteries, which divide to perfuse segments of 2 nearby vertebrae. Hence, vertebral osteomyelitis often takes place in two contiguous vertebral bodies and the intervertebral disc [8].

The medical diagnosis of osteomyelitis might be tough. If an ulcer is present on examination, osteomyelitis is present if bone shows up, or if bone is experienced when the ulcer is penetrated with a sterilized instrument [8]. However, the failure to probe to bone does not eliminate osteomyelitis.

The present management for osteomyelitis centers on adequate antibiotic coverage and surgical debridement of nonviable tissue [2,3]. Whereas acute hematogenous osteomyelitis may respond favorably to a course of prescription antibiotics alone, more complicated presentations might need substantial surgical debridement in addition to an aggressive antibiotic program for effective treatment. Such surgical interventions often leave significant defects, which in turn will need significant reconstructive efforts such as tissue flaps and vascularized bone grafts. Even with basic care, restorative failures and reoccurrences are common, often in the variety 20 to 30% [4,5].

Table 1: Risk Factors for Long-Term Sequelae

Late diagnosis (>4 days)
Inadequate treatment
Neonate (prematurity, hypoxia, central venous catheterization)
Sickle cell disease
Infection by MRSA or Panton-Valentine Leukocidin positive strains

The main objective of this review was to evaluate and discuss the evidence related to pathogenesis, diagnosis and therapeutic approaches to the osteomyelitis, also to emphasize the risk factors and causes of this serious bone disease.

2. METHODOLOGY

MEDLINE, EMBASE, and Google scholar databases were used in detailed search for relative articles concerning osteomyelitis in any clinical aspect, but restricted to only English language published articles up to May,2017. Furthermore, references of these articles were searched for more relevant studies that could contribute in our review.

3. RESULTS

- **Pathogenesis of osteomyelitis:**

Factors associated with pathogenesis of osteomyelitis consist of the virulence of the organism, immune status and comorbidities of the patient, and the type of bone. The microorganism reaches the bone by hematogenous dissemination, by spread from a contiguous focus of infection, or by a permeating wound [9]. Staphylococcus aureus is the most common pathogen isolated in osteomyelitis. It complies with several components of bone matrix, consisting of fibrinogen, fibronectin, laminin, collagen, bone sialoglycoprotein, and clumping factor A. This adherence is mediated by bacterial surface protein adhesins, microbial surface parts acknowledging adhesive matrix particles (MSCRAMM) [10]. When collagen adhesin-positive S. aureus was injected into mice, more than 70% established medical signs of infection, whereas less than 27% injected with collagen adhesionnegative S. aureus established disease [11]. S. aureus has several ways to resist host defense mechanisms. Staphylococcal protein A belongs of the cell wall with powerful antiphagocytic home by binding to IgG through its Fc-reactive sites, therefore taking on phagocytic cells for offered IgG-Fc sites [12]. Surface proteins of S. aureus induce cells to release catabolic factors such as TNF-, prostaglandins, and interleukin-1, which contribute to osteolysis [13]. Biofilm development, which has been described in S. aureus, Staphylococcus epidermidis, group A Streptococcus, and Pseudomonas aeruginosa, makes it difficult to eliminate the organism [14]. Diabetic foot osteomyelitis occurs mainly by means of contiguous spread from nearby soft tissue infection, which is normally an issue of an ulcer.8 Microorganisms reach the bone when the anatomical barrier of the periosteum is compromised due to overlying soft tissue infection or an ulcer. The infection spreads through the periosteum and extends to the medullary canal and marrow, creating bone necrosis, and the overlying periosteal reaction results in the development of brand-new bone (involucrum). Many factors, such as biofilm formation by the organism and impaired immune and inflammatory

response due to underlying diabetes, contribute to persistence of the infection. When there is lethal bone or hardware present [15], neither white blood cells (WBCs) nor prescription antibiotics are able to reach the site of infection.

- **Diagnosis:**

Precise medical diagnosis is had to guide treatment methods. Although bone biopsy with histopathology and culture is the gold requirement, the mix of history, physical examination, imaging, and microbiological testing (culture) is often utilized to diagnose osteomyelitis [16].

Medical history:

Period and place of pain, systemic signs such as fever, rigors, travel history, and history of injury ought to be examined. In patients with diabetes, history should include duration of diabetes, glycemic control, and presence of macrovascular or microvascular complications including peripheral neuropathy and peripheral vascular disease [16]. Grievances consist of relentless pain, erythema, swelling, and drainage from site of previous trauma, surgical treatment, or wound infection. When pus breaks through the fistula, a traditional history for chronic osteomyelitis is explained as cyclical pain increasing to severe deep tense pain with fever that subsides. Most patients present with unclear symptoms of chronic pain [17,18].

Physical examination:

When signs of inflammation, rubor (soreness), dolor (tenderness), calor (heat), and tumor (swelling) are seen, infection is presumed, however it is hard to identify soft tissue infection from osteomyelitis [17]. Unfortunately, the extent of the infection is typically undervalued by physical examination. In patients with diabetes, the classic symptoms and signs of infection might be missing or masked due to vascular disease and neuropathy. When exposed lethal bone, surgical hardware, or draining fistulas are present, osteomyelitis is extremely most likely. In addition, Newman and colleagues found that a diabetic foot ulcer area greater than 2 cm2 predicts an existence of osteomyelitis [19].

Acute osteomyelitis in children is mostly a scientific diagnosis based on the quick beginning and localization of symptoms. Systemic signs such as sleepiness, fever, and irritability might exist. The physical exam needs to concentrate on determining typical findings, such as erythema, soft tissue swelling or joint effusion, reduced joint series of movement, and bony tenderness. The recognition of a bacterial infection might be tough since blood cultures are positive in only about half of cases [20]. Because of the difficulty of diagnosis, the possible intensity of infection in children, the high disease recurrence rate in adults, and the possible need for surgical intervention, consultation with an infectious disease subspecialist and an orthopedic subspecialist or plastic surgeon is encouraged [21].

The diagnosis of osteomyelitis in grownups can be difficult. A high index of medical suspicion is required, together with recognition of clinical signs and supportive lab and imaging research studies (**Table 1**) [22]. The preliminary examination ought to consist of concerns to figure out the patient's history of systemic symptoms (e.g., lethargy, malaise, extremity or neck and back pain, fever) and predisposing factors (e.g., diabetes, peripheral vascular disease, history of injury or intravenous substance abuse). The physical exam ought to focus on finding a possible nidus of infection, examining peripheral vascular and sensory function, and checking out any ulcers for the presence of bone. If an adjoining infection with ulcer exists, such as in diabetic foot infections, using a sterilized steel probe to spot bone might be handy in confirming the existence of osteomyelitis. A 1995 research study found that this test had a positive predictive worth of 89 percent, a more current study in a population with a lower frequency of osteomyelitis found a positive predictive value of just 57 percent [23,24].

Table1: Diagnostic Criteria for Chronic Osteomyelitis [22]

A. Imaging studies (e.g., plain radiography, magnetic resonance imaging, bone scintigraphy) demonstrating contiguous soft tissue infection or bony destruction	
B.Clinical signs	
•	Exposed bone
•	Persistent sinus tract

•	Tissue necrosis overlying bone
•	Chronic wound overlying surgical hardware
•	Chronic wound overlying fracture
C. Laboratory evaluation	
•	Positive blood cultures
•	Elevated C-reactive protein level
•	Elevated erythrocyte sedimentation rate

Radiological Studies:

Imaging is useful to define the infection and to dismiss other prospective causes of signs. Plain radiography, technetium-99 bone scintigraphy, and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) are the most useful modalities (**Table 2)** [25,26,27]. Plain radiography typically does not show abnormalities caused by osteomyelitis until about two weeks after the preliminary infection, when almost 50 percent of the bone mineral material has actually been lost [25]. Plain radiography is *a* useful initial step that may expose other diagnoses, such as metastases or osteoporotic fractures. It usually matches info offered by other techniques and must not be omitted, even if more advanced imaging is planned [26]. In acute hematogenous osteomyelitis, plain films might not play a role in diagnosis because it takes a couple of weeks to see radiological modifications of osteomyelitis. The reason to get the test in this case is to dismiss other pathology such as fractures and existence of foreign body [16].

Table 2: Diagnostic Imaging Studies for Osteomyelitis

IMAGING MODALITY	*SENSITIVITY (%)*	*SPECIFICITY (%)*	*COMMENTS*
Computed tomography	67	50	Generally should not be used in osteomyelitis evaluation
Leukocyte scintigraphy	61 to 84	60 to 68	Combining with technetium-99 bone scintigraphy can increase specificity
Magnetic resonance imaging	78 to 90	60 to 90	Useful to distinguish between soft tissue and bone infection, and to determine extent of infection; less useful in locations of surgical hardware because of image distortion
Plain radiography (anteroposterior, lateral, and oblique views)	14 to 54	68 to 70	Preferred imaging modality; useful to rule out other pathology
Positron emission tomography	96	91	Expensive; limited availability
Technetium-99 bone scintigraphy	82	25	Low specificity, especially if patient has had recent trauma or surgery; useful to differentiate osteomyelitis from cellulitis, and in patients in whom magnetic resonance imaging is contraindicated

MRI provides better info for early detection of osteomyelitis than do other imaging techniques (**Figure 2**). MRI can discover osteomyelitis within 3 to 5 days of disease start [25]. Most studies of the diagnostic accuracy of MRI in identifying osteomyelitis included patients with diabetic foot ulcers. The level of sensitivity and specificity of MRI in the diagnosis of osteomyelitis might be as high as 90 percent. Since MRI can likewise identify lethal bone, sinus systems, or abscesses, it transcends to bone scintigraphy in characterizing and detecting osteomyelitis. Its use can be restricted, however, if surgical hardware is present [28,29,30].

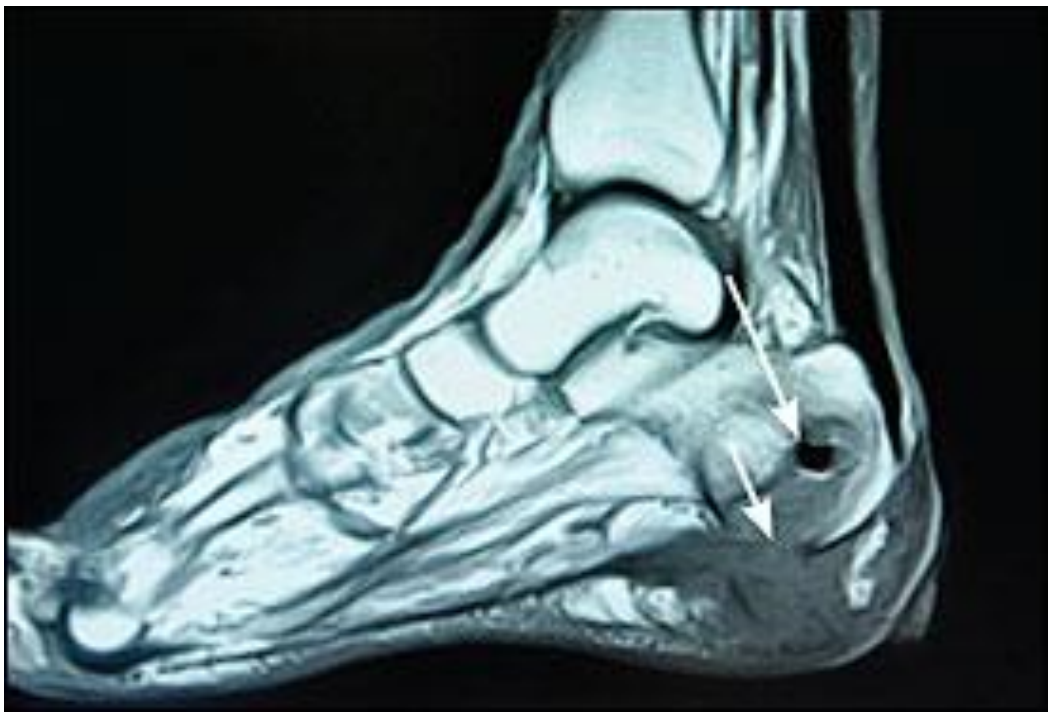

Figure 1: Magnetic resonance image demonstrating abnormal T1-weighted signal within the calcaneus *(long arrow)*, consistent with osteomyelitis

- **Management of Osteomyelitis:**

Treatment of osteomyelitis depends upon suitable antibiotic treatment and typically needs surgical elimination of contaminated and necrotic tissue. Choice of antibiotic therapy need to be identified by culture and susceptibility results, if possible [31]. The majority of hematogenous osteomyelitis is monomicrobial. In neonates, S. aureus, group B streptococci, and gram-negative enteric germs are the most typical pathogens. In children, S. aureus, Streptococcus pyogenes, and Streptococcus pneumoniae are most common [31]. Community-acquired methicillin-resistant S. aureus (MRSA) is a growing cause of pediatric osteomyelitis [32]. In adults, hematogenous osteomyelitis is most often caused by S. aureus and, particularly in the elderly, gram-negative enteric bacteria.

Empiric prescription antibiotics for acute hematogenous osteomyelitis must include an anti-staphylococcal antibiotic such as nafcillin or oxacillin, though vancomycin must be substituted when MRSA is suspected [31,33]. Additional protection versus gram-negative enteric bacteria, for example a third-generation cephalosporin such as cefotaxime, should be added in newborns, and considered in older children. Empiric gram-negative protection is also necessitated in grownups; quinolones are useful in this population.

As soon as culture results are readily available, prescription antibiotics can be targeted more particularly to the causative pathogen [33]. In children, a switch from parenteral to oral antibiotics may be warranted in chosen cases, when there is a prompt reaction to therapy and a proper oral antibiotic alternative. Duration of therapy in children is normally 3 to 6 weeks. The risk of chronic infection increases unacceptably when efficient therapy is offered for less than 3 weeks [34]. In grownups, parenteral treatment should be offered for approximately 6 weeks for uncomplicated cases in which no residual nidus of infection is presumed [35].

This technique is, however, not usually accepted considering that it is believed that this might add to the spread of antibiotic resistant strains. In a current evaluation [36] different regimens depending upon MRSA regional frequency where proposed (**Table 3**) [36,37]. The period and paths of administration of prescription antibiotics is currently under argument

[37]. Historically, osteomyelitis was treated with intravenous antibiotics for 4 - 6 weeks. In the only randomized trial [38] that has dealt with the problem of the period of therapy, patients who showed a good medical action after 2 - 4 days of intravenous treatment and where moved to oral treatment for additional 20 days, had the very same outcome of children treated with continued IV therapy for 30 days. This approach has actually been embraced in many centers, although it is typically patient tailored, depending on the organism being treated, regional bacterial sensitivity epidemiological data, accessibility of oral comparable antibiotic, and seriousness of the osteomyelitis [39]. However, the generalization of the outcomes of the only readily available trial [38] research study is arguable. It has actually been highlighted that the study population is distinct and, certainly, that MSSA had actually been separated in almost 90% of cases, revealing a peculiar public health.

Table 3: Proposed antibiotic treatment for acute osteomyelitis

Bacteriology	**Antibiotic**	**Dose mg/kg/die**	**Maximum Daily Dose**	**Bone Penetration** #
If MRSA prevalence in the community <10%	First generation cephalosporin *	150 divided into 4 equal doses	2–4 g	6–7
	OR			
	Antistaphylococcal penicillin (cloxacillin, flucloxacilina, dicloxacillin, nafcillin, or oxacillin)	200 divided into 4 equal doses	8–12 g	15–17
If the prevalence of MRSA in the community >10% and the Prevalence of *S. aureus* resistant to clindamycin <10%	Clindamycin	40 divided into 4 equal doses	3 g	65–78
If the prevalence of MRSA in community ≥10% and the Prevalence of *S. aureus* clindamycin resistente ≥10%	Vancomycin	40 divided into 4 equal doses Or 45 mg divided in 3 equal doses	Dose adjusted according to blood levels with a target of 15–20 µg/mL trough level	5–67
	OR			
	Linezolid if vancomycin is not effective	30 divided in 3 equal doses	1.2 g no more than 28 days	40–51
Alternatives for specific agents	Ampicillin or amoxicillin for Beta-hemolytic streptococcus group A, *Haemophilus influenzae* type b (strains which do not produce beta-lactamase, *S. pneumoniae* sensitive to penicillin	150–200 dispensed in 4 equal doses	8–12 g	3–31

4. CONCLUSION

Osteomyelitis is a major infection connected with substantial morbidity. The occurrence is increasing with the occurrence of diabetes. High clinical suspicion is essential to early diagnosis, and recognition of the pathogen is essential for management. MRI has the greatest diagnostic precision amongst radiological studies. Antibiotic routines for the empiric treatment of acute osteomyelitis, especially in children, need to consist of an agent directed versus S. aureus. Betalactam prescription antibiotics are first-line alternatives unless MRSA is believed. If methicillin resistance amongst community

isolates of Staphylococcus is greater than 10 percent, MRSA must be considered in preliminary antibiotic protection. In some situations, it may not be possible to securely eliminate a piece of contaminated prosthetic product, or a sequestrum of lethal bone. In such cases, it might be necessary to prescribe an oral antibiotic for long-lasting suppression of infection.

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