

Causes and Treatment of Tonsillitis

Nuha Saad H Alasmari¹, Ryan Omar M Bamashmous², Rakan Mohammed Ahmed Alshuwaykan³,
Majed Ali Mohammed Alahmari⁴, Rawan Mahdi Almubarak⁵, Amjad Awdah Mohammed
Alshahrani⁶, Saad Ahmed Alqarni², Abdulrahman Saleh Alhadlag⁷, Faisal Ali A Alotaibi⁸,
Abdulaziz Suleman Abdulaziz Alassiri⁹, Ahmed Abdu Hassan Alnaji⁹, Saleem Othman Rafi Alamri¹⁰

1- Ibn Sina National College, 2- King Abdulaziz University, 3- Tabuk University, 4- Imam Muhammad Bin Saud University, 5- Imam Abdulrahman Bin Faisal University, 6- King Khalid University, 7- Sulaiman Al Rajhi Colleges, 8- Taif University, 9- Tabuk University, 10- Ohud Hospital Almadinah

ABSTRACT

Sore throats can have a range of causes. Common cold viruses are usually to blame. In rarer cases, sore throats are caused by an infection of the tonsils (tonsillitis). This infection is often bacterial, or sometimes viral. But it isn't easy to tell what kind of germs are responsible for the infection. Children and teenagers are much more susceptible to tonsillitis than adults are. Tonsillitis is inflammation of the pharyngeal tonsils. The inflammation usually extends to the adenoid and the lingual tonsils; therefore, the term pharyngitis may also be used. Most cases of bacterial tonsillitis are caused by group A beta-hemolytic *Streptococcus pyogenes* (GABHS). Tonsillitis of viral origin is usually treated with supportive care. We describe the anatomic features and the immunologic function of the palatine tonsils, including a detailed discussion of history and physical examination findings, treatment, and possible complications of acute tonsillitis. Establishing an accurate diagnosis and initiating appropriate treatment are key components of managing this common pathologic process.

Keywords: Tonsillitis, Pharyngeal tonsils, GABHS infection.

INTRODUCTION

Tonsillitis is inflammation of the pharyngeal tonsils. The inflammation usually extends to the adenoid and the lingual tonsils; therefore, the term pharyngitis may also be used. Most cases of bacterial tonsillitis are caused by group A beta-hemolytic *Streptococcus pyogenes* (GABHS). In the first century AD, Celsus described tonsillectomy performed with sharp tools and followed by rinses with vinegar and other medicinals. Since that time, physicians have been documenting administration of tonsillitis. Tonsillitis gained further care as a medical concern in the late 19th century.

The consideration of quinsy in the differential diagnosis of George Washington's death and the discussion of tonsillitis in Kean's Domestic Medical Lectures, a home medical companion book published in the late 19th century, reflect the rise of tonsillitis as a medical concern^[1]. Understanding the disease procedure and administration of this common illness remain significant today. This article summarizes the current management of tonsillitis and highlights recent advances of this condition and its variations: acute tonsillitis (Fig 1), recurrent tonsillitis, and chronic tonsillitis and peritonsillar abscess (PTA)^[2].

Tonsillitis is an inflammation of the pharyngeal tonsils. The inflammation regularly lengthens to the adenoid and the lingual tonsils;

consequently, the term pharyngitis might similarly be used^[3]. Pharyngotonsillitis and adenotonsillitis

are considered comparable for the purposes of this article. Lingual tonsillitis states to isolated inflammation of the lymphoid tissue at the tongue base. A "carrier state" is defined by a positive pharyngeal culture of group A beta hemolytic *Streptococcus pyogenes* (GABHS), without evidence of an antistreptococcal immunologic response.

Tonsillitis most frequently occurs in children; nevertheless, the condition infrequently occurs in children younger than 2 years. Tonsillitis caused by *Streptococcus* species normally occurs in children aged 5-15 years, although viral tonsillitis is more common in younger children. Peritonsillar abscess (PTA) usually happens in teens or young adults but might present earlier. Pharyngitis accompanies many upper respiratory tract infections. Amid 2.5% and 10.9% of children might be defined as carriers. In one study, the mean prevalence of carrier status of schoolchildren for group A *Streptococcus*, a cause of tonsillitis, was 15.9%^[4, 5]. Consistent with Herzon et al, children account for almost one third of peritonsillar abscess episodes^[6]. Klug found seasonal and/or age-based variations in the occurrence and cause of PTA. Among his conclusions, he stated that the occurrence of PTA increased throughout childhood, peaking in teenagers and then progressively falling until old

age. He correspondingly found that until age 14 years, girls were more affected than boys, but that the condition afterward was more recurrent in males than in females [7]. Klug furthermore found a significantly higher occurrence of *Fusobacterium necrophorum* than of group A *Streptococcus* in patients aged 15-24 years with PTA. Though, the frequency of group A *Streptococcus* was significantly higher than *F. necrophorum* in children aged 0-9 years and in adults aged 30-39 years [7]. Even though Klug determined that the frequency of PTA did not significantly vary by season, the occurrence of group A *Streptococcus* was significantly more recurrent in winter and spring than in summer, while *F. necrophorum* tended to be found more frequently in summer than in winter [7]. As a result of the improvements in medical and surgical treatments, complications allied with tonsillitis, comprising death, are rare [8]. Historically, scarlet fever was a major killer at the beginning of the 20th century, and rheumatic fever was a major cause of cardiac disease and mortality. Although the incidence of rheumatic fever has declined significantly, cases that occurred in the 1980s and early 1990s support concern over a resurgence of this condition.

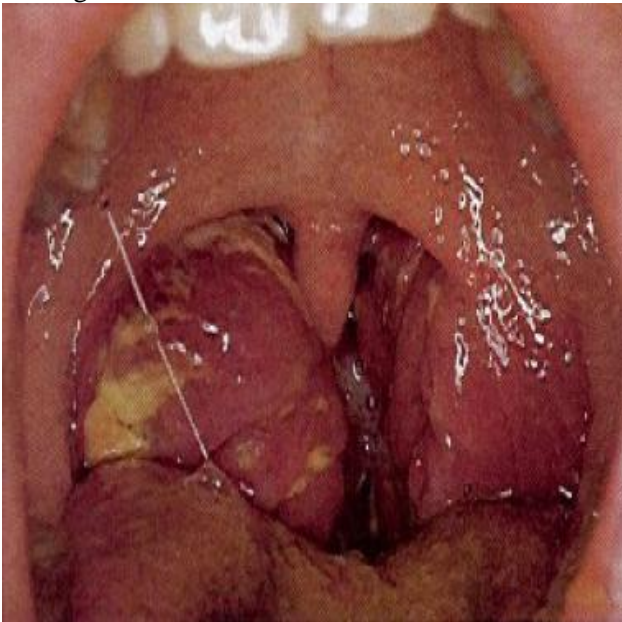


Figure 1. Acute bacterial tonsillitis

The study was done according to the ethical board of King Abdulaziz university.

Recurrent tonsillitis

A polymicrobial flora containing both aerobic and anaerobic bacteria has been perceived in core tonsillar cultures in cases of recurrent pharyngitis, and children with recurrent GABHS tonsillitis have different bacterial populations than children who have not had as many infections. Other

competing bacteria are reduced, offering less interference to GABHS infection. *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, and *Haemophilus influenzae* are the most common bacteria isolated in recurrent tonsillitis, and *Bacteroides fragilis* is the most common anaerobic bacterium isolated in recurrent tonsillitis [9]. The microbiology of recurrent tonsillitis in children and adults are different; adults showed more bacterial isolates, with a higher recovery rate of *Prevotella* species, *Porphyromonas* species, and *B. fragilis* organisms, whereas children showed more GABHS. Also, adults more often have bacteria that produce beta-lactamase.

Chronic tonsillitis

A polymicrobial bacterial population is observed in most cases of chronic tonsillitis, with alpha- and beta-hemolytic streptococcal species, *H. influenzae*, *S. aureus*, and *Bacteroides* species having been recognized. A study that was based on bacteriology of the tonsillar surface and core in 30 children undergoing tonsillectomy recommended that antibiotics prescribed 6 months before surgery did not alter the tonsillar bacteriology at the time of tonsillectomy [10]. A relationship between tonsillar size and chronic bacterial tonsillitis is believed to exist. This relationship is based on both the aerobic bacterial load and the absolute number of B and T lymphocytes. *H. influenzae* is the bacterium most often isolated in hypertrophic tonsils and adenoids. Regarding penicillin resistance or beta-lactamase production, the microbiology of tonsils removed from patients with recurrent GABHS pharyngitis has not been presented to be expressively different from the microbiology of tonsils removed from patients with tonsillar hypertrophy [11]. Local immunologic mechanisms are significant in chronic tonsillitis. The distribution of dendritic cells and antigen-presenting cells is altered throughout illness, with fewer dendritic cells on the surface epithelium and more in the crypts and extra follicular parts. Study of immunologic markers might allow differentiation between recurrent and chronic tonsillitis. Such markers in one study specified that children more often experience recurrent tonsillitis, while adults necessitating tonsillectomy more often experience chronic tonsillitis [12]. Radiation exposure may relate to the development of chronic tonsillitis.

Peritonsillar abscess

A polymicrobial flora is isolated from peritonsillar abscesses (PTAs). Predominant organisms are the anaerobes *Prevotella*, *Porphyromonas*, *Fusobacterium*, and

Peptostreptococcus species. Major aerobic organisms are GABHS, H influenzae, and S aureus. Uhler *et al* ^[13], in an analysis of data from 460 patients with PTA, found a higher incidence of the condition in smokers than in nonsmokers.

SIGNS AND SYMPTOMS

Individuals with acute tonsillitis and peritonsillar abscess present with the following:

Table 1. Signs and symptoms of acute tonsillitis vs peritonsillar abscess

| Tonsillitis | Peritonsillar abscess |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| Fever | Severe throat pain |
| Sore throat | Fever |
| Foul breath | Drooling |
| Dysphagia (difficulty swallowing) | Foul breath |
| Odynophagia (painful swallowing) | Trismus (difficulty opening the mouth) |
| Tender cervical lymph nodes | Altered voice quality (the hot-potato voice) |

Treatment

Treatment of acute tonsillitis is largely supportive and focuses on preserving tolerable hydration and caloric consumption and controlling pain and fever. Incapability to maintain suitable oral caloric and fluid intake might need IV hydration, antibiotics, and pain control. Home intravenous therapy under the supervision of qualified home health providers or the independent oral consumption ability of patients ensures hydration. Intravenous corticosteroids may be managed to decrease pharyngeal edema. Airway obstacle might need management by placing a nasal airway device, utilizing intravenous corticosteroids, and managing humidified oxygen. Witness the patient in a monitored setting till the airway obstruction is obviously resolving.

• **Antibiotics**

Antibiotics are kept for secondary bacterial pharyngitis. Due to the danger of a generalized papular rash, prevent ampicillin and associated compounds when infectious mononucleosis (MN) is suspected. Related reactions from oral penicillin-based antibiotics (eg, cephalexin) have been described. Hence, initiate treatment with alternative antistreptococcal antibiotic, for example, erythromycin. Manage antibiotics if situations support a bacterial etiology, for example, the incidence of tonsillar exudates, occurrence of a fever, leukocytosis, contacts who are ill, or contact with a person who has a documented group A beta-hemolytic Streptococcus pyogenes (GABHS)

infection. In several cases, bacterial and viral pharyngitis are clinically indistinguishable. Waiting 1-2 days for throat culture consequences has not been shown to reduce the practicality of antibiotic treatment in avoiding rheumatic fever ^[14, 15].

• **Corticosteroids**

Corticosteroids may shorten the period of fever and pharyngitis in cases of infectious mononucleosis (MN). In severe cases of infectious mononucleosis, corticosteroids or gamma globulin might be supportive. Symptoms of infectious mononucleosis might last for several months. Corticosteroids are also indicated for patients with airway obstruction, hemolytic anemia, and cardiac and neurologic disease. Inform patients of complications from steroid utilization.

• **GABHS infection**

GABHS infection obligates antibiotic coverage. Bisno *et al* ^[16] stated in practice guidelines for the diagnosis and management of GABHS that the desired outcomes of therapy for GABHS pharyngitis are the prevention of acute rheumatic fever, the prevention of supportive complications, the reduction of clinical signs and symptoms, the decrease in transmission of GABHS to close contacts, and the minimization of potential opposing effects of unsuitable antimicrobial therapy. Managing oral penicillin for 10 days is the best treatment of acute GABHS pharyngitis ^[17]. Intramuscular penicillin (ie, benzathine penicillin G) is necessary for persons who might not be compliant with a 10-days course of oral treatment.

Penicillin is ideal for most patients (barring allergic reactions) due to its proven safety, efficiency, narrow spectrum, and low cost. Different anti-infection agents demonstrated viable for GABHS pharyngitis are the penicillin congeners, numerous cephalosporins, macrolides, and clindamycin.

Clindamycin might be of specific esteem since its tissue infiltration is viewed as comparable for both oral and IV organization. Clindamycin is viable notwithstanding for living beings that are not quickly isolating (Eagle impact), which clarifies its awesome viability for GABHS disease. Vancomycin and rifampin have additionally been valuable. Diminished recurrence dosing is prescribed to enhance consistence with prescription regimens. An agreement on the adequacy of such dosing has not yet been defined. Most instances of intense pharyngitis are self-constrained, with clinical change seen in 3-4 days. Clinical practice rules express that maintaining a strategic distance from anti-infection treatment for

this day and age is protected and a deferral of up to 9 days from indication beginning to antimicrobial treatment should at present keep the significant inconvenience of GABHS (ie, intense rheumatic fever).

Repetitive tonsillitis might be made with an indistinguishable anti-microbials from intense GABHS pharyngitis. In the event that the contamination repeats are not long after a course of an oral penicillin operator, at that point consider IM benzathine penicillin G. Clindamycin and amoxicillin/clavulanate have been appeared to be compelling in annihilating GABHS from the pharynx in people encountering rehashed episodes of tonsillitis.

A 3-to 6-week course of an anti-toxin against beta-lactamase– delivering living beings (eg, amoxicillin/clavulanate) may enable tonsillectomy to be maintained a strategic distance from? Carrier state ought to be dealt with when the family has a past filled with rheumatic fever, a background marked by glomerulonephritis in the bearer, a "ping pong" spread of disease between family contacts of the transporter, familial uneasiness in regards to the ramifications of GABHS carriage, irresistible episode inside a shut group, for example, a school, a flare-up of intense rheumatic fever, or when tonsillectomy might be under thought to treat the unending carriage of GABHS. infectious outbreak within a closed community such as a school, an outbreak of acute rheumatic fever, or when tonsillectomy may be under consideration to treat the chronic carriage of GABHS.

Beta-lactamase resistance of streptococcal species might now be perceived in up to a third of community-based streptococcal infections. This resistance is perhaps as a result of the attendance of copathogens that are beta-lactamase–producing organisms, for example, H influenzae and Moraxella catarrhalis. These organisms are able to degrade the beta-lactam ring of penicillin and make an else sensitive GABHS act resistant to beta-lactam antibiotics.

- **Tonsillectomy**

Tonsillectomy is specified for individuals who have experienced more than 6 episodes of streptococcal pharyngitis (confirmed by positive culture) in 1 year, 5 episodes in 2 successive years or 3 or more infections for 3 years in a row, or chronic or recurrent tonsillitis allied with the streptococcal carrier state that has not responded to beta-lactamase–resistant antibiotics. Tonsillectomy might be reflected for children when multiple antibiotic allergies or intolerances are seen, in addition to children with periodic fever,

pharyngitis and adenitis (PFAPA), aphthous stomatitis, or a history of peritonsillar abscess^[18]. Since adenoid tissue has comparative bacteriology to the pharyngeal tonsils and in light of the fact that insignificant extra dreariness happens with adenoidectomy if tonsillectomy is being performed as nowadays, most specialists play out an adenoidectomy if adenoids are available and kindled at the season of tonsillectomy. In any case, this point stays dubious. Intermittent tonsillitis after tonsillectomy is to a great degree uncommon. Tonsillectomy diminishes the bacterial heap of gathering A beta-hemolytic Streptococcus pyogenes (GABHS) and may likewise permit an expansion in alpha-Streptococcus, which can be defensive against GABHS disease. Intermittent tonsillitis is ordinarily because of regrowth of tonsillar tissue, which is dealt with by extraction. Tonsillectomy with or without adenoidectomy is the treatment for interminable tonsillitis. In instances of unending tonsillitis, particular specialized contemplations for tonsillectomy incorporate consciousness of a higher intraoperative and perioperative draining danger and mindfulness that dismemberment might be more troublesome in light of fibrosis and scarring of the tonsillar container^[19, 20].

Such contemplations may influence instrument determination and release choices. Surgery is once in a while required for intense lingual tonsillitis, yet surgery is demonstrated for visit and debilitating scenes of this exceptional illness. Tonsillar hypertrophy that holds on after determination of mononucleosis and causes obstructive aviation route manifestations may require tonsillectomy. A literature review by Morad et al showed that in the short-term (<12 mo), children with recurrent throat contaminations who undergo tonsillectomy/adenotonsillectomy determine greater reductions in sore throat days?, diagnosed group A streptococcal infections, clinician contacts, and school absences than do such children treated with watchful waiting. Nevertheless, quality-of-life scores did not significantly differ amid the two groups, and the indication was not tough enough to define whether the greater tonsillectomy/adenotonsillectomy-associated profits would persevere in the longer term^[21, 22].

A study by Wang et al^[23] specified that tonsillectomy rises the hazard of deep neck contaminations. Using a health insurance research database search, the investigators found patients to be at 1.71-fold greater risk of deep neck infection after experiencing tonsillectomy. A retrospective cohort study of 61,430 patients who experienced

tonsillectomy specifies that the use of intravenous steroids on the day of surgery increases the frequency of posttonsillectomy bleeding in children, but not in adults. In the study, Suzuki et al found that the rate of reoperation for bleeding was 1.2% for children aged 15 years or younger who received intravenous steroids, versus 0.5% for patients in the same age group who did not. Between patients older than 15 years, nevertheless, the reoperation rate was not expressively higher in the steroid patients than in the controls (1.7% vs. 1.4%)^[24, 25].

A literature review by De Luca Canto et al showed that respiratory compromise is the most frequent complication happening in children (9.4%) following adenotonsillectomy, with secondary hemorrhage being the second most frequent (2.6%). The authors similarly found that in children who experience adenotonsillectomy, the hazard of respiratory complications is 4.9 times higher in those who have obstructive sleep apnea than in children who do not, but the hazard of postoperative bleeding is lesser^[26, 27].

A retrospective study by Spektor et al^[28] specified that the hazard of postoperative bleeding in children experiencing tonsillectomy is expanded when the surgery is accomplished on a child with recurrent tonsillitis (4.5 times expanded hazard), on a child with responsiveness deficit hyperactivity disorder (8.7 times expanded hazard), or on an older child (twice the bleeding hazard in children aged 11 years or above).

Prevention

Prevention of contact with individuals who are ill or patients who are immunocompromised is beneficial. The utilization of the antipneumococcal vaccine might assist to avoid acute tonsillitis; nevertheless, to date, experience is insufficient to define whether prevention is possible to arise.

Hydration is important, and the oral route is regularly acceptable. Intravenous fluids might be essential for severe dehydration. Hyperalimentation is infrequently necessary.

Adequate rest for adults and children with tonsillitis accelerates recovery.

In order to diminish hazard of splenic rupture in persons diagnosed with systemic mononucleosis, patients must be cautioned against activities that may cause abdominal harm.

CONCLUSION

Treatment of acute tonsillitis is largely supportive and focuses on maintaining adequate hydration and caloric intake and controlling pain and fever. Corticosteroids may shorten the

duration of fever and pharyngitis in cases of infectious mononucleosis. In severe cases of mononucleosis, corticosteroids or gamma globulin may be helpful. GABHS infection obligates antibiotic coverage.

REFERENCES

1. **Morens DM (1999):** Death of a president. *N Engl J Med.*,341(24):1845-9.
2. **Stelter K(2014):** Tonsillitis and sore throat in children. *GMS Curr Top Otorhinolaryngol Head Neck Surg.*,13:Doc07.
3. **Bhattacharyya N and Kepnes LJ (2002):** Economic benefit of tonsillectomy in adults with chronic tonsillitis. *Ann Otol Rhinol Laryngol.*,111:983-988.
4. **Wald ER(2001):** Commentary: Antibiotic treatment of pharyngitis. *Pediatrics in Review*, 22 (8):255-256.
5. **Pichichero ME, Casey JR(2003):** Defining and dealing with carriers of group A Streptococci. *Contemporary Pediatrics*,1:46.
6. **Herzon FS. Harris P(1995):** Mosher Award thesis. Peritonsillar abscess: incidence, current management practices, and a proposal for treatment guidelines. *Laryngoscope*, 105(74):1-17.
7. **Klug TE(2014):** Incidence and microbiology of peritonsillar abscess: the influence of season, age, and gender. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis.*, 33(7):1163-7.
8. **Schmidt RJ, Herzog A, Cook S, O'Reilly R, Deutsch E, Reilly J(2007):** Complications of tonsillectomy. *Arch Otolaryngol Head and Neck Surg.* , 133:925-928.
9. **Witsell DL, Orvidas LJ, Stewart MG et al.(2008):** TO TREAT Study Investigators: Quality of life after tonsillectomy in adults with recurrent or chronic tonsillitis. *Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg.*,138:1-8.
10. **Woolford TJ, Hanif J, Washband S, Hari CK, Ganguli LA(1999):** The effect of previous antibiotic therapy on the bacteriology of the tonsils in children. *Int J Clin Pract.*, 53(2):96-8.
11. **Leinbach RF, Markwell SJ, Colliver JA, Lin SY(2003):** Hot versus cold tonsillectomy: a systematic review of the literature. *Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg.*,129:360-364.
12. **Bussi M, Carlevato MT, Panizzut B, Omede P, Cortesina G(1996):** Are recurrent and chronic tonsillitis different entities? An immunological study with specific markers of inflammatory stages. *Acta Otolaryngol Suppl.*,523:112-4.
13. **Uhler M, Schrom T, Knipping S(2013):**Peritonsillar abscess - smoking habits, preoperative coagulation screening and therapy. *Laryngorhinootologie*, 92(9):589-93.
14. **Spinks A, Glasziou PP, Del Mar CB(2013):** Antibiotics for sore throat. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.*,511:CD000023.
15. <https://www.nice.org.uk/guidance/cg69/evidence/f-ull-guideline-196853293>
16. **Shulman ST, Bisno AL, Clegg HW, Gerber MA, Kaplan EL, Lee G et al.(2012):** Clinical practice guideline for the diagnosis and management of group

- A streptococcal pharyngitis: 2012 update by the Infectious Diseases Society of America. *Clin Infect Dis.*, 55 (10):e86-102.
17. **Chiappini E, Regoli M, Bonsignori F, Sollai S, Parretti A, Galli L *et al.*(2011):** Analysis of different recommendations from international guidelines for the management of acute pharyngitis in adults and children. *Clin Ther.*,33(1):48-58.
 18. **Baugh RF, Archer SM, Mitchell RB, Rosenfeld RM, Amin R, Burns JJ *et al.*(2011):** Clinical practice guideline: tonsillectomy in children. *Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg.*,144 (1 Suppl):S1-30.
 19. **Bhattacharyya N, Kepnes LJ, Shapiro J(2001):** Efficacy and quality-of-life impact of adult tonsillectomy. *Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg.*,127:1347–1350.
 20. **Baumann I, Kucheida H, Blumenstock G, Zalaman IM, Maassen MM, Plinkert PK(2006):** Benefit from tonsillectomy in adult patients with chronic tonsillitis. *Eur Arch Otorhinolaryngol.*,263:556–559. Epub 2006.
 21. <https://www.medscape.com/viewarticle/781809>
 22. **Morad A, Sathe NA, Francis DO, McPheeters ML, Chinnadurai S(2017):** Tonsillectomy Versus Watchful Waiting for Recurrent Throat Infection: A Systematic Review. *Pediatrics*, doi: 10.1542/peds.
 23. **Wang YP, Wang MC, Lin HC, Lee KS, Chou P(2015):** Tonsillectomy and the risk for deep neck infection-a nationwide cohort study. *PLoS One*, 10 (4):e0117535.
 24. **Suzuki S, Yasunaga H, Matsui H, Horiguchi H, Fushimi K, Yamasoba T(2014):** Impact of Systemic Steroids on Posttonsillectomy Bleeding: Analysis of 617430 Patients Using a National Inpatient Database in Japan. *JAMA Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg.*, 37(4):577-81.
 25. **Leinbach RF, Markwell SJ, Colliver JA, Lin SY(2003):** Hot versus cold tonsillectomy: a systematic review of the literature. *Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg.*,129:360–364.
 26. **Henderson D(2015):** One fifth of kids have complication after tonsillectomy. *Medscape Medical News*, <https://www.medscape.com/viewarticle/851386>.
 27. **De Luca Canto G, Pacheco-Pereira C, Aydinov S, et al.** Adenotonsillectomy Complications: A Meta-analysis. *Pediatrics*. 2015 Oct. 136 (4):702-18.
 28. **Spektor Z, Saint-Victor S, Kay DJ, Mandell DL(2016):** Risk factors for pediatric post-tonsillectomy hemorrhage. *Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol.*,84:151-5.