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1 **Title**

2 Time to Surgery for Open Hand Injuries and the Risk of Surgical Site Infection: A Prospective
3 Multicentre Cohort Study

4
5
6 **Abstract**

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8 Whether delaying surgery increases the risk of infection in open hand injuries is an important but
9 unresolved topic. This prospective cohort study included 983 consecutive adults with open hand
10 injuries treated surgically over 1 year. The risk ratio (RR) for surgical site infection was estimated
11 by logistic regression. The median time from injury to surgery was 20 hours (range, 4 -90). Forty-
12 one patients (4%) developed an infection. The risk of infection was not affected by the time to
13 surgery (adjusted RR 1.0 [95% CI: 1.0 to 1.0]) or preoperative antibiotics (adjusted RR 1.8 [95%
14 CI: 0.2 to 13]) which were provided to 95% of patients. Skin loss increased the risk of infection
15 (adjusted RR 2.6 [95% CI: 1.3 to 5.0]). Delaying surgery for open hand injuries by 4 days does not
16 appear to increase the risk of surgical site infection.

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18 **Level of evidence: 1**

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INTRODUCTION

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Surgical teaching perpetuates the dogma that traumatic open hand injuries should undergo urgent surgery to reduce the risk of infection. This goal is important because surgical site infection (SSI) is a common and costly complication (Gibson et al., 2014; Zimlichman et al., 2013) occurring after 1-35% of operations for trauma to the hand (Angly et al., 2012; Berger, 2011; Berk et al., 1988; Baker and Lanuti, 1990; Juon et al., 2014; Morgan et al., 1980; Wormald et al., 2017; Zehtabchi et al., 2012).

A recent systematic review showed no association between the time from open hand injury to surgery (in the Emergency Room) and the subsequent risk of SSI (Zehtabchi et al., 2012). However, there were several limitations: the sample sizes of the parent studies were small, which might bias the estimates; few patients were subject to the delays (over 24 hours) that commonly occur in clinical practice; all studies employed arbitrary thresholds of time, which presents a number of statistical issues; and no studies adjusted for potential confounders (Angly et al., 2012; Juon et al., 2014). A more recent study (Pavan et al., 2018) provided important data concerning patients waiting more than 24 hours for surgery after hand trauma. However, it too was weakened by the use of an arbitrary time threshold and did not control for potential confounders. The purpose of the present study was to investigate the association between time to surgery and SSI, whilst avoiding the methodological weaknesses of previous studies.

METHODS

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48 This prospective multicentre cohort study was conducted between 1 April 2018 and 1 April 2019 in
49 two tertiary care Plastic and Hand Surgery centres in the UK.

50

51 We included consecutive adults (>16 years of age) with traumatic open unilateral hand injuries
52 distal to the distal wrist crease who underwent surgery. We excluded patients with active infection,
53 burns, an ischaemic digit or hand or amputated part for which replantation / revascularization was
54 attempted.

55

56 The primary outcome was surgical site infection (SSI) requiring any form of medical and / or
57 surgical treatment, within 28 days of surgery. This study was designed to investigate whether the
58 time from injury to surgery affects the risk of SSI and consequently data on numerous other
59 exposures and potential confounders were collected in accordance with our protocol including
60 patient demographics, the mechanism and pattern of injury, the preoperative assessment and
61 interim management, operative findings and interventions and the occurrence of any surgical site
62 infection requiring treatment within 28 days. All patients were subject to at least one follow-up
63 wound check postoperatively (between 2 and 10 days, depending on the injury and surgery) by
64 specialist plastic surgery nurses within the hospital; if there were concerns over SSI then a doctor
65 was consulted. If multiple doctors assessed a patient, then the grade of the most senior doctor was
66 recorded. SSI was defined pragmatically and according to the judgement of the assessing doctor.
67 Any of the following were sufficient to define SSI: erythema, swelling and pain beyond that which is
68 expected postoperatively or purulent discharge from the wound,

69

70 The protocol specified the analysis of time as a continuous predictor although no such data existed
71 on which to base a power calculation. Therefore, to guide recruitment, our proxy power calculation
72 was based upon prior studies which used arbitrary thresholds of time to define early versus
73 delayed surgery, reporting an approximate 3% difference in infection rates between early and
74 delayed cases(Angly et al., 2012; Berger, 2011; Berk et al., 1988; Baker and Lanuti, 1990; Juon et

75 al., 2014; Morgan et al., 1980; Zehtabchi et al., 2012). So, to detect a 3% difference in the rate of
76 infection between early and late surgical groups, with 90% power, a 5% level of significance and
77 two clusters with an (assumed) intraclass correlation coefficient of 0.1, we estimated that $n \approx 895$
78 individuals would be required.

79

80 Statistical analysis

81 Data were analysed using Stata v15. The overall rate of missing data was <1% with data points
82 missing completely at random. Proportions were compared using the chi-squared or Fisher's exact
83 test when the assumptions of the former were violated. Continuous data were skewed so have
84 been summarized by the median and interquartile range (IQR). Differences in the time to surgery
85 between groups was estimated by non-parametric regression. As the outcome of SSI is rare, we
86 used the risk ratio (RR). Multivariable logistic regression was used to estimate the risk of surgical
87 site infection; the co-variables in the multivariable model were selected according to our protocol
88 and handled as follows: smoking status, a co-morbid diagnosis of diabetes, a dirty wound and the
89 traumatic loss of skin were binary; the mechanism of injury was categorical and time was
90 continuous. In our protocol, preoperative immobilization and topical antiseptic solutions were
91 intended to be in the multivariable model but they had to be omitted because of multicollinearity.
92 Multicollinearity describes a strong correlation between predictor variables, which is undesirable for
93 several reasons. The use of preoperative antibiotics (as a binary variable) was explored as an
94 effect modifier (also known as an interaction term) and visualized through marginal effects plots; in
95 this case the interaction term was used to explore whether antibiotics were specifically beneficial to
96 a subset of patients with delayed surgery, diabetes, skin loss or high-risk mechanisms of injury.
97 There was no adjustment for clustering because estimates from mixed-effects logistic regression
98 (Appendix 1, available online) were not substantially different. The effect of specifying thresholds of
99 times to surgery (24-hour intervals) was explored using restricted cubic splines and no meaningful
100 threshold was identified, so time was modelled linearly. To improve the robustness of the
101 estimates, multivariable models were bootstrapped using lossless non-parametric resampling with
102 replacement, with 1000 iterations. 95% confidence intervals were generated. In order to counteract

103 for problems arising from multiple comparisons, the family-wise error rate was revised down
104 according to Šidák's correction to $p < 0.002$.
105

RESULTS

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107

108 Overall, 983 patients with surgically managed open hand injuries were included. Table 1 shows the
109 baseline characteristics. Patients more commonly injured the dominant hand (OR 1.5 [95% CI:1.0
110 to 2.1], $p=0.029$). The median time from injury to assessment was 3 hours 28 minutes (range, 60
111 minutes to 46 hours). The median time from injury to surgery was 20 hours (range, 4-90). There
112 was no difference in the time from injury to surgery between groups (Table 2).

113

114 Forty-five patients (5%) did not receive preoperative antibiotics. Of the 938 given preoperative
115 antibiotics, 125 (13%) received flucloxacillin, 772 (82%) co-amoxiclav, 26 (3%) clarithromycin and
116 14 (2%) clindamycin. The provision of antibiotics at the time of assessment was not associated
117 with age ($p=0.180$), sex ($p=0.328$), smoking status ($p=0.137$), a co-morbid diagnosis of diabetes
118 ($p=0.681$), the mechanism of injury ($p=0.147$), the cleanliness of the wound (contaminated versus
119 dirty; $p=0.760$), the number of digits injured ($p=0.917$) or time from injury to assessment ($p=0.359$).

120

121 Forty-one patients (4%) developed an infection within 28 days of surgery. SSI was most commonly
122 diagnosed by doctors in foundation or core surgical training years ($n=26$), rather than specialty
123 training registrars ($n=8$) or consultants ($n=7$). The treatments for SSIs included a course of oral
124 antibiotics ($n=33$), admission for intravenous antibiotics only ($n=2$) or admission for intravenous
125 antibiotics and re-operation ($n=6$). Multinomial logistic regression showed no statistically significant
126 difference in the treatment strategies of the different grades of doctor who diagnosed SSI. In the 41
127 patients who developed SSI the microbiological cultures yielded no growth (47%), *Staphylococcus*
128 *aureus* (43%), *Staphylococcus epidermidis* (5%) and anaerobes (5%).

129

130 The time from injury to surgery was not associated with the risk of postoperative infection (Table 3
131 and Figure 1). Skin loss increased the risk of SSI threefold in both the univariable and multivariable
132 models, suggesting that skin defects might be an important and independent risk factor for surgical
133 site infection. This was observed despite the fact that patients with skin loss were treated surgically
134 1 hour 45 minutes sooner than others (95% CI: 42 minutes to 2 hours; $p<0.001$; Supplementary

135 Figure 1S, available online). The time to surgery was not different for patients with diabetes
136 (median difference 39 minutes [95% CI: -2 hours to 1 hour], $p=0.831$; Supplementary Figure 2S,
137 available online). The time from injury to surgery was not different between the mechanisms of
138 injury ($p=0.620$; Supplementary Figure 3, available online). No estimates were substantially altered
139 by bootstrapping.

140

141 Overall, we observed no significant interaction between the time to surgery and provision of
142 preoperative antibiotics (adjusted RR 1.0 [95% CI: 1.0 to 1.0]) which means that preoperative
143 antibiotics did not affect the risk of infection after surgery. Furthermore, preoperative antibiotics did
144 not change the risk of SSI in patients with diabetes (Figure 2), different mechanisms of injury
145 (Figure 3) or skin loss (Figure 4). No estimates were substantially altered by bootstrapping.

146

147

DISCUSSION

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150 This study shows that the occurrence of infection in open hand injuries managed operatively is low
151 and is in keeping with previous reports (Murphy et al., 2016; Pavan et al., 2018; Zehtabchi et al.,
152 2012). Moreover, delays of up to 4 days from injury to surgery do not appear to increase the risk of
153 surgical site infection. Further, our data show no apparent benefit from preoperative antibiotics and
154 no greater risk of SSI for patients with diabetes or crush injuries, contrary to popular belief. The
155 only factor which appeared to independently increase the risk of SSI was skin loss.

156

157 Surgical teaching has perpetuated the concept that early debridement of a traumatic wound
158 reduces the risk of infection. However, a systematic review (Zehtabchi et al., 2012) showed that
159 the time from injury to surgical treatment (in the Emergency Department) was not related to the risk
160 of infection; studies included in this review were of low quality and the findings of each individual
161 were heterogenous, meaning that a robust conclusion could not be drawn. Furthermore, all
162 patients were treated within 24 hours (which does not represent typical practice), surgical
163 treatment in the Emergency Department may not be comparable to surgery within the operating
164 theatre and all included studies had major statistical limitations (principally the use of an arbitrary
165 time cut-off and failure to control for potential confounding). More recently, the work of Pavan and
166 colleagues (2018) addressed the lack of information about surgery more than 24 hours after injury;
167 their retrospective cohort study found the overall infection rate to be low (3%) and suggested that
168 the proportion of patients with SSI was higher in those operated more than 24 hours after injury
169 (5% vs 2%). However, there was again no adjustment for potential confounding, and the chosen
170 cut-off of 24 hours is arbitrary and introduces many well recognized problems. As with previous
171 studies, the dichotomization of a continuous variable (e.g. time in hours) leads to the loss of
172 information, reduction in statistical power and inflates the risk of a Type 1 error. Additionally,
173 dichotomization may misclassify individuals around the cut-off point (e.g. individuals operated at
174 23.5 versus 24.5 hours after injury are very similar but will be categorized differently by using an
175 arbitrary threshold of 24 hours) and this results in loss of information about the distribution between

176 exposure and outcome (Lang and Altman, 2013). Although Pavan et al. (2018) used a post-hoc
177 Monte-Carlo simulation to estimate the effect of time on infection, with time grouped into 1 hour
178 intervals, a more robust design would measure time as a continuous variable (as we did) and
179 bootstrap the final model to work within the limits of the observed data (Lang and Altman, 2013;
180 Moons et al., 2015). Therefore, our study adds higher quality, prospectively collected data and
181 agrees with the findings of most studies (Zehtabchi et al., 2012) that the time from injury to surgery
182 appears to be unrelated to the risk of infection. Also, we add data to show that SSI appears to be
183 independent of many commonly cited risk factors (Table 3). Nevertheless, we recognize that our
184 sample contained patients with a variety of injuries, that antibiotic use was variable and highly
185 prevalent, and there may be factors which we have failed to consider which might affect the
186 estimates.

187

188 The use of perioperative antibiotics did not appear to affect the risk of infection (Table 3 and Figure
189 4). However, the confidence interval around this adjusted estimate is wide, which is probably
190 because 95% of patients received antibiotics and the rate of infection was small, meaning that the
191 model is likely to be underpowered at this level. To improve the precision of our estimate, we
192 bootstrapped the multivariable model with 1000 iterations although this still yielded null findings;
193 with an allocation ratio of 19:1 any observational study is likely to yield imprecise estimates, so a
194 different design might be needed, perhaps in the form of a randomized trial. Nevertheless, our
195 findings are in agreement with the comprehensive work by Murphy et al. (2016) which, although
196 based on moderate quality evidence, found that antibiotics do not reduce the risk of infection in
197 simple open hand injuries treated surgically. However, several studies (including studies of bites,
198 open fractures and crush injuries) did not meet the inclusion criteria for their review, so translation
199 to other injury patterns may be limited. All patients reported by Morgan et al. (1980), Juon et al.
200 (2014) and Pavan et al. (2018) received perioperative antibiotics and their overall occurrences of
201 infection were 1%, 5% and 3%, respectively. The infection rates in Morgan et al. (1980) and Pavan
202 et al. (2018) are slightly lower than we found and that have been reported in other similar studies.
203 This may be due to several reasons: the lack of information on the pattern of injury and treatment

204 makes inferences difficult (Morgan et al., 1980); and the strict criteria for infection (all four signs of
205 erythema, tenderness, swelling and purulent discharge) applied by Pavan et al. (2018) might
206 underestimate the prevalence of wounds treated for suspected infection in everyday practice. In
207 contrast, the prospective study by Baker and Lanuti (1990) reported that infection occurred more
208 frequently in those treated with antibiotics (4% versus 1%) although this might be explained by
209 their more liberal approach to the diagnosis of infection, which permitted the presence of pus,
210 lymphangitis, cellulitis or increasing tenderness to constitute a diagnosis. Although we have altered
211 the policy concerning the use of pre- and perioperative antibiotics to improve antimicrobial
212 stewardship in our centres, there is still disagreement between hand surgeons about the role of
213 prophylactic antibiotics in open hand injuries. This should be addressed in large-scale, well-
214 designed studies, for the benefit of patients and global health.

215

216 We observed several clinically important negative findings about purported risk factors for SSI,
217 which may be due to limitations in the study design. A diagnosis of diabetes was not associated
218 with the risk of infection, which may be a Type 2 error owing to few cases or represent currently
219 improved glycaemic control. We expected crush and bite injuries to confer a higher risk of infection
220 (Henton and Jain, 2012) although this was not observed; however, this area requires further
221 investigation before clinicians alter their practice. We also expected patients with multiple injured
222 digits to be at higher risk of infection although this too was not borne out in the data.

223

224 As with any study, we were unable to prevent loss of patients to follow-up but believe this is likely
225 to be small because the prevalence of SSI was in keeping with previous reports (which suggests
226 that most, if not all, patients with hand infections were detected or re-directed to our services). We
227 used a definition of infection which was based on the actions of the treating clinician, which might
228 not represent the true prevalence of SSI in this population and may not be generalizable.

229

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231

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269

270 **Figure legends**

271

272 **Figure 1.** Boxplot of the incidence of surgical site infection by hours from injury to surgery. The line
273 bisecting the box represents the median, the limits of the box are the interquartile range (IQR) and
274 the whiskers are 1.5 x IQR.

275

276 **Figure 2.** A marginal effects plot showing that the provision of preoperative antibiotics does not
277 affect the risk of surgical site infection (SSI) in patients with or without diabetes. The red and blue
278 lines represent the risk of SSI over time in each group and the coloured regions are their 95%
279 confidence intervals. Note that the difference between the lines is negligible to begin with (<0.01%)
280 and the lines ultimately converge meaning that antibiotics do not reduce the risk of infection over
281 time in diabetics treated surgically.

282

283 **Figure 3.** A marginal effects plot showing that the provision of preoperative antibiotics does not
284 affect the risk of surgical site infection (SSI) in patients with sharp lacerations, crush injuries or
285 bites. The red, blue and green lines represent the risk of SSI over time per mechanism and the
286 coloured regions are their 95% confidence intervals. Note that the difference between the lines is
287 tiny to begin with (i.e. the difference in infection risk between groups is barely perceivable) and
288 ultimately all three lines converge meaning that antibiotics do not appear to affect the risk of
289 infection over time.

290

291 **Figure 4.** A marginal effects plot showing that the provision of preoperative antibiotics does not
292 affect the risk of surgical site infection (SSI) in patients with skin loss. The red and blue lines
293 represent the risk of SSI over time for each group and the coloured regions are their 95%
294 confidence intervals. The difference between the lines is sustained over time which means that
295 skin loss increases the risk of SSI over time; however, the confidence intervals for the effect of
296 antibiotics overlap, meaning that antibiotics do not appear to affect this risk when patients are
297 managed surgically.

298

299 **Supplementary Figure 1S (available online).** Boxplot of the incidence of surgical site infection for
300 with with and without skin loss, by hours from injury to surgery. The line bisecting the box
301 represents the median, the limits of the box are the interquartile range (IQR) and the whiskers are
302 $1.5 \times \text{IQR}$.

303

304 **Supplementary Figure 2S (available online).** Boxplot of the incidence of surgical site infection for
305 with with and without diabetes, by hours from injury to surgery. The line bisecting the box
306 represents the median, the limits of the box are the interquartile range (IQR) and the whiskers are
307 $1.5 \times \text{IQR}$.

308

309 **Supplementary Figure 3S (available online).** Boxplot of the incidence of surgical site infection for
310 the different mechanisms of injury, by hours from injury to surgery. The line bisecting the box
311 represents the median, the limits of the box are the interquartile range (IQR) and the whiskers are
312 $1.5 \times \text{IQR}$.

313

314