Original research

The risk factors and an evidence-based protocol for the management of persistent wound drainage after total hip and knee arthroplasty

Alisina Shahi, MD, PhD a, b, *, Richie Boe, MD a, Matthew Bullock, DO a, Chris Hoedt, MD b, Azzam Fayyad, MD c, Lawrence Miller, MD b, Ali Oliashirazi, MD a

a Oliashirazi Institute at Marshall University, Huntington, WV, USA
b Cooper Bone and Joint Institute, Cooper University Hospital, Camden, NJ, USA
c Medcare Orthopedics and Spine Hospital, Dubai, UAE

A B S T R A C T

Background: Persistent wound drainage (PWD) is one of the major risk factors for periprosthetic joint infections (PJIs), arguably the most dreaded complication after total joint arthroplasty (TJA). The aim of this study was to identify the risk factors for PWD and provide a stepwise management protocol for it.

Methods: A retrospective review of 4873 TJAs was performed. After determining patients with PWD, a logistic regression model was designed to identify the risk factors using Charlson and Elixhauser comorbidity indexes. Finally, the protocol that was instituted for the management of PWD and its success rate was presented.

Results: The prevalence of PWD was 6.2% (302 of 4873). Of these, 196 did not require any surgical interventions, and drainage stopped with local wound care. 106 patients required surgical intervention, of which, 64 underwent superficial irrigation and debridement and 42 underwent deep irrigation and debridement with modular components exchange. Patients with PWD had significantly higher rates of PJI (odds ratio [OR]: 16.9; 95% confidence interval [CI]: 9.1-31.6). Risks factors were diabetes (OR: 21.2; 95% CI: 12.8-25.1), morbid obesity (OR: 17.3; 95% CI: 14.7-21.5), rheumatoid arthritis (OR: 14.2; 95% CI: 11.7-16.5), chronic alcohol use (OR: 4.3; 95% CI: 2.3-6.1), hypothyroidism (OR: 2.8; 95% CI: 1.3-4.2), and female gender (OR: 1.9; 95% CI: 1.1-2.2).

Conclusions: Several modifiable risk factors of PWD were identified. Surgeons must be cognizant of these comorbidities and optimize patients’ general health before an elective TJA. Our results demonstrated that PWD ceased in about 65% of the patients with local wound care measures alone. Patients with PWD were at substantially higher risk for PJI.

Introduction

Periprosthetic joint infection (PJI) is one of the most dreaded complications after total joint arthroplasty (TJA) [1]. Although PJI is not the most common complication, it is the most common cause for revision within 2 years for total knee arthroplasty (TKA) [1-4].

Reducing the risk of developing a PJI after TJA has been the motivation of countless studies ranging from preoperative protocol to intraoperative and postoperative techniques. A major risk factor for PJI is persistent wound drainage (PWD) [5-8]. Draining wounds are a relatively common and challenging problem, with an incidence of up to 14% of all total hip arthroplasty (THA) and TKA procedures [9,10]. The subsequent rate of PJI after persistently draining wounds has ranged from 1.3% to 50% [11-15]. Despite this potentially high rate of infection, there is no unified protocol for management of these wounds. In addition, identifying risk factors for PWD may identify proactive measures that can be taken to prevent this complication.

Numerous definitions have been introduced for persistent drainage after THA and TKA, most of which are different in duration.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.artd.2019.05.003
2352-3441/© 2019 The Authors. Published by Elsevier Inc. on behalf of The American Association of Hip and Knee Surgeons. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/).
and amount of drainage. The 2013 International Consensus Meeting on PJI provided a definition for PWD. The work group recommended that substantial drainage (greater than 2 × 2 cm area of gauze) from a wound beyond 72 hours should be considered abnormal [5]. In most cases, local wound treatments are successful in halting the drainage. However, it has been reported that draining wounds are unlikely to cease after 5–7 days [16]. Thus, general consensus has been that drainage beyond 5–7 days is an indication for surgical intervention [16–18].

Conservative management of the early draining wound can include pharmacological and dressing changes. Negative pressure wound therapy has gained significant attention for management of draining wounds in the recent years. Negative pressure wound therapy has been touted to reduce retrograde flow into the wound and aid in wound healing [19,20]. However, more recent studies have put this benefit into question for standard TJAs and have highlighted possible risks such as blistering [21–23]. Other reported methods that have been successful in stopping PWD include pausing anticoagulant agents, employing compression dressings, and reducing joint motion [13,24]. Current literature strongly recommends against administration of antibiotics during early stages in patients with continued drainage as it can compromise subsequent laboratory evaluations and has not been shown to decrease the risks of PJI development [17,25,26].

With the lack of consensus on the management of PWD after THA and TKA, the aim of this study is to provide an evidence-based management protocol and assess the outcomes of this protocol. This study also aimed to determine the rate of PWD after TJA, as well as the relationship between PJI and PWD. Moreover, we sought to investigate the risk factors that can lead to higher rates of wound drainage after THA and TKA.

Material and methods

Upon institutional review board approval, we conducted a retrospective single institutional study and reviewed all 4873 primary TJAs (1218 THAs and 3655 TKAs) that were performed between 2008 and 2015. There were no exclusion criteria. Due to the lack of an International Classification of Diseases, Ninth Revision (ICD-9) code for wound drainage, our institutional database was queried for key words such as drainage, draining, outflow, oozing, leak, discharge, exudate, and wound complication. Charts, which contained the aforementioned keywords, were then manually reviewed. Patients with wound drainage for longer than 48 hours were identified. The definition of PWD in this study was drainage greater than 2 cm × 2 cm after 48 hours postoperatively. All TJA patients who underwent subsequent irrigation and debridement (I&D), revision arthroplasty, or developed PJI within 1 year were identified for this study. Three hundred two patients with PWD were identified. The demographics are presented in Table 1. All 302 patients in the study with PWD were followed for a minimum of 1 year.

To identify risk factors for PWD, the Charlson and Elixhauser comorbidity indexes, which track ICD-9 codes, were used to identify comorbidities. Patient demographic data were also obtained from the indexes and chart review. Acute PJI was identified based on the 2011 Musculoskeletal Infection Society criteria within 90 days postoperatively from index procedure [27]. A multivariate logistic regression model was designed to calculate the odds ratios (ORs) for each of these comorbidities and demographic items.

The management protocol consists of 2 main steps, nonoperative and operative. Patients with draining wounds were initially treated with nonoperative measures based on studies referenced above, which included suspension of anticoagulation, local wound care measures such as pressure bandages, frequent dressing changes, and reducing knee motion for TKA patients [13,27]. These conservative changes were implemented to allow the wound to rest temporarily. If drainage lasted longer than 7 days despite local wound care management, an I&D was performed [16–18]. Duration of drainage prior to surgical intervention varied slightly depending on severity of drainage, operating room and surgeon availability, and interval improvement. Based on intraoperative findings, a superficial I&D (ie, for a suture abscess) or deep I&D (ie, for drainage deep to fascia) was performed. If a superficial I&D was performed, the fascia was not breached. If a deep I&D was performed, all modular components were also exchanged and synovectomy was performed (Fig. 1). The anticoagulation agents were restarted after the second surgery (I&D) in all the patients.

Statistical analysis

Standard statistics were used to present the descriptive data. Chi-square tests were used to compare the incidences. An alpha level of 0.05 was used to determine statistical significance. A multivariate regression model was used to analyze the risk factors associated with PWD. All the analyses were performed using R 3.1 (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria). The “survey” package for R was used to derive estimates of means, medians, standard deviations, standard errors, rates, and confidence intervals (CIs).

Results

Persistent wound drainage was found in 6.2% (302 of 4873) of all TJAs. Of these patients, 196 did not require any surgical interventions and drainage stopped with local wound care. One hundred six patients required surgical intervention, of which 64 underwent superficial I&D and 42 underwent deep I&D with modular components exchange (Fig. 2). There was no statistical difference in the demographics of the patients who required surgical intervention compared to those who ceased to drain without any surgical intervention.

Forty-eight of the 302 patients who had PWD (15.9%) developed PJI within 1 year of their surgery. Seventeen of the 64 patients who underwent a superficial I&D developed PJI, with a 26.6% rate of PJI after superficial I&D. Thirty-one of the 42 patients who underwent a deep I&D with modular exchange developed PJI, with a 73.8% rate of PJI after deep I&D. Of note, none of the patients who stopped drainage with nonoperative measures developed PJI within 1 year of the index surgery. Compared to those patients without wound drainage, the TJAs complicated by wound drainage demonstrated an OR of 16.9 (95% CI 9.1–31.6) for developing PJI. These patients also had an OR of 18.0 (95% CI 11.3–28.7) for undergoing a subsequent surgery, including I&Ds and revisions.

Risks factors for developing PWD before any intervention were found to include diabetes (OR 21.2, 95% CI 12.8–35.1), morbid obesity (OR 173, 95% CI 14.7–21.5), rheumatoid arthritis (OR 14.2, 95% CI 11.7–16.5), chronic alcohol use (OR 4.3, 95% CI 2.3–6.1), hypothyroidism (OR 2.8, 95% CI 1.3–4.2), and female gender (OR 1.9, 95% CI 1.1–2.2) (Table 2). Interestingly, TKA was also a risk factor for

### Table 1 Demographics

| Procedure          | Total hip arthroplasty (N = 1218) | Total knee arthroplasty (N = 3655) | P-value |
|--------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------|
| Gender             |                                    |                                   |         |
| Male               | 743 female/475 male               | 1971 female/1684 male             | <0.05   |
| Age (y)            | 65.3 ± 21.2                       | 63.7 ± 33.1                       | .113    |
| Body mass (kg/m²)  | 44.1 ± 5.3                        | 43.4 ± 7.1                        | .0016   |

*a Variables are presented as mean ± standard deviation.*
developing PWD (OR 1.4, 95% CI 1.1-1.6). Patients with morbid obesity were found to have increased risk of prolonged drainage in THA ($P = .005$), but not in TKA ($P = .681$). The occurrence of wound drainage resulted in significantly longer hospital stays in both THA and TKA ($P < .005$) and significantly higher rates of PJI (OR 16.9, 95% CI 9.1-31.6). Finally, in 2014, our institutional anticoagulation protocol changed from warfarin to aspirin for most TJA patients. The rate of wound drainage significantly dropped after this time point from 6.3% to 3.1% ($P < .001$).

**Discussion**

Few studies have explored the independent risk factors for developing PWD after TJA. This study investigated the risk factors, both modifiable and nonmodifiable, that may lead to development of PWD, as well as a management protocol for treating this complication. Several risk factors were identified in this study that contributed to the development of wound drainage after TJA. The extent that some of these risk factors contribute is rather impressive and is consistent with previous studies [28]. Diabetes was found to have an OR of 21.2 for having PWD and morbid obesity had an OR of 17.3. Morbid obesity increased the risk of wound drainage in THA, but not TKA, which can likely be attributed to an increased amount of subcutaneous adipose tissue around the hip compared to around the knee in these patients. These risks may not be completely modifiable but can be reduced with proper medical treatment and perioperative management [29]. Nonmodifiable risk factors included a higher OR for TKA compared to THA, as well as female gender.

An interesting finding of this study was the decrease in the rate of PWD after the switch from warfarin to aspirin for deep vein thrombosis prophylaxis for most patients. The rate dropped from 6.3% to 3.1%. This correlates with several recent studies showing decreased complications and equivalent efficacy of aspirin therapy compared to traditional warfarin therapy. Aspirin has not been shown to increase the risk of deep vein thrombosis or pulmonary embolism after a TJA compared to warfarin [30-32]. Aspirin is also more predictable in its anticoagulant effects, while warfarin often does not reach therapeutic levels until after the patient has been discharged home [33]. Longer hospital stays were also found to be a result of persistently draining wounds, which can delay rehabilitation and increase morbidity and cost.

The management of persistent drainage has had a spectrum of recommendations, many of which are based on limited data. This study intended to evaluate a large sample of TJAs to determine the overall drainage rate and associated outcomes, as well as to provide an evidence-based guideline for management. The clinical success of our management guidelines validates similar published guidelines based on literature review that have been recently published [24,34].

This study evaluated a large patient group from a single institutional database using ICD-9. This contains some inherent limitations in regards to variability as well as limited data available.
from ICD-9 databases. Since there was no ICD-9 code for wound drainage, a keyword chart search was required for identifying patients. This could result in under-reported occurrences of wound drainage. This study also did not identify the type of wound closure, nor the specific wound care techniques utilized. The introduced protocol in this study has been in place at our institution for a long time and surgeons have been coherent with this protocol for management of PWDs. However, there might be very few cases that were not managed exactly per protocol and we were not able to identify them in this study. Finally, if a patient was treated at an outside facility for subsequent drainage or infection, this would not be included in this study’s analysis.

This study demonstrated the incidence of PWD (6.2%) and subsequent rate of PJI (15.9%) that are consistent with multiple other studies. Previously reported wound drainage rates ranged from 2.9% to 14%[10,11]. Other studies have shown rate of PJI after other studies. Previously reported wound drainage rates ranged from ICD-9 databases. Since there was no ICD-9 code for wound drainage, a keyword chart search was required for identifying patients. This could result in under-reported occurrences of wound drainage. This study also did not identify the type of wound closure, nor the specific wound care techniques utilized. The introduced protocol in this study has been in place at our institution for a long time and surgeons have been coherent with this protocol for management of PWDs. However, there might be very few cases that were not managed exactly per protocol and we were not able to identify them in this study. Finally, if a patient was treated at an outside facility for subsequent drainage or infection, this would not be included in this study’s analysis.

Conclusions

Wound drainage represents a common and challenging problem after TJA. This study isolated several patient comorbidities that increase the risk for wound drainage and subsequently the risk for PJI. To mitigate infection risk, modifiable risk factors should be optimized prior to surgery including hemoglobin A1C, weight loss, and decreased alcohol intake. An additional finding included the decreased rate of wound drainage with the use of aspirin for anticoagulation rather than warfarin. In order to minimize the risk of PJI after development of PWD, our institution developed an evidenced-based management protocol. This protocol was based on numerous evidence-based studies as well as our own personal management techniques of this problem. Using this protocol, we were able to successfully manage PWD with nonsurgical intervention in 65% of our patients. Most importantly, PJI was not diagnosed within the first year in any of the patients with PWD that was ceased with conservative measures by day 7. Aspirin also reduce the incidence of PWD by over 50%. Our management protocol is both simple and provides an effective system to manage PWD, while reducing the risk of PJI.

References

[1] Clohisy JC, Calvert G, Tull F, McDonald D, Maloney WJ. Reasons for revision hip surgery: a retrospective review. Clin Orthop Relat Res 2004;429:188.
[2] Sharkey PF, Hozack WJ, Rothman RH, Schaffer S, Jacoby SM. Insall Award paper. Why are total knee arthroplasties failing today? Clin Orthop Relat Res 2002;404:7.
[3] Sharkey PF, Luchtstein PM, Shen C, Tokarski AT, Parvizi J. Why are total knee arthroplasties failing today—has anything changed after 10 years? J Arthroplasty 2014;29:1774.
[4] Vessely MB, Whaley AL, Harmens WS, Schleck CD, Berry DJ. The Chittranjan Ranawat Award: long-term survivorship and failure modes of 1000 cemented condylar total knee arthroplasties. Clin Orthop Relat Res 2000;452:28.
[5] Ghanem EM, Heppert V, Spangehl M, et al. Wound management. J Orthop Res 2014;32(Suppl. 1):S108.
[6] Pulido L, Ghanem E, Joshi A, Purtill JJ, Parvizi J. Perioperative joint infection; the incidence, timing, and predisposing factors. Clin Orthop Relat Res 2008;466:1710.
[7] Weiss AP, Krackow KA. Persistent wound drainage after primary total knee arthroplasty. J Arthroplasty 1993;8:285.
[8] Patel VP, Walsh M, Haymanack CT, Joshi A, Purtill J. Procrastination of wound drainage. J Bone Joint Surg Am 2002;84:1411.
[9] Jaberi FM, Parvizi J, Haymanack CT, Joshi A, Purtill J. Procrastination of wound drainage and malnutrition affect the outcome of joint arthroplasty. Clin Orthop Relat Res 2008;466:1368.
[10] Surin VV, Sundholm K, Backman L. Infection after total hip replacement. With special reference to a discharge from the wound. J Bone Joint Surg Br 1983;65:472.
[11] Eveillard M, Mertl P, Caranelli B, et al. [Risk of deep infection in first-intention total hip replacement. Evaluation concerning a continuous series of 790 cases]. Presse Med 2001;30:1868.
[12] Masterson EI, Masri BA, Duncan CP. Treatment of infection at the site of total hip replacement. Instr Course Lect 1998;47:297.
[13] Patel VP, Walsh M, Selghal B, Preston C, DeWalt H, Di Cesare PE. Factors associated with prolonged wound drainage after primary total hip and knee arthroplasty. J Bone Joint Surg Am 2007;89:53.
[14] Posr RS, Thornhill TS, Ewald FC, Thomas WH, Batte NJ, Sledge CB. Factors influencing the incidence and outcome of infection following total joint arthroplasty. Clin Orthop Relat Res 1984;192:117.
[15] Vinc K, Chivas D, Droll KP. Wound complications after total knee arthroplasty. J Arthroplasty 2002;7:22:39.
[16] Dennis DA. Wound complications in total knee arthroplasty. Orthopedics 2007;30:837.
[17] Lommer JH, Lotke PA. Aseptic complications after total knee arthroplasty. J Am Acad Orthop Surg 1999;7:311.
[18] Saleh K, Olson M, Resig S, et al. Predictors of wound infection in hip and knee joint replacement: results from a 20 year surveillance program. J Orthop Res 2002;20:506.
[19] Pachowsky M, Gusinde J, Klein A, et al. Negative pressure wound therapy to prevent seromas and treat surgical incisions after total hip arthroplasty. Int Orthop 2012;36:719.
[20] Wilkes RP, Kildap DV, Zhao Y, Kizala R, McNulty A. Closed incision management with negative pressure wound therapy (CIM): biomechanics. Surg Innov 2012;19:67.
[21] Baden D, Goldenstein J, Endara M, Xu K, Steinberg J, Attinger C. Negative pressure wound therapy for at-risk surgical closures in patients with multiple comorbidities: a prospective randomized controlled study. Ann Surg 2007;245:1043.
[22] Siqueira MB, Ramanathan D, Kikla AK, Higuera CA, Barsoum WK. Role of negative pressure wound therapy in total hip and knee arthroplasty. World J Orthop 2016;7:30.
[23] Wallen RW, Scuffham P, Stankiewicz M, Chaboyer WP. Negative pressure wound therapy for skin grafts and surgical wounds healing by primary intention. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2014;10:CD009261.
[24] Reich MS, Ezzer KA. A nonsurgical protocol for management of postarthroplasty wound drainage. Arthroplast Today 2017;4:71.
[25] Hansen E, Durinka JB, Costanzo JA, Austin MS, Deirmengan GK. Negative pressure wound therapy is associated with resolution of incisional drainage in most wounds after hip arthroplasty. Clin Orthop Relat Res 2013;471:3230.
Shahi A, Deirmengian C, Higuera C, et al. Premature therapeutic antimicrobial treatments can compromise the diagnosis of late periprosthetic joint infection. Clin Orthop Relat Res 2015;473:2244.

Parvizi J, Zmistowski B, Berbari EF, et al. New definition for periprosthetic joint infection: from the workgroup of the musculoskeletal Infection society. Clin Orthop Relat Res 2011;469:2992.

England SP, Stern SH, Insall JN, Windsor RE. Total knee arthroplasty in diabetes mellitus. Clin Orthop Relat Res 1990;260:130.

Moucha CS, Clyburn TA, Evans RP, Prokuski L. Modifiable risk factors for surgical site infection. Instr Course Lect 2011;60:557.

Gesell MW, Gonzalez Della Valle A, Bartolomé García S, et al. Safety and efficacy of multimodal thromboprophylaxis following total knee arthroplasty: a comparative study of preferential aspirin vs. routine coumadin chemoprophylaxis. J Arthroplasty 2013;28:575.

Huang RC, Parvizi J, Hozack WJ, Chen AF, Austin MS. Aspirin is as effective as and safer than warfarin for patients at higher risk of venous thromboembolism undergoing total joint arthroplasty. J Arthroplasty 2016;31:83.

Lotke PA, Palevsky H, Keenan AM, et al. Aspirin and warfarin for thromboembolic disease after total joint arthroplasty. Clin Orthop Relat Res 1996;324:251.

van Veen JJ, Makris M. Management of peri-operative anti-thrombotic therapy. Anaesthesia 2015;70(Suppl. 1):58. e21-e23.

Simons MJ, Amin NH, Scuderi GR. Acute wound complications after total knee arthroplasty: prevention and management. J Am Acad Orthop Surg 2017;25:547.