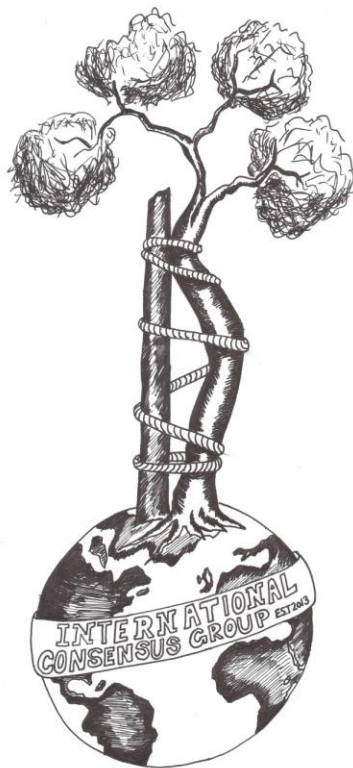


Proceedings of the International Consensus Meeting on Periprosthetic Joint Infection

Chairmen:

Thorsten Gehrke MD

Javad Parvizi MD, FRCS



Foreword

“The doorstep to the temple of wisdom is a knowledge of our own ignorance.”

Benjamin Franklin

The battle against infection is as old as human civilization. During the last few centuries, great scholars such as Louis Pasteur, Ignaz Philipp Semmelweis, Alexander Fleming, and Joseph Lister have transformed the practice of medicine through their extraordinary discoveries. Despite the progress made and strides gained, our mission to prevent infection following surgery remains unaccomplished. It is not an exaggeration to claim that fear of infection lives in the hearts of every surgeon who steps into the operating room daily.

Periprosthetic joint infection (PJI), with all its disastrous implications, continues to pose a challenge to the orthopaedic community. Practicing orthopaedic surgeons have invested great efforts to implement strategies that may minimize surgical site infection (SSI). Although high-level evidence may support some of these practices, many are based on little to no scientific foundation. Thus, there is a remarkable variation in practices across the globe for prevention and management of PJI.

Should one use a laminar flow room for elective arthroplasty? How much and which antibiotic should one add to cement spacers? What metric should one use to decide on the optimal timing of reimplantation? What are the indications and contraindications for irrigation and debridement? How many irrigation and debridement in a joint should be attempted before resection arthroplasty needs to be considered? And what is the best type of skin preparation prior to surgery? These are among the many questions that the orthopaedic community faces on a daily basis. While some aspects of our practice are in dire need of a higher level of evidence to support them, others can hardly be subjected to the scrutiny of a randomized study, and an effort to generate evidence in support of these practices may be laborious and difficult indeed.

The medical community comprehends the importance of high-level evidence and engages in the generation of such whenever possible. The community also recognizes that some aspects of medicine will never lend themselves to the generation of high-level evidence nor should one attempt to do so. It is with the recognition of the latter that The International Consensus Meeting on Periprosthetic Joint Infection was organized. Delegates from various disciplines including orthopaedic surgery, infectious disease, musculoskeletal pathology, microbiology, anesthesiology, dermatology, nuclear medicine, rheumatology, musculoskeletal radiology, veterinary surgery, pharmacy, and numerous scientists with interest in orthopaedic infections came together to evaluate the available evidence, when present, or reach consensus regarding current practices for management of SSI/PJI. The process of generating the consensus has spanned 10 months. Every stone has been turned in search of evidence for these questions,

with over 3,500 related publications evaluated. The evidence, when available, has been assessed. Otherwise the cumulative wisdom of 400 delegates from 51 countries and over 100 societies has been amassed to reach consensus about practices that lack higher level of evidence. The members of the Musculoskeletal Infection Society (MSIS) and the European Bone and Joint Infection Society (EBJIS), the two societies whose mission is to improve care of patients with musculoskeletal infection, have contributed to this initiative immensely. The delegates have been engaged every step of the way by communicating through a “social” website generated for this purpose, with over 25,000 communications exchanged. The consensus document has been developed using the Delphi method under the leadership of Dr. Cats-Baril, a world-renowned expert in consensus development. The design of the consensus process was to include as many stakeholders as possible, allow participation in multiple forums, and providing a comprehensive review of the literature. The topics that were covered included the following: mitigation and education on comorbidities associated with increased SSI/PJI, perioperative skin preparation, perioperative antibiotics, operative environment, blood conservation, prosthesis selection, diagnosis of PJI, wound management, spacers, irrigation and debridement, antibiotic treatment and timing of reimplantation, one-stage versus two-stage exchange arthroplasty, management of fungal or atypical PJI, oral antibiotic therapy, and prevention of late PJI. Every consensus statement has undergone extreme scrutiny, especially by those with expertise in a specific area, to ensure that implementation of these practices will indeed lead to improvement of patient care.

After synthesizing the literature and assembling a preliminary draft of the consensus statement, over 300 delegates attended the face-to-face meeting in Philadelphia and were involved in active discussions and voting on the questions/consensus statements. The delegates first met on July 31 in smaller workgroups to discuss and resolve any discrepancies and finalize their statements. Then, the delegates met in the general assembly for further discussion of questions and consensus statements. After revising the consensus statements, the finalized consensus statement was assembled and the document was forwarded to the Audience Response System that evening for voting to begin the next day. On August 1, 2013 the delegates came into the general assembly and voted on the 207 questions/consensus statements that were being presented. The voting process was conducted using electronic keypads, where one could agree with the consensus statement, disagree with the consensus statement, or abstain from voting. The strength of the consensus was judged by the following scale: 1) Simple Majority: No Consensus (50.1-59% agreement), 2) Majority: Weak Consensus (60-65% agreement), 3) Super Majority: Strong Consensus (66-99% agreement) and 4) Unanimous: 100% agreement. Of the 207 questions, there was unanimous vote for one question (controlling OR traffic), 202 questions received super majority (strong consensus), two questions had weak consensus, and only two questions did not achieve any consensus.

The document presented here is the result of innumerable hours of work by the liaisons, leaders and delegates dedicated to this historic initiative. The information conveyed in this document is based on evidence, whenever present, or is the result of cumulative wisdom of over 400 of world’s experts in musculoskeletal infection from 58 countries. We are certain that the “best practice guide” set forth by this initiative will serve many of our patients for years to come. It is essential to state that the information contained in this document is merely a guide to practicing physicians who treat patients with musculoskeletal infection and should not be considered as a “standard of care”. Clinicians should exercise their wisdom and clinical acumen in making decisions related to each individual patient. In some circumstances this may require implementation of care that differs from what is stated in this document.

On with our fight against infection.

Thorsten Gehrke MD

Javad Parvizi MD, FRCS

Acknowledgements:

A project of this magnitude is not possible without the assistance and leadership of many. We would like to thank Mitchell Maltenfort PhD, manager of Biostatistics and Bioethics at the Rothman Institute, who has been a critical player in orchestrating literature review, document development, and the numerous edits that have followed. Tiffany Morrison MS, and her team should single-handedly be given most of the credit for their leadership in organization of the meeting, which was no small task. Tiffany and her team had worked long hours in the months preceding the meeting to ensure every detail was covered and should be credited for the success of this meeting.

Special thanks to Katherine Huff BA, from the Rothman Institute, for her invaluable editorial skills and detail-oriented mind that could see the trees in the massive forest and ensured the accuracy of every statement made in this document.

We need to thank Greg Chang and his team from ForMD that provided the “social” platform for communication. Numerous interactions and invaluable discussions that took place between delegates would not have been possible without the ForMD. The team should be congratulated for their hard work and extremely responsive attitude that allowed efficient and timely communication between members of the consensus.

Dr. Sandra Berríos-Torres, from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, needs a special mention as she has provided us with her expertise and leadership throughout the consensus process and specifically worked with liaisons of some workgroups. She was also kind to attend the meeting in person. As a technical expert representing a United States federal agency, Dr. Berríos-Torres did not vote on any of the consensus statements. While we are unable to include her as a delegate in the document, her contributions to this initiative are greatly appreciated.

With Immense Gratitude to our Sponsors

A meeting of this magnitude could not take place without the generous support of industry partners whose mission parallels ours in providing better care for patients. We are indebted to every one of our industry partners for their financial support and more critically for their scholarly input throughout the process. We appreciate their input during the literature review and refinement of questions and their agreement not to be part of the “voting” delegates.

Platinum Sponsor:



Silver Sponsor:

BIOMET[®]

CeramTec
THE CERAMIC EXPERTS

ConvaTec 

 **Exactech**[®]

TECRES[®] 
Advancing High Technology

stryker[®]

Bronze Sponsor:



Sponsor:



Medtronic



EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Periprosthetic joint infection (PJI), with its disastrous implications, continues to challenge the orthopaedic community. Practicing orthopaedic surgeons continue to invest efforts to minimize surgical site infection (SSI). Although high-level evidence may support some of these practices, many are based on little to no scientific foundation. This results in wide variation across the globe for prevention and management of PJI. To address this, The International Consensus Meeting on Periprosthetic Joint Infection was organized. Delegates from disciplines including orthopaedic surgery, infectious disease, and many others participated. The process of generating the consensus has spanned 10 months. Over 3,500 relevant publications were evaluated by 400 delegates from 60 countries and numerous societies.

This consensus document has been developed using the Delphi method under the leadership of Dr. Cats-Baril, a world-renowned expert in consensus development. The consensus process was designed to include many participants, allow participation in multiple forums, and provide a comprehensive review of the literature. Covered topics included the following: mitigation and education on comorbidities associated with increased SSI/PJI, perioperative skin preparation, perioperative antibiotics, operative environment, blood conservation, prosthesis selection, diagnosis of PJI, wound management, spacers, irrigation and debridement, antibiotic treatment and timing of reimplantation, one-stage versus two-stage exchange arthroplasty, management of fungal or atypical PJI, oral antibiotic therapy, and prevention of late PJI. Every consensus statement has undergone careful scrutiny by both subject matter experts and generalists to ensure that its implementation will indeed lead to improvement of care for patients. Based on this process, the following consensus statements were developed.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

<u>Section</u>	<u>Page</u>
Foreword	8
Sponsors	11
Societies Represented	15
Nations Represented	17
<u>Workgroup 1: Mitigation and Education</u>	
<u>Liaisons:</u>	
Vinay K Aggarwal MD, Eric H Tischler BA	
<u>Leaders:</u>	
Charles Lautenbach MD, Gerald R Williams Jr MD	21
<u>Delegates:</u>	
Joseph A Abboud MD, Mark Altena MD, Thomas Bradbury MD, Jason Calhoun MD, FACS, Douglas Dennis MD, Daniel J Del Gaizo MD, Lluís Font-Vizcarra MD, Kaisa Huotari MD, Stephen Kates MD, Kyung-Hoi Koo PhD, Tad M Mabry MD, Calin Stefan Moucha MD, Julio Cesar Palacio MD, Trisha Nicole Peel MBBS, Rudolf W.Poolman MD, PhD, William J Robb III MD, Ralph Salvagno MD, Thorsten Seyler MD, Gabor Skaliczki MD, Edward M Vasarhelyi MD, William Charles Watters III, MD	
<u>Workgroup 2: Perioperative Skin Preparation</u>	
<u>Liaison:</u>	
Anthony T Tokarski BS	
<u>Leaders:</u>	
David Blaha MD (US), Michael A. Mont MD (US), Parag Sancheti MS, DNB, MCh (International)	42
<u>Delegates:</u>	
Lyssette Cardona MD, MPH, MHA, AAHIVS, FIDSA, Gilberto Lara Cotacio MD, Mark Froimson MD, Bhaveen Kapadia MD, James Kuderna MD, PhD, Juan Carlos López MD, Wadih Y Matar MD, MSc, FRCSC, Joseph McCarthy MD, Rhidian Morgan-Jones MB BCh, FRCS, Michael Patzakis MD, Ran Schwarzkopf MD, Gholam Hossain Shahcheraghi MD, Xifu Shang MD, Petri Virolainen MD, PhD, Montri D. Wongworawat MD, Adolph Yates Jr, MD	
<u>Workgroup 3: Perioperative Antibiotics</u>	
<u>Liaison:</u>	
Erik Hansen MD	52
<u>Leaders:</u>	
Katherine Belden MD, Randi Silibovsky MD (US), Markus Vogt MD (International)	
<u>Delegates:</u>	

William Arnold MD, PhD, Goran Bicanic MD, PhD, Stefano Bini MD, Fabio Catani MD, Jiying Chen MD, PhD, Mohammad Ghazavi MD, FRCSC, Karine M. Godefroy MD, Paul Holham MD, Hamid Hosseinzadeh MD, Kang Il Kim MD, PhD, Klaus Kirketerp-Møller MD, Lars Lidgren MD PhD, Jian Hao Lin MD, Jess H Lonner MD, Christopher C Moore MD, Panayiotis Papagelopoulos MD, Lazaros Poultsides MD MSc PhD, R Lor Randall MD, Brian Roslund PharmD, Khalid Saleh MD MSC FRCSC MHCM, Julia V Salmon MD, Edward Schwarz PhD, Jose Stuyck MD, Annette W Dahl MD, Koji Yamada MD

Workgroup 4: Operative Environment

Liaisons:

Pouya Alijanipour MD, Joseph Karam MD

Leaders:

Adolfo Llinás MD (International), Kelly G Vince MD (International), Charalampos Zalavras MD (US)

114

Delegates:

Matthew Austin MD, Grant Garrigues MD, Snir Heller MD, James Huddleston MD, Brian Klatt MD, Viktor Krebs MD, Christoph Lohmann MD, Edward J McPherson MD, Robert Molloy MD, Ali Oliashirazi MD, Mitchell Schwaber MD, Eoin Sheehan MD, Eric Smith MD, Robert Sterling MD, Gregory Stocks MD, Shrinand Vaidya MD

Workgroup 5: Blood Conservation

Liaison:

Mohammad R Rasouli MD

Leaders:

Luiz Sérgio Marcelino Gomes MD, PhD (International), Brian Parsley MD (US)

163

Delegates:

Wael Barsoum MD, Hari Bezwada MD, James Cashman MD, Julio Garcia MD, William Hamilton MD, Eric Hume MD, Rajesh Malhotra MD, Stavros Memtsoudis MD, PhD, Alvin Ong MD, Fabio Orozco MD, Douglas Padgett MD, Ricardo Reina MD, Marco Teloken MD, Emmanuel Thienpont MD, Jonathan H Waters MD

Workgroup 6: Prosthesis Selection

Liaison:

Claudio Diaz-Ledezma MD

Leaders:

Javad Parvizi MD, FRCS (US), Yixin Zhou MD (International)

Delegates:

Valentin Antoci MD, Paul Ducheyne PhD, Andrew Freiberg MD, Gustavo Garcia Rangel MD, Seung Beom Han MD, Noreen Hickok PhD, Carlos Higuera MD, Constantinos Ketonis MD, Feza Korkusuz MD, Jacek Kruczynski MD, Francisco Macule MD, Jacek Markuszewski MD, Oliver Marín-Peña MD, Dinesh Nathwani MD, Phillip Noble PhD, Kevin Ong PhD, Nelson Ono MD, Mohammad Sadegh Parvizi PhD, Zachary Post MD, Salvador Rivero-Boschert MD, Thomas Schaer VMD, Irving Shapiro DDS, PhD

184

Workgroup 7: Diagnosis of Periprosthetic Joint Infection

Liaison:

Benjamin Zmistowski BS

Leaders:

Craig Della Valle MD (US), Thomas W Bauer MD (US), Konstantinos N. Malizos MD, PhD (International)

202

Delegates:

Abbas Alavi MD, Hani Bedair MD, Robert E Booth MD, Peter Choong MD, Carl Deirmengian MD, Garth D Ehrlich PhD, Anil Gambir MD, Ronald Huang MD, Yair Kissin MD, Hideo Kobayashi MD, Naomi Kobayashi MD, Veit Krenn MD, Drago Lorenzo MD, SB Marston MD, Geert Meermans MD, Javier Perez MD, JJ Ploegmakers MD, Aaron Rosenberg MD, C SImpendorfer MD, Peter Thomas MD, Stephan Tohtz MD, Jorge A Villafuerte MD, Peter Wahl MD, Frank-Christiaan Wagenaar MD, Eivind Witzo MD

Workgroup 8: Wound Management

Liaison:

Elie Ghanem MD

Workgroup Leaders:

Volkmar Heppert MD (International), Mark Spangehl MD, FRCSC (US)

224

Delegates:

John Abraham MD, Khalid Azzam MD, Lowry Barnes MD, Federico Jose Burgo MD, Walid Ebeid MD, Nitin Goyal MD, Ernesto Guerra MD, Kirby Hitt MD, Sofiene Kallel MD, Gregg Klein MD, Yona Kosashvili MD, Brett Levine MD, Laura Matsen MD, Michael J Morris MD, James J Purtill MD, Chitranjan Ranawat MD, FRCS, FRCSC, Peter F Sharkey MD, Rafael Sierra MD, Anna Stefansdottir MD, PhD

Workgroup 9: Spacers

Liaison:

Mustafa Citak, MD

Leaders:

Jean-Noel Argenson MD (International), Bas Masri MD, FRCSC (International), Daniel Kendoff MD (International), Bryan Springer MD (US)

251

Delegates:

Volker Alt MD, Andrea Baldini MD, Quanjun Cui MD, Gregory K Deirmengian MD, Hernan del Sel MD, Michael F Harrer MD, Craig Israelite MD, David Jahoda MD, Paul C Jutte MD, Eric Levicoff MD, Enzo Meani MD, Fernando Motta MD, Orestes Ronaldo Pena MD, Amar S Ranawat MD, Oleg Safir MD, Matthew W Squire MD, Michael J Taunton MD, Charles Vogely MD, Samuel S Wellman MD

Workgroup 10: Irrigation and Debridement

Liaison:

Carl Haasper MD, PhD, MSc

Leaders:

Martin Buttaro MD (International), William Hozack MD (US)

274

Delegates:

Craig A Aboltins MD, Olivier Borens MD, JJ Callaghan MD, Pedro Ivo de Carvalho MD, Yuhan Chang MD, Pablo Corona MD, Ferdinando Da Rin MD, Silvano Esposito MD, Thomas K Fehring MD, Xavier Flores Sanchez MD, Gwo-Chin Lee MD, JC Martinez-Pastor MD, SM Javad Mortazavi MD, Nicolas O Noiseux MD, Kuo-Ti Peng MD, Harold Delano Schutte MD, Daniel Schweitzer MD, Rihard Trebše MD, Eleftherios Tsiridis MD, Leo Whiteside MD

Workgroup 11: Antibiotic Treatment and Timing of Reimplantation

Liaison:

Camilo Restrepo MD

Leaders:

Steven Schmitt MD (US), David Backstein MD (International)

287

Delegates:

Bryan T Alexander PharmD, Maja Babic MD, Barry D. Brause MD, John L Esterhai MD, Robert P. Good MD, Peter H Jørgensen MD, Paul Lee MB, BCh, FRCS, Camelia Marculescu MD, Claudio Mella MD, Carsten Perka MD, Aidin Eslam Pour MD, Harry E Rubash MD, Tomoyuki Saito MD, Rolando Suarez MD, Robert Townsend MD, I Remzi Tözün MD, Michel PJ Van den Bekerom MD

Workgroup 12: One-stage vs Two-stage Exchange

Liaison:

Paul Lichstein MD, MS

Leaders:

Thorsten Gehrke MD (International), Adolph Lombardi MD, FACS (US), Carlo Romano MD (International), Ian Stockley MB, ChB, MD, FRCS (International)

298

Delegates:

George Babis MD, Jerzy Bialecki MD, László Bucsi MD, Xu Cai MD, Li Cao MD, Brian de Beaubien MD, Johannes Erhardt MD, Stuart Goodman MD, PhD, FRCSC, FACS, FBSE, William Jiranek MD, Peter Keogh, David Lewallen MD, MS, Paul Manner MD, Wojciech Marczynski MD, J. Bohannon Mason MD, Kevin Mulhall MB, MCh, FRCSI, Wayne Paposky MD, Preetesh Patel MD, Francisco Piccaluga MD, Gregory Polkowski MD, Luis Pulido MD, Ian Stockley MBBS, ChB, FRCS, Juan Suarez MD, Fritz Thorey MD, Rashid Tikhilov MD, Job Diego Velazquez MD, Heinz Winkler MD

Workgroup 13: Management of Fungal or Atypical Periprosthetic Joint Infections

Liaison:

Matthias Gebauer MD

Leaders:

Lars Frommelt (International)

311

Delegates:

Pramod Achan MBBS, Tim N Board MD, Janet Conway MD, William Griffin MD, Nima Heidari MBBS, Glenn Kerr MD, Alex McLaren MD, Sandra Bliss Nelson MD, Marc Nijhof MD, Akos Zahar MD

Workgroup 14: Oral Antibiotic Therapy

Liaison:

Patrick O'Toole MD

Leaders:

Douglas Osmon MD (US), Alex Soriano DO (International)

321

Delegates:

Erik Berdal MD, Mathias Bostrum, Rafael Franco-Cendejas MD, DeYoung Huang PhD, Charles Nelson, F Nishisaka, Brian Roslund, Cassandra D Salgado, Robert Sawyer MD, John Segreti MD, Eric Senneville PhD, Xian Long Zhang

Workgroup 15: Prevention of Late PJI

334

Liaison:

Antonia Chen MD, MBA

Leaders:

Fares Haddad Mb, ChB, FRCS (International) and Paul Lachiewicz MD (US)

Delegates:

Michael Bolognesi MD, Luis E Cortes MD, Alejandro Gonzalez Della Valle MD, Massimo Franceschini MD, Jiri Gallo MD, Aaron Glynn MD, Alejandro Gonzalez Della Valle MD, Aydin Gahramanov MD, Monti Khatod MD, Stergios Lazarinis MD, PhD, Guenther Lob MD, Arvind Nana MD, Peter Ochsner MD, Ibrahim Tuncay MD, Tobias Winkler MD, YiRong Zeng MD

Future Research

363

Societies Represented

American Association of Hip and Knee Surgeons (AAHKS)
American Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons (AAOS)
American Association of Tissue Banks AATB
American College of Rheumatology (ACR)
American College of Surgeons (ACS)
American Orthopaedic Association (AOA)
American Shoulder and Elbow Surgeons (ASES)
American Society of Bone and Mineral Research (ASBMR)
American Society of Anesthesiologists (ASA)
American Society of Regional Anesthesia (ASRA)
AO Trauma Clinical Priority Program on Bone Infection
Association Research Circulation Osseuse (ARCO)
Asia Pacific Arthroplasty Association (APAS)
Asia Pacific Knee Society (APKS)
Asia Pacific Orthopaedic Association (APOA)
Asociación Argentina de Ortopedia y Traumatología (AAOT)
Associação Brasileira para o Estudo de Implantes Osteoarticulares (AsBIO)
Association for Study and Application of Methods of Ilizarov (ASAMI)
Association of Bone and Joint Surgeons (ABJS)
Association of Orthopaedic and Trauma surgeons of Russian Federation (AOTRF)
Association of periOperative Registered Nurses (AORN)
Association of Surgeons of Great Britain and Ireland (ASGBI)
Australian Knee Society (AusKS)
Australian Orthopaedic Association (AOA)
Azerbaijan Association of Orthopaedics and Traumatology
Belgian Knee Society (BelKS)
Belgian Orthopaedic and Trauma Society (BVOT)
Brazilian Hip Society (SBQ)
Brazilian Knee Society (BKS)
British Association for Surgery of the Knee (BASK)
British Hip Society (BHS)
British Orthopaedic Association (BOA)
Bulgarian Orthopaedic Association (BulOrtho)
Bulgarian Orthopedics and Traumatology Association (BOTA)
Canadian Orthopaedic Association (COA)
Czech Society for Orthopaedics and Traumatology (CSOT)
Chinese Orthopaedic Association (COA)
Colegio Mexicano De Ortopedia y Traumatología (CMO)
Combined Services Orthopaedic Society CSOS
Croatian Orthopaedic and Traumatology Association (COTA)
Dansk Ortopaedisk Selskab (DOS)
Dutch Orthopaedic Association (NOV)
Eastern Orthopaedic Association (EOA)
Egyptian Orthopaedic Association (EOA)
European Bone and Joint Infection Society (EBJIS)
European Federation of National Associations of Orthopaedic Sports Traumatology (EFOST)
European Federation of National Associations of Orthopaedics and Traumatology (EFORT)
European Hip Society (EHS)
European Knee Associates (EKA)
European Society for Surgery of Shoulder and Elbow (ESSSE)
European Society of Biomaterials (ESB)
Finnish Orthopaedic Association (FOA)
German Society for Orthopaedic and Trauma Surgery (DGOU)
German Society of Pathology (DGP)
Grupo de Estudio de la Patología Séptica del Aparato Locomotor (GEPsAL)
Gruppo Italiano per lo Studio e il Trattamento delle Infezioni Osteoarticolari (G.I.S.T.I.O.)
Hellenic Association of Orthopaedic Surgery and Traumatology (HAOST)
Hungarian Orthopaedic Association (HOA)
Indian Orthopaedic Association (IOACON)
Indian Society of Hip and knee Surgeons (ISHKS)
Indonesian Orthopaedic Association IndoOA
Infectious Diseases Society of America (IDSA)
Institution of Mechanical Engineers IMechE
International Congress of Joint Reconstruction (ICJR)
International Geriatric Fracture Society
International Society for Technology in Arthroplasty (ISTA)
International Society of Arthroscopy, Knee Surgery and Orthopaedic Sports Medicine (ISAKOS)
International Society of Orthopaedic Surgery and Traumatology (SICOT)
Iranian Orthopaedic Association (IranOA)
Irish Orthopaedic Association (IOA)
Israel Ministry of Health, National Center for Infection Control
Israeli Orthopaedic Association (IOA)
Japanese Orthopaedic Association (JOA)
Korean Hip Society (KHS)
Korean Knee Society (KKS)
Korean Orthopaedic Association (KOA)
Mid American Orthopaedic Association (MOA)
Musculoskeletal Infection Society (MSIS)
Musculoskeletal Tumour Society (MSTS)
New Zealand Orthopaedic Association (NZOA)
Nordic Orthopaedic Federation (NORF)
Norwegian Orthopaedic Association (NOA)
Orthopaedic Research Society (ORS)
Österreichische Gesellschaft für Orthopädie und orthopädische Chirurgie“ (ÖGO)
Pan Arab Orthopaedic Association (PAOA)
Peruvian Society of Orthopaedics and Traumatology (PSOT)
Phillippine Orthopaedic Association (PhilOrtho)
Polish Society of Orthopaedics and Traumatology (PSOT)
Rheumatoid Arthritis Surgical Society (RASS)
Romanian Orthopaedic Association (SOROT)

Russian Orthopaedic Society (ROS)
Singapore Orthopaedic Association (SOA)
Sociedade Brasileira de Ortopedia e Traumatologia (SBOT)
Societat Catalana de Cirurgia Ortopédica i Traumatologia (SCCOT)
Sociedad Chilena de Ortopedia y Traumatología (SCHOT)
Sociedad Colombiana de Cirugía Ortopédica y Traumatología (SCCOT)
Sociedad Española de Fijación Externa y Cirugía Reconstructiva (SEFEx)
Sociedad Latinoamericana De Artroscopía Rodilla Y Traumatología Deportiva (SLARD)
Sociedad Venezolana de Cirugía Ortopédica y Traumatología (SVCOT)
Società Italiana di Ortopedia e Traumatologia (SIOT)
Société Française de Chirurgie Orthopédique et Traumatologique (SOFcOT)

South African Knee Society (SAKS)
South African Orthopaedic Association (SAOA)
Southern Orthopaedic Association (SouthOA)
Spanish Orthopaedic Society (SECOT)
Spanish Knee Society (SKS)
Swedish Orthopaedic Association (SOF)
Swiss Orthopaedic and Trauma Association (SGOT/SSOT)
Taiwanese Orthopaedic Association (TaiOA)
The Hip Society (HS)
The International Hip Society (IHS)
The Knee Society (AKS)
Turkish Orthopaedic Association (TOTBID)
Washington State Orthopaedic Association (WSOS)
Weckebach Instituut (WI)
Western Orthopaedic Association (WestOA)
World Orthopaedic Concern (WOC)

**Argentina**

Burgo, Federico Jose
Buttaro, Martin
Del Sel, Hernan
Gonzalez Della Valle,
Alejandro
Piccaluga, Francisco

**Australia**

Alboltins, Craig
Choong, Peter
Peel, Trisha

**Austria**

Winkler, Heinz

**Azerbaijan**

Gahramanov, Aydin

**Belgium**

Stuyck, Jose
Thienpont, Emmanuel

**Brazil**

Carvalho, Pedro Ivo
Gomes, Luiz Sérgio
Marcelino
Ono, Nelson Keiske
Teloken, Marco

**Canada**

Backenstein, David
Masri, Bas
Mater, Wadih
Safir, Oleg
Vasarhelyi, Edward

**Chile**

Diaz-Ledezma,
Claudio
Mella, Claudio
Schweitzer, Daniel

**China**

Cai, Xu
Chen, Jiyang
Fei, Jun
Huang, Deyong
Lin, Jianhao
Shang, Xifu
Zeng, Yirong
Zhang, Xian Long
Zhou, Yixin

**Colombia**

Cortes, Luis Emilio
Garcia, Julio Cesar
Higuera, Carlos
Lara, Gilberto
Llinás, Adolfo
Palacio, Julio Cesar
Perez, Javier
Restrepo, Camilo

**Costa Rica**

Villafuerte, Jorge A.

**Croatia**

Bicanic, Goran

**Cyprus**

Ketonis, Constantinos

**Czech Republic**

Gallo, Jiri
Jahoda, David

**Denmark**

Kirketerpp-Møller,
Klaus
Jørgensen, Peter H.

**Egypt**

Ebeid, Walid

**Finland**

Huotari, Kasia
Virolainen, Petri

**France**

Argens
on, Jean-Noel
Godefroy, Karine M.
Senneville, Eric

**Germany**

Alt, Volker
Citak, Mustafa
Frommelt, Lars
Gebauer Matthias
Gehrke, Thorsten
Haasper, CarlHeppert,
Volkmar
Kendoff, Daniel

Krenn, Veit
Lob, Guenter
Lohmann, Christoph
H.
Perka, Carsten
Thomas, Peter
Thorey, Fritz
Tohtz, Stephan
Winkler, Tobias
Zahar, Akos

**Greece**

Babis, George
 Malizos, Konstantinos
 Papagelopoulos,
 Panayiotis
 Tsiridis, Eleftherios

**Hungary**

Bucsi, László
 Skaliczki, Gabor

**India**

Malhotra, Rajesh
 Sancheti, Parag
 Vaidya, Shrinand

**Iran**

Alijanipour, Pouya
 Eslampour, Aidin
 Ghazavi, Mohammad
 Taghi
 Hosseinzadeth,
 Hamidreza
 Mortazavi, Javad
 Rasouli, Mohammad
 Shahcheragh, G.
 Hossain

**Ireland**

Cashman, James
 Glynn, Aaron
 Keogh, Peter
 Mulhall, Kevin
 O'Toole, Patrick
 Sheehan, Eoin

**Israel**

Heller, Snir
 Kosashvill, Yona
 Schwaber, Mitchell

**Italy**

Baldini, Andrea
 Catani, Fabio
 Da Rin de Lorenzo,
 Ferdinando
 Drago, Lorenzo
 Esposito, Silvano
 Francheschini,
 Massimo
 Logoluso, Nicola
 Meani, Enzo
 Romano, Carlo
 Traverso, Francesco

**Japan**

Kobayashi, Hideo
 Kobayashi, Naomi
 Saito, Tomoyuki
 Yamada, Koji

**Republic of Korea**

Han, Seung-Beom
 Kim, Kang-Il
 Koo, Kyong-Hoi

**Lebanon**

Bitar, Diana
 Ghanem, Elie
 Karam, Joseph
 Raphael, Ibrahim

**Moldova**

Antoci, Valentin

**Mexico**

Franco-Cendejas,
 Rafael
 Rivero-Boshert,
 Salvador
 Velazquez, Diego

**Netherlands**

Altena, Mark
 Jutte, Paul C.
 Meermans, Geert
 Nijhof, Marc W
 Ploegmakers, Joris
 J.W.
 Poolman, Rudolf W.
 Van den Bekerom,
 Michel
 Vogely, Charles
 Wagenaar, Frank-
 Christiaan

**New Zealand**

Vince, Kelly George

**Norway**

Berdal, Erik
 Witzø, Eivind

**Poland**

Bialecki, Jerzy
 Kruczynski, Jacek
 Marczynski, Wojciech
 Markuszewski, Jacek



Puerto Rico
López, Juan Carlos
Suarez, Juan



Peru
Pena, Orestes
Rolando
Suárez, Rolando



Russian Federation
Tikhilov, Rashid



Singapore
Lee, Paul



Slovenia
Trebše, Rihard



South Africa
Lautenbach, Charles



Spain
Corona, Pablo
Flores Sanchez,
Xavier
Font-Vizcarra, Luís
Guerra, Ernesto
Macule, Francisco
Marín-Peña, Oliver
Martinez-Pastor, J.
Carlos
Soriano, Alex



Sweden
Lazarinis, Stergios
Lidgren, Lars
Stefánsdóttir, Anna
W. Dahl, Annette



Switzerland
Borens, Olivier
Erhardt, Johannes B.
Ochsner, Peter
Vogt, Markus
Wahl, Pete



Taiwan
Chang, Yuhan
Peng, Kuo-Ti



Tunisia
Kallel, Sofiene



Turkey
Korkusuz, Feza
Tözün, Ismail Remzi
Tuncay, Ibrahim



United Kingdom
Achan, Pramod
Board, Tim N.
Gambir, Anil
Haddad, Fares
Heidari, Nima
Lee, Paul
Morgan-Jones,
Rhidian
Nathwani, Dinesh
Parvizi, Sadegh
Stockley, Ian
Townsend, Robert



United States of America
Abboud, Joseph A.
Abraham, John A.
Aggarwal, Vinay K.
Alavi, Abass
Alexander, Bryan T.
Arnold, William V.
Austin, Matthew
Azzam, Khalid
Babic, Maja
Barnes, Lowry
Barsoum, Wael
Bauer, Tom
Bedair, Hany
Belden, Katherine
Bezwada, Hari P.
Bini, Stefano A.
Blaha, J. David
Bolognesi, Michael P.
Booth, Robert E.

Bostrum, Matthias
Bradbury, Thomas L.
Brause, Barry D.
Calhoun, Jason H.
Cardona, Lyssette
Callaghan, John
Chen, Antonia
Conway, Janet
Cui, Quanjun
de Beaubien, Brian C.
Deirmengian, Carl
Deirmengian, Greg
Del Gazio, Daniel
Della Valle, Alejandro
Della Valle, Craig
Dennis, Douglas
Ducheyne, Paul
Esterhai, John
Ehrlich, Garth D.

Fehring, Thomas K.
Freiberg, Andrew A.
Froimson, Mark
Garrigues, Grant
Good, Robert P.
Goodman, Stuart
Goyal, Nitin
Griffin, William
Hamilton, William
Hansen, Erik
Harrer, Michael F.
Hickok, Noreen
Hitt, Kirby D.
Holtom, Paul
Hozack, William
James
Huang, Ronald
Huddleston, James
Hume, Eric

Israelite, Craig
Jiraneck, William
Kappadia, Bhaveen
Kates, Stephen L.
Kerr, Glenn J.
Khatod, Monti
Kim, Raymond
Klatt, Brian A.
Klein, Gregg
Krebs, Viktor
Kuderna, James
Lachiewicz, Paul
Lee, Gwo-Chin
Levicoff, Eric
Levine, Brett
Lewallen, David
Lichstein, Paul
Lombardi, Adolph
Lonner, Jess H.
Mabry, Tad
Manner, Paul
Marculescu, Camelia
Martson, Scott
Noble, Phillip
Mason, J. Bohannon
Matsen, Laura
McCarthy, Joseph C.
McLaren, Alex
McPherson, Edward J.
Memtsoudis, Stavros
Mihalko, William



Uruguay
Motta, Fernando

Molloy, Robert
Mont, Michael A.
Moore, Christopher C
Morris, Michael J.
Moucha, Calin Stefan
Nana, Arvind D.
Nelson, Charles L.
Nelson, Sandra
Noiseux, Nicolas O
O'Donnell, Richard
Oliashirazi, Ali
Ong, Alvin
Ong, Kevin
Orozco, Fabio
Osman, Douglas R.
Padgett, Douglas E.
Paprosky, Wayne G.
Patel, Preetesh
Patzakis, Michael J.
Polkowski, Michael G.
Post, Zachary
Parsley, Brian
Parvizi, Javad
Poultides, Lazaros
Pulido, Luis
Purtill, James J.
Ranatat, Chitranjan S.
Ranawat, Amar S.
Randall, R. Lor
Reina, Ricardo J.



Venezuela
Garcia Rangel,
Gustavo

Ries, Michael
Robb, William
Ross, David A.
Rosenberg, Aaron
Roslund, Brian
Rubash, Harry E.
Saleh, Khaled J.
Salgado, Cassandra
Salmon, Julia V.
Salvagno, Ralph
Sawyer, Robert G.
Schaer, Thomas P
Schmitt, Steven K.
Schutte Jr., Harold D.
Schwarz, Edward M.
Schwarzkopf, Ran
Scuderi, Gil
Segreti, John
Sharkey, Peter
Silibovsky, Randi
Seyler, Thorsten
Shapiro, Irving
Simpendorfer, Claus
Smith, Eric
Spangehl, Mark
Sperling, John W.
Springer, Bryan D.
Squire, Matthew
Sterling, Robert
Stocks, Greg

Taunton, Michael
Tokarski, Anthony T.
Tischler, Eric H.
Waters, Jonathan
Watters III, William C.
Wellman, Samuel
Whiteside, Leo
Williams, Gerald R.
Wongworawat, Montri
D.
Yates, Adolph J.
Zalavras,
Charalampos
Zmistowski, Benjamin

Workgroup 1: Mitigation and Education

Liaisons:

Vinay K Aggarwal MD, Eric H Tischler BA

Leaders:

Charles Lautenbach MD, Gerald R Williams Jr MD

Delegates:

Joseph A Abboud MD, Mark Altena MD, Thomas Bradbury MD, Jason Calhoun MD, FACS, Douglas Dennis MD, Daniel J Del Gaizo MD, Lluís Font-Vizcarra MD, Kaisa Huotari MD, Stephen Kates MD, Kyung-Hoi Koo PhD, Tad M Mabry MD, Calin Stefan Moucha MD, Julio Cesar Palacio MD, Trisha Nicole Peel MBBS, Rudolf W.Poolman MD, PhD, William J Robb III MD, Ralph Salvagno MD, Thorsten Seyler MD, Gabor Skaliczki MD, Edward M Vasarhelyi MD, William Charles Watters III, MD

Question 1A: What are the significant risk factors for development of surgical site infection (SSI) or periprosthetic joint infection (PJI) after elective total joint arthroplasty (TJA)?

Consensus: Active infection of the arthritic joint (septic arthritis), presence of septicemia, and/or presence of active local cutaneous, subcutaneous, or deep tissue infection are all significant risk factors predisposing patients to SSI or PJI and are contraindication to undertaking elective TJA.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 99%, Disagree: 0%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Question 1B: What are the potential risk factors for development of surgical site infection (SSI) or periprosthetic joint infection (PJI) after elective total joint arthroplasty (TJA)?

Consensus: The risk factors for SSI or PJI include history of previous surgery, poorly controlled diabetes mellitus (glucose > 200 mg/L or HbA1C > 7%), malnutrition, morbid obesity (BMI > 40 Kg/m²), active liver disease, chronic renal disease, excessive smoking (> one pack per day), excessive alcohol consumption (> 40 units per week), intravenous drug abuse, recent hospitalization, extended stay in a rehabilitation facility, male gender, diagnosis of post-traumatic arthritis, inflammatory arthropathy, prior surgical procedure in the affected joint, and severe immunodeficiency.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 94%, Disagree: 4%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification:

Active Infection of Joint, Bloodstream, or Local Tissue

The presence of active infection in an arthritic joint has been shown to lead to significantly higher rates of PJI after TJA.^{1,2} There are also a number of longitudinal studies and case reports which indicate that the presence of active systemic or local tissue infection may result in hematogenous or direct seeding of the implant following TJA.³⁻⁹ Thus, elective arthroplasty should be delayed in patients with active infection until they are adequately treated and infections are confirmed to be eradicated.

History of Previous Surgery

The local wound environment may be compromised in patients who have undergone previous operative procedures, which may contribute to the development of an SSI or PJI following TJA.¹⁰ Peersman et al. matched infected and non-infected patients that underwent total knee arthroplasty (TKA) and reported that a history of prior open surgical procedures was a significant risk factor ($p < 0.0001$) for developing PJI following TKA.¹¹ Although not much literature has been presented correlating history of prior surgery and development of PJI, we recommend that a patient's previous surgical history be documented, along with proper evaluation of the local wound environment. An appropriate infection workup, as discussed elsewhere in this document, should be undertaken in all patients who have had previous surgery at the site of an upcoming arthroplasty. This will allow for any necessary modification of the operative approach and technique to minimize risk of developing infection.¹⁰

Uncontrolled Hyperglycemia

Numerous studies and meta-analyses indicate that preoperative uncontrolled glucose levels (fasting glucose > 180 mg/dL or 10 mmol/L) are associated with increased postoperative complications and adverse outcomes.¹²⁻¹⁴ Although less work has been dedicated to the investigation of postoperative glucose control in the arthroplasty literature, there is a suggestion from general surgery that early postoperative hyperglycemia results in a higher rate of SSI.¹⁵ Therefore, efforts should be made to maintain adequately-controlled glucose levels during the entire perioperative time period. Less work has been definitive in elucidating the role of hemoglobin A1C (HbA1C) in predicting joint infection.^{16, 17} While the optimal HbA1C level at which TJA risks become excessive has not been established, we recommend attempts to pre-operatively optimize diabetic control and would carefully consider offering elective arthroplasty to patients in whom the fasting glucose level is > 200 mg/dl (10 mmol/L) and HbA1C $> 7\%$.

Further research is needed to evaluate whether patients who are to undergo elective orthopedic surgery should have routine screening for diabetes and hyperglycemia, as has been done for patients who are to have cardiothoracic surgery.

Malnutrition

Malnutrition has been shown to result in a number of adverse outcomes following TJA, including poor wound healing, longer hospital length of stay, longer anesthesia and surgical time, and persistent wound drainage with increased susceptibility to infections.¹⁸⁻²¹ Studies have reported

on the various preoperative tests that may be used to screen patients for malnutrition.^{18, 21, 22} Measures of malnutrition have varied and include transferrin, total lymphocyte count, total albumin, and prealbumin. Currently, parameters to evaluate nutritional status include serum albumin (normal 3.5-5.0 g/dL), serum transferrin (normal 204-360 mg/dL), serum prealbumin (normal 15-35 mg/dL), and total serum lymphocyte count (800-2000/mm³). Due to the correlation between nutritional status and postoperative recovery, patients suspected of having malnutrition should have their nutritional status checked prior to elective arthroplasty.²³ While the optimal method for correction of malnutrition preoperatively is unknown, options to do so include administration of high protein supplements, vitamin and mineral supplementation,²⁴ increased consumption of calories, early mobilization, and physiotherapy.²²

Morbid Obesity

Recent data from the 2010 Centers for Disease Control (CDC) indicate that more than one-third of Americans, or more than 60 million adults aged 20 years or older, are classified as obese (body mass index (BMI)≥30.0 kg/m²).²⁵ A number of studies have demonstrated that patients with obesity are at increased risk of poor wound healing and PJI.²⁶⁻²⁹ The reason for this increased risk may be related to an increase in operative time, greater need for allogenic blood transfusion, and the presence of other comorbidities, including diabetes.^{27, 29-31} The decision to perform elective arthroplasty in morbidly obese patients with BMI≥40.0 kg/m², should be weighed only after careful consideration of the increased risk of complications including infection. The risk-benefit must be carefully considered, and appropriate informed consent/informed choice is paramount in this group as postoperative complications are higher in this patient group.³² It is important to add that obese patients undergoing surgical procedures are at increased risk of underdosed prophylactic antibiotics,³³ and the dose of antibiotic should be accordingly adjusted, as discussed elsewhere in this document.

Smoking

Smoking is associated with postoperative morbidity and mortality.³⁴ A meta-analysis of 6 randomized trials found that discontinuing smoking prior to surgery led to a decreased risk of total postoperative complications (relative risk (RR)=0.76, 95% confidence interval (CI)=0.69-0.84).³⁵ The same meta-analysis also pooled data from 15 observational studies and found that smoking cessation led to fewer wound healing complications (RR=0.73, CI=0.61-0.87).³⁵ Singh et al. found that current smokers undergoing TJA were more likely to have SSI, whereas prior smokers were not associated with as high a risk for developing wound infection.³⁴ Longer

periods of smoking cessation prior to surgery have been found to be associated with lower rates of postoperative complications.³⁵⁻³⁸ Furthermore, in a study of patients undergoing primary total hip arthroplasty (THA), postoperative complications were significantly higher for those who were heavy tobacco users (>1 pack/day or 25 cigarettes).³⁹ In the preoperative period it is important to evaluate for tobacco use and offer strategies to quit smoking in order to reduce postoperative wound complications and lower the risk for SSI and PJI. Studies from orthopaedic and non-orthopaedic fields suggest that smoking intervention programs, even when instituted four-six weeks prior to elective surgery, may diminish the risk of infectious and wound-healing complications.⁴⁰

Alcohol Consumption

Patients who consume alcohol on a frequent basis may have a significantly increased risk for postoperative complications after arthroplasty.⁴¹ Using the Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test-Consumption questionnaire on 9,176 male United States veterans who underwent major non-cardiac surgery, Bradley et al. determined that the incidence of SSI and other postoperative infections was significantly associated with excessive alcohol use.⁴² The optimal period of cessation of alcohol consumption is unknown for arthroplasty patients, but at least 4 weeks of abstinence may be necessary to reverse physiologic abnormalities that place patients at increased risk of postoperative morbidity.⁴³ The preoperative period serves as an opportunity to identify patients who abuse alcohol. Although the benefit of directed alcohol cessation programs before surgery is not well established in the literature, it is reasonable to expect patients to reduce alcohol consumption prior to surgery (for non-dependent patients) and to delay elective arthroplasty in alcoholic patients until the issue has been addressed.

Active Renal Disease

Few studies have explored the complications associated with active renal disease in TJA patients. Sunday et al. reported on the complications of TJA in patients with end-stage renal disease on hemodialysis. The authors determined that primary and revision surgeries in this specific cohort were associated with a high rate of complications and death; 29% of patients died from in-hospital complications and 2 patients had overwhelming sepsis (14.5%).⁴⁴ These data were supported by Lieberman et al., who also reported a high rate of complications (81%), including a deep infection rate of 19% in patients with chronic renal failure.⁴⁵ Sakalkale et al. found that patients with end-stage renal failure had a high mortality and complication rate of

58%, with a deep infection rate of 13%.⁴⁶ Overall the risk of developing postoperative infection after TJA is significantly higher in patients with chronic renal failure, especially in those on hemodialysis.

Active Liver Disease

Several studies explored TJA in patients with either active symptomatic or asymptomatic liver disease. In a matched study of patients undergoing TJA, Pour et al. found that compared to a control group, patients with asymptomatic hepatitis C had a higher rate of surgical complications, including more wound complications.⁴⁷ While the underlying mechanism for increased complications is unknown, even patients with asymptomatic hepatitis should be made aware of the potential for higher rates of complications after elective TJA. Hsieh et al. determined that in patients with advanced cirrhosis undergoing TJA, there was a higher rate of complications and especially infectious failures, with a prosthesis survival of 77.8% after 5 years.⁴⁸ On the other hand, Cohen et al. report that even in cirrhotic patients, elective TJA could be safely performed with no increase in adverse outcomes.⁴⁹ Thus far, routine testing for liver disease preoperatively in patients undergoing elective TJA with no prior history or signs on examination has not been proven to be beneficial.

Immunosuppression

While an association between immunosuppression and an increased incidence of SSI is debated, many surgeons believe that patients with immunosuppression are at an increased risk of PJI. Examples of immunosuppressive agents include glucocorticoids such as prednisone, cytostatics including cyclophosphamide and methotrexate, drugs that act on immunophilins such as tacrolimus, and others agents such as interferons and tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α inhibiting agents. Barbari et al. created a risk stratification model for SSI and PJI and determined that immunosuppression was a significant risk factor (hazard ratio=1.96, 95% CI=1.37-2.82) for PJI.⁵⁰ In addition, Peersman et al. found that immunosuppressive therapy was a significant predisposing factor for SSI.¹¹ In patients who have undergone organ transplantation, and in particular liver transplant, several studies have reported an increased risk for osteoporotic fractures and osteonecrosis with concurrent immunosuppressive therapy^{51, 52} However, immunosuppression and simultaneous poor bone quality has led to conflicting opinions surrounding the actual risk for postoperative infection.⁵³ Part of the difficulty in assessing the risk of immunosuppression on PJI is the current variability in defining immunosuppression. Further work will be needed to delineate the true impact of

immunosuppression on the development of SSI or PJI in patients undergoing elective arthroplasty.

Intravenous Drug Abuse

Patients with previous history of intravenous drug abuse (IVDA) and patients with painful joint arthrosis present a difficult treatment decision. Lehman et al. determined the rate of deep periprosthetic infection in patients with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) or IVDA after TJA. Twenty-nine patients with HIV or a history of IVDA or both underwent TJA. Of 28 HIV-positive patients undergoing TJA, 4 (14%) developed infections. Two of 8 joint arthroplasties (25%) in the IVDA group developed an infection. Two of 5 joint arthroplasties (40%) with both IVDA and HIV developed a deep infection.⁵⁴ These findings were supported by Habermann et al., who reported a septic postoperative complication rate of 28.6% among patients who had a history of intravenous drug abuse.⁵⁵ Further work will be needed to determine the direct effects of intravenous drug abuse on the development of SSI or PJI. This workgroup is of the opinion that active IV drug abusers should not be offered elective joint arthroplasty.

Human Immunodeficiency Virus Infection

Recent drug therapies have dramatically improved the life expectancy of HIV-positive patients. HIV-positive patients demonstrate a widely varying progression to AIDS as reflected by the varying rate of decline in CD4 cell counts. Patients with CD4 counts greater than 400 cells/ml and with undetectable viral loads may be appropriate candidates for elective TJA, as the risk of subsequent SSI may be decreased. Habermann et al reported no difference in functional outcome following TJA between patients with or without HIV.⁵⁵ Furthermore, Hicks et al. reported that while rates of deep joint sepsis after primary TJA in HIV-positive patients (18.7%) are higher than in normal populations, long-term survival with marked symptom relief is a reasonable expectation for a large proportion of HIV positive patients following TJA.⁵⁶ It is our recommendation that in patients with HIV, orthopaedic surgeons work closely with infectious disease specialists in monitoring CD4 counts and viral loads and that decisions to undertake TJA be made on an individual basis.

Hospital Admission or Extended Rehabilitation Stay

Lee et al. reviewed 169 SSIs in elderly patients who had undergone orthopaedic surgery and compared them to 171 matched controls. Admission from a healthcare facility was

independently associated with a greater risk of infection (odds ratio=4.35; 95% CI=1.64 – 11.11).⁵⁷

Other Risk Factors

It appears that based on numerous studies, male patients are more likely to develop SSI/PJI. In addition, preoperative diagnosis of post-traumatic arthritis with or without prior surgery has also been found to be a risk factor for PJI.⁵⁸⁻⁶⁰

Disclaimer: Although elective arthroplasty needs to be withheld for some patients at extreme risk of SSI/PJI, there is inadequate evidence in the literature as to what the exact threshold for making this decision should be. The disability imposed by the degenerative disease needs to be weighed against the potential for development of PJI. Some authorities have attempted to provide a mathematical model that may improve our decision making for subjecting a patient to elective arthroplasty. Dr. Charles Lautenbach has created a scoring system that takes into consideration pain and loss of function and factors predisposing to morbidity and mortality to generate a score that allows surgeons to objectively determine the justification for surgery, even in the face of high risk of morbidity and mortality. A description of the Lautenbach Estimate of the Indication and Contra-indication for Arthroplasty score can be found at www.boneinfection.co.za.

Question 2: What is the role of oral hygiene for patients undergoing an elective arthroplasty?

Consensus: All patients undergoing elective arthroplasty should be screened for evidence of active infection. This may be performed by administration of a questionnaire or dental examination.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 80%, Disagree: 18%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: It has been well established that hematogenous seeding from a remote source of infection can lead to PJI, even years after TJA. Several sources, including data from the CDC National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, have brought to light the relatively high prevalence of periodontal disease, especially in the elderly.⁶¹ Dental infections can serve as a

potentially dangerous harbor of bacteria and some studies show these bacteria to be microbiologically indistinguishable from pathogens found at sites of PJI.⁶² Nonetheless, there is much debate regarding the use of active preoperative screening and treatment of dental pathology to ensure adequate oral hygiene and prevent postoperative bacteremia or PJI in all patients undergoing TJA.

One study by Barrington et al. determined that in 100 consecutive TJA patients, preoperative dental clearance revealed a 23% incidence of dental pathology, yet no patients in their cohort went on to develop a SSI or PJI.⁶³ Several authors have noted that only a small percentage of joint infections can be accurately attributed to dental pathogens or procedures. Laporte et al. retrospectively reviewed 2,973 patients and of 52 patients with late infections, only 3 were strongly associated with a dental procedure.⁶⁴ The incidence of late hematogenous infection in TJA has been quoted as between <0.01% and 0.6% with organisms from a dental source involved in between 0.04% and 0.07%.⁶⁵

Currently, there are no official recommendations from the American Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons regarding dental clearance prior to TJA to prevent PJI.⁶⁶ However, excluding evidence of ongoing oral sepsis or severely poor hygiene, there is little justification for routinely screening and treating all patients for dental abnormalities. Nevertheless, signs and symptoms of active dental infection should be sought prior to subjecting a patient to elective arthroplasty.

A recent prospective study by Tokarski et al. found that administration of a short questionnaire to patients could identify risk factors for active dental disease.⁶⁰ In their study, risk factors for failed dental clearance or active dental disease included tobacco use, poor flossing habits, history of one or more tooth extractions, older age, narcotic use, and lack of a dentist visit within 12 months prior to taking the survey. The study found that patients who had 4 of the 6 identified risk factors had a 4-fold increased incidence of failing dental clearance. Based on their study, it appears that selective dental clearance based on patient risk stratification may be a reasonable approach.

Question 3A: What should the process be for methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) and methicillin-sensitive *Staphylococcus aureus* (MSSA) screening?

Consensus: While this workgroup does NOT recommend universal screening and decolonization of all patients undergoing joint arthroplasty, it accepts that preoperative

screening for *Staphylococcus aureus* (MSSA and MRSA) and decolonization decreases the rate of SSI and the incidence of staphylococcal and nonstaphylococcal infections.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 85%, Disagree: 11%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Question 3B: What should the treatment regimen be for methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) and methicillin-sensitive *Staphylococcus aureus* (MSSA) decolonization?

Consensus: Short-term nasal application of mupirocin is the most accepted current method of decolonization for MRSA and/or MSSA.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 80%, Disagree: 11%, Abstain: 9% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Extensive literature consistently documents that the carriage of *Staphylococcus aureus* in patients' anterior nares may be an important reservoir for bacteria and can serve as a potential source of hospital-acquired and post-surgical infections.⁶⁷ Nasal colonization rates of *S. aureus* have been extensively studied in patients, hospital staff, and the general population.⁶⁸ ⁶⁹ Kalmeijer et al. determined that high-level nasal carriage of *S. aureus* was the most important and only significant independent risk factor for developing SSI with *S. aureus*.⁷⁰ Many prospective studies and systematic reviews done in the orthopaedic and general surgery population indicate that the number of SSIs with *S. aureus* can be reduced through rapid screening and decolonization of nasal carriers of *S. aureus* on admission.^{71, 72} Skin decolonization prior to surgery has long been the subject of much debate, with a variety of methods proposed for the eradication process. Mupirocin nasal ointment has been widely accepted for reducing nasal carriage loads for MRSA, yet long-term use of this agent has been shown to lead to development of bacterial resistance.^{67, 73, 74} Other methods of decolonization include photodisinfection therapy, total body chlorhexidine gluconate showers and wipes preoperatively, and iodine-based solutions applied hours before surgery. Chlorhexidine gluconate wipes (2%) eliminate the need to bathe just before surgery and have started to gain popularity and prominence in the orthopaedic literature.⁷⁵

Question 4: Should healthcare workers be screened for MRSA and MSSA?

Consensus: NO. Routine MRSA and MSSA screening is not warranted for healthcare workers. MRSA/MSSA screening should be reserved for workers with symptoms associated with bacterial infections.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 82%, Disagree: 15%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There is ongoing controversy regarding the role of healthcare workers in the transmission of MRSA. Symptomatic MRSA infections among healthcare workers have been described.⁷⁶⁻⁷⁸ Controversy exists as to the true benefit of screening all healthcare workers. The Dutch Working Party for Infection recommends screening healthcare workers after exposure to MRSA-positive patients; however, German and North American⁷⁹⁻⁸¹ specialist associations are against such screening. Opponents of MRSA screening indicate a risk of stigmatization of those affected, potential exposure to toxic decolonization procedures, and high costs associated with such screening.⁸² Therefore selective, rather than universal, screening of symptomatic healthcare workers is advised.⁸³

Question 5: What is the role of routine urine screening in patients undergoing an elective arthroplasty?

Consensus: Routine urine screening is NOT warranted for patients undergoing elective arthroplasty. Urine screening prior to elective arthroplasty should be reserved for patients with a present history or symptoms of a urinary tract infection (UTI).

Delegate Vote: Agree: 74%, Disagree: 24%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: UTIs have the potential to cause bacteremia and post-surgical wound infections, particularly in patients receiving an elective arthroplasty. Patients with a positive urinalysis and/or urine culture are generally treated with antibiotics prior to elective surgery. However, it is unclear whether a positive preoperative urinalysis and culture with subsequent antibiotic treatment influences the incidence of post-surgical infection. One study in the arthroplasty literature found no significant association between perioperative UTI and deep infection after arthroplasty.⁸⁴ Another study found that patients with asymptomatic UTI detected by positive

urinalysis and urine culture had an increased risk of wound infection postoperatively, despite treatment.⁸⁵ A cost-effectiveness analysis estimated that with routine urine screening, 4.58 wound infections in non-prosthetic knee operations may be prevented annually, but that it would come at a cost of \$1,500,000 per wound infection prevented.⁸⁶ Currently, there are no cost-effectiveness analyses or official treatment guidelines from organizations such as the Infectious Diseases Society of America regarding routine urine screening and antibiotic treatment for all patients undergoing TJA.^{87, 88} Still, it is reasonable to reserve such a preoperative workup for only those patients with a known history of recurrent urinary infection or for those with evidence of ongoing urinary symptoms suspicious for infection.

Question 6: Should disease-modifying agents be stopped prior to elective TJA?

Consensus: Yes. Disease-modifying agents should be stopped prior to elective TJA. The timing of drug discontinuation should be based on the specific medication and the individual patient. The cessation of immunosuppressant medications should be performed in consultation and under the direction of the treating physician.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 92%, Disagree: 5%, Abstain: 3%(Strong Consensus)

Justification: According to a large review of patients in a Medicare database, patients with rheumatoid disease (RA) have been found to be at higher risk of PJI.⁸⁹ The infection rate among RA patients undergoing TKA is 1.6 times greater than in patients undergoing the same procedure for osteoarthritis.⁹⁰ Patients with RA may have a higher risk of infection due to immunosuppressive therapy including corticosteroids such as prednisone, and disease-modifying anti-rheumatic drugs (DMARDs) such as methotrexate.^{91, 92} High doses of corticosteroids and TNF- α -blocker therapy within one year of surgery was shown to increase the risk of subsequent infection.^{93, 94} Two studies, one of which was a prospective, randomized controlled trial, failed to show a difference in wound complications and infection rates among TJA patients who continued versus those who discontinued methotrexate prior to their surgery.^{95, 96} On the other hand, two other studies, one of which was a prospective non-randomized study, showed an increased rate of SSI and PJI in patients who continued their disease-modifying agents prior to TJA.^{94, 97} We recommend that the management of DMARDs

should be based on the drug half-life. The Canadian Rheumatology Association recommended that these drugs should be stopped prior to surgery for as long as 3 to 5 times the half-life of each individual drug that may last from 0 days to 3 months.⁹⁸ It is important to note that corticosteroids should not be abruptly stopped due to the risk of inducing cortisol deficiency from hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis suppression. The cessation of immunosuppressant medications should be performed in consultation and under the direction of the treating physician.

<u>Medication</u>	<u>Half Life *</u>	<u>Recommendation</u>
Nonsteroidal Anti-inflammatory Drugs (NSAIDs)	2-17 hours	Discontinue therapy within 1 week prior to surgery
Methotrexate	0.7 to 5.8 hours	Discontinue therapy within 1 week prior to surgery Continue therapy 2 weeks after surgery (Patients with renal dysfunction, hold 2 weeks prior to surgery)
Sulfasalazine Azathioprine	5 hours 7.6 hours	Discontinue therapy prior to 1 week before surgery
Leflunomide	~2 weeks	Hold for 6 weeks prior to surgery
Hydroxychloroquine	1-2 months	Continue therapy up to and including the day of surgery

<p><u>Biological Response Modifiers</u></p> <p>Etanercept</p> <p>Infliximab</p> <p>Golimumab Tocilizumab Abatacept Adalimumab Certolizumab</p> <p>Rituximab</p>	<p>4.3 days</p> <p>8-10 days</p> <p>12-14 days</p> <p>21 days</p>	<p>Hold for at least 1.5 weeks prior to surgery</p> <p>Hold for 3 weeks prior to surgery</p> <p>Hold for 1 month prior to surgery</p> <p>Hold for 2 months prior to surgery</p>
<p><u>Gout agents</u></p> <p>Allopurinol Colchicine Probenecid</p>	<p>1-2 hours 26-32 hours 26-32 hours</p>	<p>Discontinue therapy within 1 week prior to surgery</p>

Question 7: In patients with prior septic arthritis what strategies should be undertaken to minimize the risk of subsequent PJI?

Consensus: ALL patients with prior septic arthritis should undergo evaluation by serology and aspiration of the joint whenever possible, prior to arthroplasty.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 84%, Disagree: 14%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Consensus: While the optimal timing for performing elective arthroplasty in a patient with prior septic arthroplasty needs further research, surgeons should ensure that no evidence of active infection exists by taking intraoperative cultures.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 85%, Disagree: 14%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Consensus: During arthroplasty, if cement is utilized, antibiotics should be added.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 90%, Disagree: 5%, Abstain: 5%(Strong Consensus)

Consensus: If intraoperative cultures are found to be positive, extended intravenous antibiotics should be appropriately administered with input from infectious disease specialists.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 93%, Disagree: 5%, Abstain: 2%(Strong Consensus)

Justification: Septic arthritis can lead to accelerated destruction of the articular cartilage and result in end-stage arthritis. *Staphylococci* most commonly cause bacterial infection of the joint, with *S. aureus* shown to be the primary infecting pathogen in several case series from the United Kingdom, France, and Australia.⁹⁹⁻¹⁰¹ Inflammatory markers such as erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR) and C-reactive protein (CRP) are commonly measured in the evaluation of patients with septic arthritis.¹⁰²⁻¹⁰⁴ The role of these markers in evaluating the eradication status of infection in patients with prior septic arthritis remains unknown. In some patients with previous septic arthritis, these serological markers were found to be normal. Thus, most patients with prior septic arthritis should undergo joint aspiration prior to elective arthroplasty. The samples should be sent for culture, white cell count, and neutrophil differential. Some authorities also measure the glucose level, procalcitonin level, and other parameters to determine if infection exists. The threshold level for any of the aforementioned parameters for diagnosis of persistent infection in these patients is not known, but based on the arthroplasty literature a cell count >3,000 cells/ μ l and a neutrophil differential >80% may be indicative of active infection.^{105, 106} During elective arthroplasty, multiple samples for culture (3-5) should also be taken.^{106, 107} If cement is being utilized, the surgeon should consider adding antibiotic with appropriate spectrum of activity to cover previously isolated pathogens. The dose of antibiotics added should be kept low to avoid weakening the mechanical strength of the cement. Patients with positive cultures should be treated with an appropriate antibiotic for an extended period of time following elective arthroplasty. Patients in whom synovial fluid analysis reveals elevated neutrophil percentage and/or white cell counts should have the cultures maintained for a prolonged period of time following surgery in the hope of isolating a possible infecting organism. Consideration should also be given for the use of molecular techniques (polymerase chain reaction – PCR or molecular marker measurements) in these patients.

References:

1. Cherney DL, Amstutz HC. Total hip replacement in the previously septic hip. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1983;65(9):1256-1265.
2. Jupiter JB, Karchmer AW, Lowell JD, Harris WH. Total hip arthroplasty in the treatment of adult hips with current or quiescent sepsis. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1981;63(2):194-200.
3. Cruess RL, Bickel WS, vonKessler KL. Infections in total hips secondary to a primary source elsewhere. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1975(106):99-101.
4. del Sel HJ, Charnley J. Total hip replacement following infection in the opposite hip. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1979(141):138-142.
5. Fitzgerald RH, Jr., Nolan DR, Ilstrup DM, Van Scoy RE, Washington JA, 2nd, Coventry MB. Deep wound sepsis following total hip arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1977;59(7):847-855.
6. Hanssen AD, Rand JA. Evaluation and treatment of infection at the site of a total hip or knee arthroplasty. *Instr Course Lect.* 1999;48:111-122.
7. Schmalzried TP, Amstutz HC, Au MK, Dorey FJ. Etiology of deep sepsis in total hip arthroplasty. The significance of hematogenous and recurrent infections. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1992(280):200-207.
8. Stinchfield FE, Bigliani LU, Neu HC, Goss TP, Foster CR. Late hematogenous infection of total joint replacement. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1980;62(8):1345-1350.
9. Thomas BJ, Moreland JR, Amstutz HC. Infection after total joint arthroplasty from distal extremity sepsis. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1983(181):121-125.
10. Hanssen AD, Osmon DR, Nelson CL. Prevention of deep periprosthetic joint infection. *Instr Course Lect.* 1997;46:555-567.
11. Peersman G, Laskin R, Davis J, Peterson M. Infection in total knee replacement: a retrospective review of 6489 total knee replacements. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2001(392):15-23.
12. American Diabetes Association. Standards of medical care in diabetes--2013. *Diabetes Care.* 2013;36 Suppl 1:S11-66.
13. Jansen E, Nevalainen P, Kalliovalkama J, Moilanen T. Preoperative hyperglycemia predicts infected total knee replacement. *Eur J Intern Med.* 2010;21(3):196-201.
14. Marchant MH, Jr., Viens NA, Cook C, Vail TP, Bolognesi MP. The impact of glycemic control and diabetes mellitus on perioperative outcomes after total joint arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2009;91(7):1621-1629.
15. Pomposelli JJ, Baxter JK, 3rd, Babineau TJ, et al. Early postoperative glucose control predicts nosocomial infection rate in diabetic patients. *JPEN J Parenter Enteral Nutr.* 1998;22(2):77-81.
16. Adams AL, Paxton EW, Wang JQ, et al. Surgical outcomes of total knee replacement according to diabetes status and glycemic control, 2001 to 2009. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2013;95(6):481-487.
17. Iorio R, Williams KM, Marcantonio AJ, Specht LM, Tilzey JF, Healy WL. Diabetes mellitus, hemoglobin A1C, and the incidence of total joint arthroplasty infection. *J Arthroplasty.* 2012;27(5):726-729 e721.
18. Del Savio GC, Zelicof SB, Wexler LM, et al. Preoperative nutritional status and outcome of elective total hip replacement. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1996(326):153-161.
19. Gherini S, Vaughn BK, Lombardi AV, Jr., Mallory TH. Delayed wound healing and nutritional deficiencies after total hip arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1993(293):188-195.
20. Jaber FM, Parvizi J, Haytmanek CT, Joshi A, Purtill J. Procrastination of wound drainage and malnutrition affect the outcome of joint arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2008;466(6):1368-1371.
21. Lavernia CJ, Sierra RJ, Baerga L. Nutritional parameters and short term outcome in arthroplasty. *J Am Coll Nutr.* 1999;18(3):274-278.

22. Nicholson JA, Dowrick AS, Liew SM. Nutritional status and short-term outcome of hip arthroplasty. *J Orthop Surg (Hong Kong)*. 2012;20(3):331-335.
23. Jensen JE, Jensen TG, Smith TK, Johnston DA, Dudrick SJ. Nutrition in orthopaedic surgery. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 1982;64(9):1263-1272.
24. Fletcher RH, Fairfield KM. Vitamins for chronic disease prevention in adults: clinical applications. *JAMA*. 19 2002;287(23):3127-3129.
25. Flegal KM, Carroll MD, Kit BK, Ogden CL. Prevalence of obesity and trends in the distribution of body mass index among US adults, 1999-2010. *JAMA*. 2012;307(5):491-497.
26. Chen J, Cui Y, Li X, et al. Risk factors for deep infection after total knee arthroplasty: a meta-analysis. *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg*. 2013;133(5):675-687.
27. Dowsey MM, Choong PF. Obese diabetic patients are at substantial risk for deep infection after primary TKA. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2009;467(6):1577-1581.
28. Everhart JS, Altneu E, Calhoun JH. Medical Comorbidities Are Independent Preoperative Risk Factors for Surgical Infection After Total Joint Arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. Mar 22 2013. Epub before print.
29. Malinzak RA, Ritter MA, Berend ME, Meding JB, Olberding EM, Davis KE. Morbidly obese, diabetic, younger, and unilateral joint arthroplasty patients have elevated total joint arthroplasty infection rates. *J Arthroplasty*. 2009;24(6 Suppl):84-88.
30. Jibodh SR, Gurkan I, Wenz JF. In-hospital outcome and resource use in hip arthroplasty: influence of body mass. *Orthopedics*. 2004;27(6):594-601.
31. Peersman G, Laskin R, Davis J, Peterson MG, Richart T. Prolonged operative time correlates with increased infection rate after total knee arthroplasty. *HSS J*. 2006;2(1):70-72.
32. McElroy MJ, Pivec R, Issa K, Harwin SF, Mont MA. The effects of obesity and morbid obesity on outcomes in TKA. *J Knee Surg*. 2013;26(2):83-88.
33. Freeman JT, Anderson DJ, Hartwig MG, Sexton DJ. Surgical site infections following bariatric surgery in community hospitals: a weighty concern? *Obes Surg*. 2011;21(7):836-840.
34. Singh JA, Houston TK, Ponce BA, et al. Smoking as a risk factor for short-term outcomes following primary total hip and total knee replacement in veterans. *Arthritis Care Res (Hoboken)*. 2011;63(10):1365-1374.
35. Mills E, Eyawo O, Lockhart I, Kelly S, Wu P, Ebbert JO. Smoking cessation reduces postoperative complications: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Am J Med*. 2011;124(2):144-154 e148.
36. Myers K, Hajek P, Hinds C, McRobbie H. Stopping smoking shortly before surgery and postoperative complications: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Arch Intern Med*. 2011;171(11):983-989.
37. Sorensen LT. Wound healing and infection in surgery. The clinical impact of smoking and smoking cessation: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Arch Surg*. 2012;147(4):373-383.
38. Sorensen LT, Karlsmark T, Gottrup F. Abstinence from smoking reduces incisional wound infection: a randomized controlled trial. *Ann Surg*. 2003;238(1):1-5.
39. Sadr Azodi O, Bellocco R, Eriksson K, Adami J. The impact of tobacco use and body mass index on the length of stay in hospital and the risk of post-operative complications among patients undergoing total hip replacement. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 2006;88(10):1316-1320.
40. Lindstrom D, Sadr Azodi O, Wladis A, et al. Effects of a perioperative smoking cessation intervention on postoperative complications: a randomized trial. *Ann Surg*. 2008;248(5):739-745.
41. Harris AH, Reeder R, Ellerbe L, Bradley KA, Rubinsky AD, Giori NJ. Preoperative alcohol screening scores: association with complications in men undergoing total joint arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2011;93(4):321-327.

42. Bradley KA, Rubinsky AD, Sun H, et al. Alcohol screening and risk of postoperative complications in male VA patients undergoing major non-cardiac surgery. *J Gen Intern Med.* 2011;26(2):162-169.
43. Tonnesen H, Rosenberg J, Nielsen HJ, et al. Effect of preoperative abstinence on poor postoperative outcome in alcohol misusers: randomised controlled trial. *BMJ.* 1999;318(7194):1311-1316.
44. Sunday JM, Guille JT, Torg JS. Complications of joint arthroplasty in patients with end-stage renal disease on hemodialysis. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2002(397):350-355.
45. Lieberman JR, Fuchs MD, Haas SB, et al. Hip arthroplasty in patients with chronic renal failure. *J Arthroplasty.* 1995;10(2):191-195.
46. Sakalkale DP, Hozack WJ, Rothman RH. Total hip arthroplasty in patients on long-term renal dialysis. *J Arthroplasty.* 1999;14(5):571-575.
47. Pour AE, Matar WY, Jafari SM, Purtill JJ, Austin MS, Parvizi J. Total joint arthroplasty in patients with hepatitis C. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2011;93(15):1448-1454.
48. Hsieh PH, Chen LH, Lee MS, Chen CH, Yang WE, Shih CH. Hip arthroplasty in patients with cirrhosis of the liver. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2003;85(6):818-821.
49. Cohen SM, Te HS, Levitsky J. Operative risk of total hip and knee arthroplasty in cirrhotic patients. *J Arthroplasty.* 2005;20(4):460-466.
50. Barbari EF, Osmon DR, Lahr B, et al. The Mayo prosthetic joint infection risk score: implication for surgical site infection reporting and risk stratification. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* 2012;33(8):774-781.
51. Guichelaar MM, Schmoll J, Malinchoc M, Hay JE. Fractures and avascular necrosis before and after orthotopic liver transplantation: long-term follow-up and predictive factors. *Hepatology.* 2007;46(4):1198-1207.
52. Ramsey-Goldman R, Dunn JE, Dunlop DD, et al. Increased risk of fracture in patients receiving solid organ transplants. *J Bone Miner Res.* 1999;14(3):456-463.
53. Tannenbaum DA, Matthews LS, Grady-Benson JC. Infection around joint replacements in patients who have a renal or liver transplantation. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1997;79(1):36-43.
54. Lehman CR, Ries MD, Paiement GD, Davidson AB. Infection after total joint arthroplasty in patients with human immunodeficiency virus or intravenous drug use. *J Arthroplasty.* 2001;16(3):330-335.
55. Habermann B, Eberhardt C, Kurth AA. Total joint replacement in HIV positive patients. *J Infect.* 2008;57(1):41-46.
56. Hicks JL, Ribbans WJ, Buzzard B, et al. Infected joint replacements in HIV-positive patients with haemophilia. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2001;83(7):1050-1054.
57. Lee J, Singletary R, Schmader K, Anderson DJ, Bolognesi M, Kaye KS. Surgical site infection in the elderly following orthopaedic surgery. Risk factors and outcomes. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2006;88(8):1705-1712.
58. Jansen E, Huhtala H, Puolakka T, Moilanen T. Risk factors for infection after knee arthroplasty. A register-based analysis of 43,149 cases. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2009;91(1):38-47.
59. Kurtz SM, Ong KL, Lau E, Bozic KJ, Berry D, Parvizi J. Prosthetic joint infection risk after TKA in the Medicare population. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2010;468(1):52-56.
60. Willis-Owen CA, Konyves A, Martin DK. Factors affecting the incidence of infection in hip and knee replacement: an analysis of 5277 cases. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2010;92(8):1128-1133.
61. Dye BA, Tan S, Smith V, et al. Trends in oral health status: United States, 1988-1994 and 1999-2004. *Vital Health Stat 11.* 2007(248):1-92.
62. Bartzokas CA, Johnson R, Jane M, Martin MV, Pearce PK, Saw Y. Relation between mouth and haematogenous infection in total joint replacements. *BMJ.* 20-27 1994;309(6953):506-508.

63. Barrington JW, Barrington TA. What is the true incidence of dental pathology in the total joint arthroplasty population? *J Arthroplasty*. 2011;26(6 Suppl):88-91.
64. LaPorte DM, Waldman BJ, Mont MA, Hungerford DS. Infections associated with dental procedures in total hip arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 1999;81(1):56-59.
65. Sandhu SS, Lowry JC, Morton ME, Reuben SF. Antibiotic prophylaxis, dental treatment and arthroplasty: time to explode a myth. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 1997;79(4):521-522.
66. Parvizi J, Della Valle CJ. AAOS Clinical Practice Guideline: diagnosis and treatment of periprosthetic joint infections of the hip and knee. *J Am Acad Orthop Surg*. 2010;18(12):771-772.
67. Perl TM, Golub JE. New approaches to reduce *Staphylococcus aureus* nosocomial infection rates: treating *S. aureus* nasal carriage. *Ann Pharmacother*. 1998;32(1):S7-16.
68. Kenner J, O'Connor T, Piantanida N, et al. Rates of carriage of methicillin-resistant and methicillin-susceptible *Staphylococcus aureus* in an outpatient population. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol*. 2003;24(6):439-444.
69. Schwarzkopf R, Takemoto RC, Immerman I, Slover JD, Bosco JA. Prevalence of *Staphylococcus aureus* colonization in orthopaedic surgeons and their patients: a prospective cohort controlled study. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2010;92(9):1815-1819.
70. Kalmeijer MD, van Nieuwland-Bollen E, Bogaers-Hofman D, de Baere GA. Nasal carriage of *Staphylococcus aureus* is a major risk factor for surgical-site infections in orthopedic surgery. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol*. 2000;21(5):319-323.
71. Hacek DM, Robb WJ, Paule SM, Kudrna JC, Stamos VP, Peterson LR. *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal decolonization in joint replacement surgery reduces infection. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2008;466(6):1349-1355.
72. Schweizer M, Perencevich E, McDanel J, et al. Effectiveness of a bundled intervention of decolonization and prophylaxis to decrease Gram positive surgical site infections after cardiac or orthopedic surgery: systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMJ*. 2013;346:f2743.
73. Kallen AJ, Wilson CT, Larson RJ. Perioperative intranasal mupirocin for the prevention of surgical-site infections: systematic review of the literature and meta-analysis. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol*. 2005;26(12):916-922.
74. van Rijen MM, Bonten M, Wenzel RP, Kluytmans JA. Intranasal mupirocin for reduction of *Staphylococcus aureus* infections in surgical patients with nasal carriage: a systematic review. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2008;61(2):254-261.
75. Johnson AJ, Daley JA, Zywiell MG, Delanois RE, Mont MA. Preoperative chlorhexidine preparation and the incidence of surgical site infections after hip arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty*. 2010;25(6 Suppl):98-102.
76. Cox RA, Conquest C. Strategies for the management of healthcare staff colonized with epidemic methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *J Hosp Infect*. 1997;35(2):117-127.
77. Muder RR, Brennen C, Goetz AM. Infection with methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* among hospital employees. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol*. 1993;14(10):576-578.
78. Simmons BP, Munn C, Gelfand M. Toxic shock in a hospital employee due to methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Infect Control*. 1986;7(7):350.
79. Dutch Working Party for Infection Prevention. MRSA in nursing homes. 2007; www.wip.nl, Accessed 2013.
80. Garner JS. Guideline for isolation precautions in hospitals. The Hospital Infection Control Practices Advisory Committee. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol*. 1996;17(1):53-80.
81. Mitteilung der Kommission für Krankenhaushygiene und Infektionsprävention am RKI. Empfehlung zur prävention und Kontrolle von methicillin-resistenten *Staphylococcus aureus*-Stämmen (MRSA) in Krankenhäusern und anderen medizinischen Einrichtungen. Bundesgesundheitsbl-Gesundheitsforsch-Gesundheitsschutz. 1999;42:954-956.
82. Bowler I. Strategies for the management of healthcare staff colonized with epidemic methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *J Hosp Infect*. 1997;36(4):321-322.

83. Lessing MP, Jordens JZ, Bowler IC. When should healthcare workers be screened for methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*? *J Hosp Infect.* 1996;34(3):205-210.
84. Koulouvaris P, Sculco P, Finerty E, Sculco T, Sharrock NE. Relationship between perioperative urinary tract infection and deep infection after joint arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2009;467(7):1859-1867.
85. Ollivere BJ, Ellahee N, Logan K, Miller-Jones JC, Allen PW. Asymptomatic urinary tract colonisation predisposes to superficial wound infection in elective orthopaedic surgery. *Int Orthop.* 2009;33(3):847-850.
86. Lawrence VA, Gafni A, Gross M. The unproven utility of the preoperative urinalysis: economic evaluation. *J Clin Epidemiol.* 1989;42(12):1185-1192.
87. Nicolle LE, Bradley S, Colgan R, Rice JC, Schaeffer A, Hooton TM. Infectious Diseases Society of America guidelines for the diagnosis and treatment of asymptomatic bacteriuria in adults. *Clin Infect Dis.* Mar 1 2005;40(5):643-654.
88. Rajamanickam A, Noor S, Usmani A. Should an asymptomatic patient with an abnormal urinalysis (bacteriuria or pyuria) be treated with antibiotics prior to major joint replacement surgery? *Cleve Clin J Med.* 2007;74 Suppl 1:S17-18.
89. Bozic KJ, Lau E, Kurtz S, et al. Patient-related risk factors for periprosthetic joint infection and postoperative mortality following total hip arthroplasty in Medicare patients. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2012;94(9):794-800.
90. Schrama JC, Espehaug B, Hallan G, et al. Risk of revision for infection in primary total hip and knee arthroplasty in patients with rheumatoid arthritis compared with osteoarthritis: a prospective, population-based study on 108,786 hip and knee joint arthroplasties from the Norwegian Arthroplasty Register. *Arthritis Care Res (Hoboken).* 2010;62(4):473-479.
91. Howe CR, Gardner GC, Kadel NJ. Perioperative medication management for the patient with rheumatoid arthritis. *J Am Acad Orthop Surg.* 2006;14(9):544-551.
92. Jain A, Maini R, Nanchahal J. Disease modifying treatment and elective surgery in rheumatoid arthritis: the need for more data. *Ann Rheum Dis.* 2004;63(5):602-603.
93. Giles JT, Bartlett SJ, Gelber AC, et al. Tumor necrosis factor inhibitor therapy and risk of serious postoperative orthopedic infection in rheumatoid arthritis. *Arthritis Rheum.* 2006;55(2):333-337.
94. Momohara S, Kawakami K, Iwamoto T, et al. Prosthetic joint infection after total hip or knee arthroplasty in rheumatoid arthritis patients treated with nonbiologic and biologic disease-modifying antirheumatic drugs. *Mod Rheumatol.* 2011;21(5):469-475.
95. Grennan DM, Gray J, Loudon J, Fear S. Methotrexate and early postoperative complications in patients with rheumatoid arthritis undergoing elective orthopaedic surgery. *Ann Rheum Dis.* 2001;60(3):214-217.
96. Perhala RS, Wilke WS, Clough JD, Segal AM. Local infectious complications following large joint replacement in rheumatoid arthritis patients treated with methotrexate versus those not treated with methotrexate. *Arthritis Rheum.* 1991;34(2):146-152.
97. Carpenter MT, West SG, Vogelgesang SA, Casey Jones DE. Postoperative joint infections in rheumatoid arthritis patients on methotrexate therapy. *Orthopedics.* 1996;19(3):207-210.
98. Health Canada Drug Product Database. May 28, 2013; <http://hc-sc.gc.ca/dhp-mps/prodpharma/databasdon/index-eng.php>, 2013.
99. Le Dantec L, Maury F, Flipo RM, et al. Peripheral pyogenic arthritis. A study of one hundred seventy-nine cases. *Rev Rhum Engl Ed.* 1996;63(2):103-110.
100. Morgan DS, Fisher D, Merianos A, Currie BJ. An 18 year clinical review of septic arthritis from tropical Australia. *Epidemiol Infect.* 1996;117(3):423-428.
101. Ryan MJ, Kavanagh R, Wall PG, Hazleman BL. Bacterial joint infections in England and Wales: analysis of bacterial isolates over a four year period. *Br J Rheumatol.* 1997;36(3):370-373.

102. Li SF, Cassidy C, Chang C, Gharib S, Torres J. Diagnostic utility of laboratory tests in septic arthritis. *Emerg Med J.* 2007;24(2):75-77.
103. Li SF, Henderson J, Dickman E, Darzynkiewicz R. Laboratory tests in adults with monoarticular arthritis: can they rule out a septic joint? *Acad Emerg Med.* 2004;11(3):276-280.
104. Margaretten ME, Kohlwes J, Moore D, Bent S. Does this adult patient have septic arthritis? *JAMA.* 2007;297(13):1478-1488.
105. Parvizi J, Jacovides C, Zmistowski B, Jung KA. Definition of periprosthetic joint infection: is there a consensus? *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2011;469(11):3022-3030.
106. Spangehl MJ, Masri BA, O'Connell JX, Duncan CP. Prospective analysis of preoperative and intraoperative investigations for the diagnosis of infection at the sites of two hundred and two revision total hip arthroplasties. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1999;81(5):672-683.
107. Atkins BL, Athanasou N, Deeks JJ, et al. Prospective evaluation of criteria for microbiological diagnosis of prosthetic-joint infection at revision arthroplasty. The OSIRIS Collaborative Study Group. *J Clin Microbiol.* 1998;36(10):2932-2939.

Workgroup 2: Perioperative Skin Preparation

Liaison:

Anthony T Tokarski BS

Leaders:

David Blaha MD (US), Michael A. Mont MD (US), Parag Sancheti MS, DNB, MCh (International)

Delegates:

Lyssette Cardona MD, MPH, MHA, AAHIVS, FIDSA, Gilberto Lara Cotacio MD, Mark Froimson MD, Bhaveen Kapadia MD, James Kuderna MD, PhD, Juan Carlos López MD, Wadih Y Matar MD, MSc, FRCSC, Joseph McCarthy MD, Rhidian Morgan-Jones MB BCh, FRCS, Michael Patzakis MD, Ran Schwarzkopf MD, Gholam Hossain Shahcheraghi MD, Xifu Shang MD, Petri Virolainen MD, PhD, Montri D. Wongworawat MD, Adolph Yates Jr, MD

Question 1A: Is there a role for preoperative skin cleansing with an antiseptic?

Consensus: Yes. Preoperative cleansing of the skin with chlorhexidine gluconate (CHG) should be implemented. In the presence of a sensitivity to CHG, or when it is unavailable, it is our consensus that antiseptic soap is appropriate.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 90%, Disagree: 8%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Question 1B: What type and when should preoperative skin cleansing with an antiseptic be implemented?

Consensus: We recommend that whole-body skin cleansing should start at least the night prior to elective arthroplasty. It is a consensus that after bathing, patients are advised to sleep in clean garments and bedding without the application of any topical products.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 85%, Disagree: 10%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Justification:

Preoperative showering or cleansing: Two meta-analyses of 7 randomized control trials (RCT) performed by the Cochrane group found that preoperative showering with CHG did not reduce the rate of SSI when compared to no shower (3 RCTs) or placebo (4 RCTs).¹ Two observational studies using CHG wipes in total joint arthroplasty patients demonstrated a non-statistically significant reduction in the incidence of SSI.^{2,3} Johnson et al. found in a prospective consecutive series that patients who used CHG wipes one day preoperatively and the morning of the operation had a lower incidence of SSI than patients who did not comply with this protocol prior to total hip arthroplasty.² These results were reproduced using a similar protocol in total knee arthroplasty patients.³ In neither study were patients randomized to receive treatment or no treatment; however, the authors compared patients who completely complied with the protocol to patients who did not comply. Patients with partial compliance were excluded from both studies.

Chlorhexidine and methicillin-resistant organisms: A systematic review of the literature conducted by Karki et al. reported on a meta-analysis of two before-and-after studies that showed non-rinse skin cleansing with CHG washcloths was effective in reducing the risk of

methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) skin colonization in the setting of the intensive care unit. However, a meta-analysis of 4 before-and-after studies showed no evidence that CHG washcloths reduce the risk of MRSA infection.⁴ Other studies have shown that CHG cleansing leads to a lower rate of MRSA colonization in the hospital setting.^{5, 6} One case-control study evaluating a protocol of a 5-day course of intranasal mupirocin and daily CHG cloths (beginning one day before surgery and continuing the day of surgery and postoperative days 1-3) in a non-general surgery population reported statistically significant decreases in the rate of MRSA SSI in the two years following implementation of this protocol.⁷ However, in these studies CHG washcloths were used as part of a broader *Staphylococcus aureus* decolonization protocol. Therefore, it is not possible to determine the impact on SSI of decolonization or CHG wash clothes, independently.

Timing of preoperative shower or cleansing: No studies have focused on the impact of the time or duration of preoperative cleansing with an antiseptic agent. Some studies have implemented protocols of washing the surgical site once on the night prior to surgery and on the morning of the operation,^{3, 8, 9} while other protocols have continued washing through postoperative day 3.⁷ One study conducted with a small sample size of volunteers noted decreased microbial colonization with a CHG wash over the course of a five day period.³⁷ Currently, the Centers for Disease Control (CDC) recommends that preoperative showering begin at least the night prior to surgery.¹⁰ Caution should be exercised to ensure that patients do not use preoperative CHG wash excessively, as studies suggest no benefit for such practice that may also lead to skin irritation.^{11, 12}

Whole body cleansing vs localized surgical site-specific cleansing: one large RCT showed that whole-body cleansing was more effective at reducing the rate of SSI than surgical site-specific washing.¹³ We recommend that whole body preoperative skin cleansing be undertaken preoperatively.

Question 2: Which agent, if any, is the optimal agent for surgical skin preparation?

Consensus: There is no clear difference between various skin preparation agents. There is some evidence that combinations of antiseptic agents with alcohol may be important for skin antisepsis.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 89%, Disagree: 8%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification:

Optimum skin preparation agent: While CHG is the recommended agent for preventing intravenous catheter-related infections,¹⁴ the CDC currently does not recommend one agent over another for prevention of SSI.¹⁰ When compared directly, results are conflicted as to whether CHG or povidone-iodine provides superior skin antisepsis and lowers the rate of SSI. In a large, multicenter RCT, Darouiche et al. showed that CHG in alcohol showed a significant reduction in the rate of SSI when compared to aqueous povidone-iodine scrub and paint; however, the iodine preparation did not use alcohol as a solvent.¹⁵ Conversely, in a single-institution, observational, non-concurrent control study of general surgery patients, Swenson et al. found that when alcohol was used (either as a solvent or a scrub following iodine paint), patients prepped with povidone-iodine had a lower rate of SSI.¹⁶ Other studies have shown that there is no difference in the rate of SSI between patients prepped with either CHG or iodophors.^{17, 18} To date, there are no prospective randomized studies comparing skin preps in patients undergoing total joint arthroplasty. We therefore have insufficient evidence to recommend a preferred agent for preventing SSI in elective arthroplasty procedures.

Alcohol is suggested to be an important element for skin antisepsis: Alcohol is used as an antiseptic because of its rapid antimicrobial action.¹⁰ One systematic review of 5 RTCs found that CHG-alcohol formulations were more effective at preventing SSI than aqueous povidone-iodine solutions, and in other studies there was no conclusive evidence that CHG-alcohol solutions were more effective than povidone-iodine products dissolved in alcohol or aqueous solutions.¹⁹ While we cannot make a claim about the superiority of CHG over iodine-based antiseptics, it is suggested that whichever agent is chosen, that it be dissolved in alcohol. However, caution should be taken to allow time for adequate drying of alcohol-based products, as operating room fires have been reported.^{10, 20}

Question 3A: What is the proper method of hair removal?

Consensus: Clipping, as opposed to shaving, is the preferred method for hair removal. We cannot advise for or against the use of depilatory cream for removal of hair.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 92%, Disagree: 3%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Question 3B: When should hair removal be performed?

Consensus: If necessary, hair removal should be performed as close to the time of the surgical procedure as possible.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 94%, Disagree: 4%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification:

Clipping is the best form of hair removal: Concern over shaving has been raised because abrasions formed from the shaving process can become sites of bacterial growth. A recent systematic review of randomized and quasi-RCTs showed that clipping lowered the rate of SSI when compared to shaving.²¹ Many other studies have shown the superiority of clipping over shaving, using postoperative SSI as the primary endpoint.²²⁻²⁴ Some institutions utilize depilatory agents as skin preparation.

Hair removal should be performed close to the time of surgery: There is currently no evidence in literature that shows the most appropriate setting and time in which to remove hair from the surgical site. One study investigated the effects of hair removal the night before surgery compared to hair removal on the day of surgery and found that clipping on the morning of surgery was associated with a lower SSI rate.²⁵ Another retrospective review demonstrated that shaving immediately before a surgical procedure was associated with a lower SSI rate than shaving 24 hours or greater prior to surgery. However, this study did not include patients who used clipping to remove hair and was designed to test the effect of shaving versus depilatory removal.²⁶ The CDC recommends not removing hair preoperatively unless the hair at or around the incision site will interfere with the operation. If hair removal is necessary, it should be performed immediately prior to the operation and preferably with electric clippers.¹⁰ Given the overall lack of research specific to the environment in which preoperative hair removal should take place, we recommend that hair removal be performed in the hospital as close to the time of surgery as possible by either the surgical team or the trained nursing staff. If practical, we suggest that this removal take place outside of the operating room.

Question 4: What special considerations should be given to a patient with skin lesions?

Consensus: Elective arthroplasty should NOT be performed in patients with active ulceration of the skin in the vicinity of the surgical site. It is our consensus that incisions should not be placed through active skin lesions. For certain lesions such as those due to eczema and psoriasis, surgery should be delayed in these patients until their lesions have been optimized.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 96%, Disagree: 2%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification:

Elective arthroplasty in patients with active skin ulcerations: The orthopaedic literature is deficient in studies evaluating SSI in patients with active skin ulcerations. However, one prospective audit showed that active ulceration of the skin was a significant risk factor for wound infection.²⁷ Therefore, we recommend that elective arthroplasty should not be carried out in patients with active skin ulcerations of the surgical field (active ulcerations defined as breaks in the skin barrier, excluding superficial scratches).

Surgical incisions through eczematous or psoriatic lesions: Likewise, there are no existing studies evaluating the risk of SSI when incisions are placed through eczematous or psoriatic lesions. Some retrospective studies have reported high rates of SSI and periprosthetic joint infection (PJI) in patients with a diagnosis of psoriasis or eczema.^{28, 29} However, latter studies did not evaluate whether it was the placement of incision through the affected skin or the overall immunosuppressed status of these patients with psoriasis or eczema that increased the risk of SSI. Given reported poor outcomes as well as increased bacterial load on psoriatic skin,³⁰ placing surgical incisions through eczematous or psoriatic lesions should be avoided if possible. Surgery should be delayed in these patients until these lesions are optimized.

Question 5A: How should the surgeon and assistants wash their hands?

Consensus: The surgeon and operating room personnel should mechanically wash their hands with an antiseptic agent for a minimum of 2 minutes for the first case. A shorter period may be appropriate for subsequent cases.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 71%, Disagree: 24%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Question 5B: With what agent should the surgeon and assistants wash their hands?

Consensus: There is no clear difference among various antiseptic agents for hand washing.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 80%, Disagree: 15%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Justification:

Duration of hand washing: A review of the literature performed by Tanner et al. found 4 RCTs comparing different durations of surgical team skin antisepsis.³¹⁻³⁴ All of the studies used colony forming units (CFU) present on the surgical staff's hands, not SSI, as the primary endpoint. One study found no difference between a 2 or a 3 minute scrub and a 1 minute hand washing with soap and water.³⁴ Another group found that a 1 minute hand washing followed by a 3 minute hand rub using alcohol was more effective in reducing CFUs than a 5 minute hand rub.³¹ Pereira et al. found that both a 5 and 3 minute initial scrub with either CHG or povidone-iodine were equally as effective in reducing CFUs.^{32, 35} Current recommendations vary on the duration of hand antisepsis; the CDC recommends 2-5 minutes,¹⁰ while the Association of Perioperative Registered Nurses states that a 3-4 minute scrub is as effective as a 5 minute scrub.³⁶ Based on the variability present in the current literature, we recommend that the duration of surgical hand antisepsis last for a minimum of 2 minutes. For the first case, we recommend a mechanical washing (either a scrub or soap-and-water washing) for a minimum of 2 minutes. There is no clear evidence supporting the utility of a particular hand washing method for subsequent cases. If there is a chance of contamination, the process for the first case should be repeated.

Optimum agent for hand washing: Results are inconclusive regarding the most effective agent for surgical hand antisepsis. Only one of 10 RCTs in the systematic review performed by Tanner et al.³³ reported SSI as the primary outcome. One large, multicenter, prospective, equivalence-cluster, randomized crossover study demonstrated that traditional (5 minute) scrubbing methods and aqueous agents (4% CHG or 4% povidone-iodine) were equally as effective at reducing the incidence of SSI compared to a single hand wash for one minute with non-antiseptic soap at the start of the day followed by alcohol-only rubs. The efficacy of CHG compared to povidone-iodine was not directly tested as each institution was able to choose which scrub agent they incorporated into their protocol.³⁷ A retrospective, observational study that used wound infection as the primary endpoint found no difference between an alcohol-based rub product and a

traditional 6 minute brush hand scrubbing; however, the authors did not describe the protocol or agent used for the traditional scrub group arm.³⁸

References:

1. Webster J, Osborne S. Preoperative bathing or showering with skin antiseptics to prevent surgical site infection. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2012;9:CD004985.
2. Johnson AJ, Daley JA, Zywiell MG, Delanois RE, Mont MA. Preoperative chlorhexidine preparation and the incidence of surgical site infections after hip arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 2010;25(6 Suppl):98-102.
3. Zywiell MG, Daley JA, Delanois RE, Naziri Q, Johnson AJ, Mont MA. Advance pre-operative chlorhexidine reduces the incidence of surgical site infections in knee arthroplasty. *Int Orthop.* 2011;35(7):1001-1006.
4. Karki S, Cheng AC. Impact of non-rinse skin cleansing with chlorhexidine gluconate on prevention of healthcare-associated infections and colonization with multi-resistant organisms: a systematic review. *J Hosp Infect.* 2012;82(2):71-84.
5. Mehta S, Hadley S, Hutzler L, Slover J, Phillips M, Bosco JA, 3rd. Impact of preoperative MRSA screening and decolonization on hospital-acquired MRSA burden. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2013;471(7):2367-2371.
6. Simor AE, Phillips E, McGeer A, et al. Randomized controlled trial of chlorhexidine gluconate for washing, intranasal mupirocin, and rifampin and doxycycline versus no treatment for the eradication of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* colonization. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2007;44(2):178-185.
7. Thompson P, Houston S. Decreasing methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* surgical site infections with chlorhexidine and mupirocin. *Am J Infect Control.* 2013;41(7):629-633.
8. Eiselt D. Presurgical skin preparation with a novel 2% chlorhexidine gluconate cloth reduces rates of surgical site infection in orthopaedic surgical patients. *Orthop Nurs.* 2009;28(3):141-145.
9. Halpern CH, Mitchell GW, Paul A, et al. Self-administered preoperative antiseptic wash to prevent postoperative infection after deep brain stimulation. *Am J Infect Control.* 2012;40(5):431-433.
10. Mangram AJ, Horan TC, Pearson ML, Silver LC, Jarvis WR. Guideline for Prevention of Surgical Site Infection, 1999. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) Hospital Infection Control Practices Advisory Committee. *Am J Infect Control.* 1999;27(2):97-132; quiz 133-134; discussion 196.
11. Lilly HA, Lowbury EJ, Wilkins MD. Limits to progressive reduction of resident skin bacteria by disinfection. *J Clin Pathol.* 1979;32(4):382-385.
12. Lowbury EJ, Lilly HA. Use of 4 per cent chlorhexidine detergent solution (Hibiscrub) and other methods of skin disinfection. *Br Med J.* Mar 3 1973;1(5852):510-515.
13. Wihlborg O. The effect of washing with chlorhexidine soap on wound infection rate in general surgery. A controlled clinical study. *Ann Chir Gynaecol.* 1987;76(5):263-265.
14. O'Grady NP, Alexander M, Burns LA, et al. Guidelines for the prevention of intravascular catheter-related infections. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2011;52(9):e162-193.
15. Darouiche RO, Wall MJ, Jr., Itani KM, et al. Chlorhexidine-Alcohol versus Povidone-Iodine for Surgical-Site Antisepsis. *N Engl J Med.* 2010;362(1):18-26.
16. Swenson BR, Hedrick TL, Metzger R, Bonatti H, Pruett TL, Sawyer RG. Effects of preoperative skin preparation on postoperative wound infection rates: a prospective study of 3 skin preparation protocols. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* 2009;30(10):964-971.

17. Saltzman MD, Nuber GW, Gryzlo SM, Marecek GS, Koh JL. Efficacy of surgical preparation solutions in shoulder surgery. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2009;91(8):1949-1953.
18. Sistla SC, Prabhu G, Sistla S, Sadasivan J. Minimizing wound contamination in a 'clean' surgery: comparison of chlorhexidine-ethanol and povidone-iodine. *Chemotherapy.* 2010;56(4):261-267.
19. Dumville JC, McFarlane E, Edwards P, Lipp A, Holmes A. Preoperative skin antiseptics for preventing surgical wound infections after clean surgery. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2013;3:CD003949.
20. Apfelbaum JL, Caplan RA, Barker SJ, et al. Practice advisory for the prevention and management of operating room fires: an updated report by the American Society of Anesthesiologists Task Force on Operating Room Fires. *Anesthesiology.* 2013;118(2):271-290.
21. Tanner J, Norrie P, Melen K. Preoperative hair removal to reduce surgical site infection. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2011(11):CD004122.
22. Balthazar ER, Colt JD, Nichols RL. Preoperative hair removal: a random prospective study of shaving versus clipping. *South Med J.* 1982;75(7):799-801.
23. Ko W, Lazenby WD, Zelano JA, Isom OW, Krieger KH. Effects of shaving methods and intraoperative irrigation on suppurative mediastinitis after bypass operations. *Ann Thorac Surg.* 1992;53(2):301-305.
24. Sellick JA, Jr., Stelmach M, Mylotte JM. Surveillance of surgical wound infections following open heart surgery. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* 1991;12(10):591-596.
25. Alexander JW, Fischer JE, Boyajian M, Palmquist J, Morris MJ. The influence of hair-removal methods on wound infections. *Arch Surg.* 1983;118(3):347-352.
26. Seropian R, Reynolds BM. Wound infections after preoperative depilatory versus razor preparation. *Am J Surg.* 1971;121(3):251-254.
27. Penington A. Ulceration and antihypertensive use are risk factors for infection after skin lesion excision. *ANZ J Surg.* 2010;80(9):642-645.
28. Menon TJ, Wroblewski BM. Charnley low-friction arthroplasty in patients with psoriasis. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1983(176):127-128.
29. Stern SH, Insall JN, Windsor RE, Inglis AE, Dines DM. Total knee arthroplasty in patients with psoriasis. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1989(248):108-110; discussion 111.
30. Aly R, Maibach HE, Mandel A. Bacterial flora in psoriasis. *Br J Dermatol.* 1976;95(6):603-606.
31. Kappstein I, Schulgen G, Waninger J, Daschner F. [Microbiological and economic studies of abbreviated procedures for surgical hand disinfection]. *Chirurg.* 1993;64(5):400-405.
32. Pereira LJ, Lee GM, Wade KJ. The effect of surgical handwashing routines on the microbial counts of operating room nurses. *Am J Infect Control.* 1990;18(6):354-364.
33. Tanner J, Swarbrook S, Stuart J. Surgical hand antisepsis to reduce surgical site infection. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2008(1):CD004288.
34. Wheelock SM, Lookinland S. Effect of surgical hand scrub time on subsequent bacterial growth. *AORN J.* 1997;65(6):1087-1092; 1094-1088.
35. Pereira LJ, Lee GM, Wade KJ. An evaluation of five protocols for surgical handwashing in relation to skin condition and microbial counts. *J Hosp Infect.* 1997;36(1):49-65.
36. Recommended practices for surgical hand antisepsis/hand scrubs. *AORN J.* 2004;79(2):416-418, 421-416, 429-431.
37. Parienti JJ, Thibon P, Heller R, et al. Hand-rubbing with an aqueous alcoholic solution vs traditional surgical hand-scrubbing and 30-day surgical site infection rates: a randomized equivalence study. *JAMA.* 2002;288(6):722-727.
38. Weight CJ, Lee MC, Palmer JS. Avagard hand antisepsis vs. traditional scrub in 3600 pediatric urologic procedures. *Urology.* 2010;76(1):15-17.

Workgroup 3: Perioperative Antibiotics

Liaison:

Erik Hansen MD

Leaders:

Katherine Belden MD, Randi Silibovsky MD (US), Markus Vogt MD (International)

Delegates:

William Arnold MD, PhD, Goran Bicanic MD, PhD, Stefano Bini MD, Fabio Catani MD, Jiying Chen MD, PhD, Mohammad Ghazavi MD, FRCSC, Karine M. Godefroy MD, Paul Holham MD, Hamid Hosseinzadeh MD, Kang Il Kim MD, PhD, Klaus Kirketerp-Møller MD, Lars Lidgren MD PhD, Jian Hao Lin MD, Jess H Lonner MD, Christopher C Moore MD, Panayiotis Papagelopoulos MD, Lazaros Poultsides MD MSc PhD, R Lor Randall MD, Brian Roslund PharmD, Khalid Saleh MD MSc FRCSC MHCM, Julia V Salmon MD, Edward Schwarz PhD, Jose Stuyck MD, Annette W Dahl MD, Koji Yamada MD

Question 1: What is the optimal timing of the preoperative dose of antibiotics?

Consensus: The preoperative dose of antibiotics should be administered within one hour of surgical incision; this can be extended to two hours for vancomycin and fluoroquinolones. Furthermore, surveillance measures are critical in ensuring clinician compliance with this objective.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 97%, Disagree: 2%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: The scientific rationale for antibiotic prophylaxis is to inhibit or eliminate contaminating microorganisms that gain access to the surgical site during the procedure, which reduces the probability of an established infection. Thus, the goal of administering preoperative antibiotics is to allow for adequate tissue (blood, soft tissue, and bone) concentrations by the time of incision. These antibiotics should exceed the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) for the organisms likely to be encountered for the duration of the operation. This depends on the antibiotic used. There are a number of studies which validate the importance of the preoperative dose of antibiotics in decreasing periprosthetic joint infection (PJI) and surgical site infection (SSI) in total joint arthroplasty (TJA). However, there are conflicting opinions as to the optimal timing of this dose. Some studies suggest that within 2 hours of incision is best, while others recommend scheduling the dose as close to surgical incision as possible. There are several institutional guidelines which support a one hour preoperative dose of antibiotics as a Surgical Care Improvement Project (SCIP) measure. In addition to these guidelines, it is critically important to have surveillance measures in place to document compliance with these protocols.

The American Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons (AAOS), the Centers for Disease Control (CDC), and SCIP guidelines recommend that prophylactic antibiotics be completely infused within one hour before the surgical incision.¹ The AAOS recommendation for the use of intravenous antibiotic prophylaxis in primary TJA, recommendation 2, states that “timing and dosage of antibiotic administration should optimize the efficacy of the therapy. Prophylactic antibiotics should be administered within one hour before skin incision.” Due to extended infusion time, vancomycin and fluoroquinolones should be started within 2 hours before incision. When a proximal tourniquet is used, the antibiotic must be completely infused before

inflation of tourniquet². The US advisory statement recommends that antimicrobial prophylaxis be administered within one hour before incision and discontinued within 24 hours after the end of the operation,³ while European guidelines recommend a single dose within 30 minutes before incision.⁴

Timing < 2hrs: The seminal article on this subject studied the timing of administration of prophylactic antibiotics and the risk of surgical wound infections in clean and clean-contaminated cases at a large community hospital.⁵ In a study of 2,847 patients, 313 (11%) received TJA. The authors found that the rate of infection was lowest for patients who received an antibiotic from 0 to 2 hours before the incision.⁵ Specifically, of the 1,708 patients who received prophylactic antibiotics during this time frame, only 10 (0.6%) subsequently developed SSI compared to 14 (3.8%) of 369 patients who received antibiotics 2 to 24 hours preoperatively, 4 (1.4%) of 282 patients who received antibiotics within 3 hours after incision, and 16 (3.3%) of 488 patients who received antibiotics 3 to 24 hours following incision. However, this study was conducted in 1985 to 1986, when there was considerable variation in timing of administration of the prophylactic antibiotic, and only 35% of patients received their dose within the contemporary standard of one hour prior to incision. Furthermore, the study did not find a significant difference in SSI rates when antibiotics were administered within 1 to 2 hours prior to incision compared with antibiotics administered 0 to 3 hours postoperatively.

Timing <1 hr: The leadership of the Medicare National Surgical Infection Prevention Projected hosted the Surgical Infection Prevention Guideline Writers Workgroup (SIPGWW) meeting and utilized the available literature to draft a consensus paper. The position of the SIPGWW is that the infusion of the first antimicrobial dose should begin within 60 minutes before incision.^{3,6}

Galandiuk et al. combined the results of two prospective randomized controlled trials (RCTs) that compared antibiotic prophylaxis (either single-dose piperacillin with multi-dose cefoxitin) in elective surgical procedures of the gastrointestinal tract. The authors found that among other negative predictors, administration of an antibiotic for longer than 60 minutes preoperatively was associated with a higher rate of infectious complications.⁷

In a large, retrospective cohort study using National Veterans Affairs data on prophylactic antibiotics of 32,459 surgical procedures from 2005-2009, Hawn et al. found that higher SSI rates were observed for antibiotic administration more than 60 minutes prior to incision (unadjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.34, 95% confidence interval (CI) 1.08-1.66) compared with procedures in which antibiotics were administered within one hour of incision. However, in

generalized additive models adjusted for patient, procedure, and antibiotic variables, no significant association was seen between prophylactic antibiotic timing and SSI.⁸

Timing 30-60 minutes: In a prospective cohort study at a single academic hospital analyzing the incidence of SSI by the timing of antimicrobial prophylaxis in a consecutive series of 3,836 surgical procedures, Weber et al. determined that administration of single-shot prophylactic cefuroxime is more effective when given 30-59 minutes before incision than administration during the last 30 minutes. The overall SSI rate for this mixed cohort of general, vascular, and orthopaedic surgeries was 4.7% (180), and antimicrobial prophylaxis was administered within the final 30 minutes in 59% of all procedures. Multivariable logistic regression analysis showed a significant increase in the odds of SSI when antimicrobial prophylaxis was administered fewer than 30 minutes (crude OR 2.01; adjusted OR 1.95, 95% CI, 1.4-2.8; $p < 0.001$) and 60 to 120 minutes (crude OR 1.75; adjusted OR 1.74; 95% CI 1.0-2.9, $p = 0.035$) when compared with the reference interval of 30 to 59 minutes before incision.⁹

Timing <30 minutes: In a large, prospective, multicenter observational study examining the relationship between antibiotic timing and SSI risk, Steinberg et al. determined that SSI risk increased incrementally as the interval of time between antibiotic infusion and creation of the incision increased. The authors analyzed the antimicrobial prophylaxis of 4,472 randomly selected cardiac, hip or knee arthroplasty, and hysterectomy cases from 29 contributing hospitals, and ascertained SSI through the National Nosocomial Infections Surveillance system methodology. When antibiotics requiring long infusion times (eg vancomycin) were excluded, the infection risk following administration of antibiotics within 30 minutes was 1.6% compared with 2.4% associated with administration of antibiotic between 31 to 60 minutes prior to surgery (OR 1.74; 95% CI 0.98-3.04).¹⁰

In another recent multicenter, observational study from the Netherlands assessing risk factors for postoperative infections in 1,922 total hip arthroplasty (THA) cases, the authors found a similar pattern with a decreased rate of infection in those who received prophylaxis within 30 minutes prior to incision, although it did not reach statistical significance.⁴ These authors collected data about SSI and potential risks factors related to prophylaxis, the patient, and procedure from 11 hospitals that participated in the Surgical Prophylaxis and Surveillance Intervention project and used multivariate logistic regression analysis to identify those variables that were predictive of SSI. Although there was a non-significant trend for the lowest SSI rate in those patients who received prophylaxis 30 minutes before surgery, the highest odds ratios for

SSI were found in patients who received prophylaxis after incision (2.8, 95% CI 0.9-8.6), $p=0.07$) and prolonged duration of surgery was the only statistically significant risk factor for SSI following THA.

Timing with Tourniquet Use: In an RCT of 22 patients in which cefuroxime prophylaxis was administered at various intervals (5, 10, 15, or 20 minutes) before inflation of the tourniquet for total knee arthroplasty (TKA), Johnson et al. measured antibiotic levels of bone and subcutaneous fat throughout the operation. They found that an interval of 10 minutes prior to tourniquet inflation was necessary to obtain adequate prophylaxis. While the patients obtained adequate levels in bone at 5 minutes, an interval of 10 minutes or more was required for patients to have therapeutic levels in the subcutaneous fat.¹¹

In another similar RCT, 24 patients undergoing TKA were randomized to receive cefazolin 1, 2, or 5 minutes before tourniquet inflation. Serum, soft tissue, and bone samples were measured for adequate cefazolin concentration (defined as $4 \times \text{MIC}_{90}$ ($\text{MIC}_{90}=1$ microgram/ml)). The median percentage of cefazolin penetration into soft tissue and bone for the 5, 2, and 1 minute groups was 14.5% and 4.6%, 6.7% and 3.0%, and 5.9% and 4.6% respectively. The authors also noted that the percentage of patients achieving the ratio of $4 \times \text{MIC}_{90}$ for soft tissue and bone was highest in the 5 minute group compared with either the 2 or 1 minute groups.¹²

In another prospective study by Soriano et al., 908 patients undergoing TKA were randomized to receive either 1.5 g of cefuroxime 30 minutes before inflation of tourniquet and placebo 10 minutes before release of tourniquet (standard group) or placebo 30 minutes before inflation of tourniquet and 1.5 g cefuroxime 10 minutes before release of tourniquet. There was no difference among the patients with regard to various risk factors for SSI/PJI. The authors did not find a significant difference in the incidence of infection at 3.6% for the standard group and 2.6% for the control group at 12 months. The authors concluded that administration of antibiotics just prior to release of tourniquet was not inferior to a standard prophylactic regimen.¹³

Surveillance Measures: In a study evaluating the impact of a new national project meant to reduce infections in arthroplasty surgery in Sweden, Dahl et al. found that only 57% of patients received preoperative antibiotics during the recommended time frame. In 2009, following the introduction of the World Health Organization surgical checklist and a new Swedish Knee Arthroplasty Register (SKAR) reporting form, which included the time for administration of

preoperative antibiotics, the number of patients receiving appropriately-timed doses of preoperative antibiotics increased to 69% in 2009 and 79% in 2010.¹⁴

Question 2: Is there an optimal antibiotic that should be administered for routine perioperative surgical prophylaxis?

Consensus: A first or second-generation cephalosporin (cefazolin or cefuroxime) should be administered for routine perioperative surgical prophylaxis. Isoxazolyl penicillin is used as an appropriate alternative.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 89%, Disagree: 8%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: A first or second generation cephalosporin should be administered for routine perioperative surgical prophylaxis because of its broad spectrum of action, cost-effectiveness, and the need to preserve newer and more expensive therapies for drug-resistant microorganisms and emerging pathogens. These antibiotics cover gram-positive organisms and clinically important aerobic gram-negative bacilli and anaerobic gram positive organism.⁶ Additionally, they have excellent distribution profiles in bone, synovium, muscle, and hematomas.¹⁵ Many studies have documented that minimum bactericidal concentrations for most non methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) organisms are achieved rapidly in these tissues-ie within minutes after their administration.^{16, 17} The optimal prophylactic antibiotic should be bactericidal (penicillin, cephalosporin, vancomycin, or aminoglycosides), not simply bacteriostatic (clindamycin, which is a lincosamide). The agent should also have a half-life that covers the decisive interval (the first 2 hours after incision or contamination) with therapeutic concentrations from time of incision to wound closure. Failure to maintain tissue concentrations above the MIC increases the risk of wound infection.¹⁸ In Scandinavia and elsewhere, isoxazolyl penicillin, such as cloxacillin, flucloxacillin, nafcillin, or oxacillin is used as an appropriate alternative. Some institutions administer carbapenems (namely imipenem/cilastin and meropenem) to patients with penicillin allergy, as they felt that the potential for cross-reactivity between carbapenems and penicillin is less than traditionally believed.¹⁹

In a multicenter, placebo RCT, Hill et al. convincingly demonstrated the efficacy of cefazolin for antimicrobial prophylaxis in reducing the risk of PJI. In 2,137 THA patients randomized to either

5 days of cefazolin or placebo antibiotic prophylaxis reduced the incidence of deep infection from 3.3% to 0.9% ($p < 0.01$).²⁰

Tyllianakis et al. performed an RCT comparing cefuroxime to two specific antistaphylococcal agents (fusidic acid and vancomycin) for prophylaxis in THA and TKA in an institution where MRSA and methicillin-resistant *S. epidermidis* (MRSE) prevalence exceeded 25% of orthopaedic infections. In 435 patients (260 hips and 175 knees) followed for a minimum of 2 years, the authors found no statistically significant difference between the treatment groups for either THA or TKA, although the authors concede that the power to detect meaningful statistical differences between the groups was low and it was therefore difficult to provide any definitive conclusions.²¹

The efficacy of one day of cefuroxime vs. 3 days of cefazolin on postoperative wound infections was studied by Mauerhan et al. in a double-blind, multicenter trial of 1,354 patients undergoing hip and knee arthroplasty. The authors found no statistically significant difference between the two regimens. For the TKA patients, the rate of PJI was 0.6% (1/178) for those receiving cefuroxime vs 1.4% (3/207) for those receiving cefazolin. For the THA patients, the rate of PJI was 0.5% (1/187) for those receiving cefuroxime as compared to 1.2% (2/168) for those receiving cefazolin.²²

In a study investigating the bacterial colonization and resistance patterns of a cohort of patients undergoing primary joint arthroplasty in Sweden, Stefansdottir et al. noted that in Scandinavia, isoxazolympenicillin derivative cloxacillin is the most commonly used prophylactic antibiotic. Moreover, these β -lactams were effective against 99% of the *S. aureus* strains and 80% of the coagulase-negative *Staphylococcus* (CNS) strains colonizing patients undergoing primary TJA. Furthermore, the gentamicin-laden bone cement used in many of these cases covers against most of the additional CNS strains.²³

Question 3: What is the choice of antibiotic in patients who have pre-existing prostheses such as heart valves?

Consensus: The choice of antibiotics for patients with pre-existing prostheses such as heart valves, is the same as routine elective arthroplasty.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 94%, Disagree: 3%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Patients with preexisting prostheses such as heart valves are at risk for infective endocarditis due to bacteremia, which is relatively rare but can lead to catastrophic complications and death. Guidelines for the prevention of infective endocarditis have been published by the American Heart Association (AHA) for more than 50 years. The first 9 guidelines (published between 1955 and 1997) were based on low-level evidence; only more recently have the guidelines been stratified based on lifetime risk of infective endocarditis. Similar to the change in recommendations regarding dental prophylaxis for patients undergoing TJA, the 2007 antibiotic prophylaxis guidelines for infective endocarditis from the AHA and the Infectious Disease Society of America (IDSA) recommend antibiotic prophylaxis only for patients at the highest risk of infective endocarditis and only for selected dental procedures (eg those that involve manipulation of gingival tissue or the periapical region of teeth or perforation of the oral mucosa).²⁴

Infections that complicate heart valve replacement and prosthetic joint replacement have several features in common. *S. aureus* and *S. epidermidis* are common pathogens and infection rates are similar.²³⁻²⁵ It is generally accepted that antimicrobial prophylaxis reduces the frequency of early postoperative infections; however, when such infections do occur, they are difficult to control without removing the prosthesis. The antibiotics that are recommended for endocarditis prophylaxis are similar to that of prophylaxis against PJI. Similarly, if an infection is known or suspected to be caused by *S. aureus*, the antibiotic regimen should contain an antistaphylococcal penicillin or a cephalosporin; whereas vancomycin should be used in those in whom an infection is known or suspected to be caused by MRSA.²⁵

While there is literature to support the use of prophylactic antibiotics up to 48 hours postoperatively in cardiac surgery, this is to prevent deep and superficial sternal wound infection and is not relevant to our discussion of TJA surgery in a patient with a preexisting heart valve.²⁶²⁷ Interestingly, there have been some studies showing an increase in the routine use of vancomycin for routine valve surgery prophylaxis over the past years. Haydon et al. reviewed the national practice patterns for antibiotic prophylaxis in cardiac surgery in Australia and found that between 2004 and 2008, there was a doubling in the proportion of cardiac units using vancomycin for routine prophylaxis from 31% to 62% ($p < 0.001$).²⁸

Question 4: What alternatives are available for routine prophylaxis when cephalosporins are not an option?

Consensus: Currently teicoplanin and vancomycin are reasonable alternatives when routine antibiotic prophylaxis cannot be administered.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 73%, Disagree: 22%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Teicoplanin has proven to be an effective and safe prophylactic agent in prosthetic implant surgery in Europe, but is not yet available in the US, Canada, or China.²⁹⁻³² Due to the increased frequency of MRSA and MRSE infections in recent years, the prophylactic use of alternative antibiotics such as glycopeptides (vancomycin and teicoplanin) in hospitals where MRSA/MRSE are prevalent may be justified.³³ As vancomycin is more difficult to administer and has a shorter half-life and poorer tolerability profile than teicoplanin, the latter may be a better choice in these settings.³⁴ Teicoplanin is notable for having a long half-life (32-176 hours), low toxicity, and good tissue penetration, which allows it to achieve therapeutic concentrations in bone and surrounding soft tissues.^{33, 35}

Ceftaroline (fifth generation cephalosporin) has the same spectrum of activity as ceftriaxone with additional MRSA activity. The US Food and Drug Administration and the European Medicines Agency have provided indications for the use of ceftaroline for treatment of complicated skin and soft tissue infections only and not for prophylaxis.

In one multicenter RCT, Periti et al. compared administration of a single dose of teicoplanin (400mg intravenous (IV) bolus at time of anesthesia) versus that of 5 doses of cefazolin over a 24 hour period (2g at induction and 1g every 6 hours postoperatively) as prophylaxis in patients undergoing TJA. They randomized 846 patients and noted that 6 patients (1.5%) in the teicoplanin group and 7 patients (1.7%) in the cefazolin group developed a surgical wound infection during their hospital stay, which was a non-significant difference. Additionally, a non-significant difference in adverse events was recorded in the two groups, with 3 (0.7%) of the teicoplanin patients and 9 (2.1%) of the cefazolin patients.³²

Question 5A: What antibiotic should be administered in a patient with a known anaphylactic penicillin allergy?

Consensus: In a patient with a known anaphylactic reaction to penicillin, vancomycin or clindamycin should be administered as prophylaxis. Teicoplanin is an option in countries where it is available.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 88%, Disagree: 10%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Question 5B: What antibiotic should be administered in a patient with a known non-anaphylactic penicillin allergy?

Consensus: In a patient with a reported non-anaphylactic reaction to penicillin, a second-generation cephalosporin can be used safely as there is limited cross-reactivity. Penicillin skin testing may be helpful in certain situations to clarify whether the patient has a true penicillin allergy.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 87%, Disagree: 9%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: When patients present with a penicillin allergy, further information should be obtained to determine whether an Immunoglobulin E(IgE)-mediated response (anaphylaxis) occurred. In patients with a documented IgE-mediated response to penicillin, third and fourth generation cephalosporins can be used. First and second generation cephalosporins with R1 side chains similar to that of penicillin (cefactor, cefadroxil, cefatrizine, cefprozil, cephalixin, or cephadrine) should be avoided; first and second generation cephalosporins with different R1 side chains can be given.

Vancomycin and clindamycin are recommended as alternative agents for patients who have a true type I β -lactam allergy, manifested by immediate urticaria, laryngeal edema, or bronchospasm.³ Clindamycin is a preferred alternative for persons with an established β -lactam allergy or with contraindications to its use and at institutions with low rates of MRSA infection. Clindamycin has good bioavailability and at 30 minutes after infusion has been shown to exceed

the MICs for *S. aureus* in both animal and human cortical bone samples.³⁶ However, clindamycin is a bacteriostatic agent. In addition vancomycin alone has a relatively poor activity against *Staphylococcus aureus* and clinical studies implicate that vancomycin as prophylaxis alone increases the risk for SSI.

Therefore a second agent should be considered (levofloxacin, moxifloxacin) in addition to vancomycin.⁸

Cross-reactivity between penicillin and cephalosporin is overestimated and much lower than reported in earlier studies. The 10% estimate of risk of allergic reactions to cephalosporins in penicillin-allergic patients is based on data collected and reviewed in the 1960s and 1970s. It is due in large part to the widely referenced reviews of Dash and Petz, which reported allergic reactions in 7.7% and 8.1% respectively of penicillin-allergic patients (allergy was based on patient history) and only included first generation cephalosporins and second-generation cefamandole.^{37, 38} The high cross-reactivity found in earlier studies may be due in part to contamination of the study drugs with penicillin during the manufacturing process.^{39, 40}

Moreover, the authors of the early studies had a broader definition of allergy and did not account for the fact that penicillin-allergic patients have an increased risk of adverse reactions to any medication.^{41, 42} Skin testing in penicillin-allergic patients cannot reliably predict an allergic response to a cephalosporin, particularly to compounds with dissimilar side chains.⁴³ However, skin testing may be useful in determining whether a true allergy to penicillin exists.⁴⁴

Twenty-seven articles on the topic of the cross-reactivity of penicillin and cephalosporin were reviewed, of which 2 were meta-analyses, 12 were prospective cohorts, 3 were retrospective cohorts, 2 were surveys, and 9 were laboratory studies. The authors demonstrated that penicillin has a cross allergy with first generation cephalosporins (OR 4.8; CI 3.7-6.2) and a negligible cross-allergy with second generation cephalosporins (OR 1.1; CI 0.6-2.1). Moreover, laboratory and cohort studies indicate that the R1 side chain, not the β -lactam ring, is responsible for this cross-reactivity. The authors conclude that the overall cross-reactivity between penicillin and cephalosporin is lower than previously reported, at 10%, although there is a strong association between amoxicillin and ampicillin with first and second generation cephalosporins that share a similar R1 side chain. The overall cross-reactivity between penicillin and cephalosporin in individuals who report a penicillin allergy is approximately 1% and in those with a confirmed penicillin allergy 2.55%. For penicillin-allergic patients, the use of third or fourth generation cephalosporin or cephalosporins (such as cefuroxime and ceftriaxone) with dissimilar side chains than the offending penicillin carries a negligible risk of cross allergy.⁴⁵

A similar review of 44 articles on the evidence of cross-reactivity between cephalosporin and penicillin in human and animal studies supports the finding that cephalosporin can be safely prescribed to a patient with a non-life threatening reaction to penicillin (including type I anaphylaxis, Stevens-Johnson syndrome, toxic epidermal necrolysis, and angioedema).⁴⁶ The relative risk of an anaphylactic reaction to cephalosporin ranges from 1:1,000 to 1:1,000,000 and this risk is increased by a factor of 4 in patients with a history of penicillin allergy.⁴⁷

Based on an analysis of 9 articles that compare allergic reactions to a cephalosporin in penicillin-allergic and non-penicillin-allergic subjects, Pichichero et al. found that first generation cephalosporins have a cross-allergy with penicillin, but cross-allergy is negligible with second and third generation cephalosporins. Specifically, a significant increase in allergic reactions to cephalothin (OR 2.5, 95% CI 1.1-5.5), cephaloridine (OR 8.7, 95% CI 5.9-12.8), and cephalexin (OR 5.8, CI 3.6-9.2) and all first generation cephalosporins plus cefamandole (OR 4.8, CI 3.7-6.2) were observed in penicillin-allergic patients; no increase was observed with second generation cephalosporin (OR 1.1, CI 0.6-2.1) or third generation cephalosporin (OR 0.5, CI 0.2-1.1).^{41, 42}

In a retrospective cohort of 2,933 patients who received a cephalosporin (usually cefazolin) during their procedure, including 413 who were allergic to penicillin, only one of the penicillin-allergic patients may have had an allergic reaction to the cephalosporin; and one of the non-penicillin-allergic patients developed a rash while the antibiotic was infused, requiring discontinuation of the antibiotic.⁴⁸

In a large, retrospective review of 534,810 patients who received penicillin followed by a cephalosporin at least 60 days later, Apter et al. noted that a total of 3,877 patients had an allergic-like event (ALE) after penicillin administration, but only 43 (1.1%) experienced a second ALE after receiving cephalosporin (unadjusted risk ratio (RR) 10.0; 95% CI 7.4-13.6). Interestingly, in a separate analysis reviewing sulfonamide antibiotics, 1.6% of penicillin-sensitive patients experienced a second ALE after receiving a sulfonamide (7.2; 95% CI 3.8-12.5), suggesting that patients who are allergic to penicillin are at a higher likelihood of being allergic to other medications in general, not necessarily indicating that cross-reactivity had occurred.⁴⁹

Park et al. performed a retrospective cohort study to determine whether patients with a penicillin allergy were at an increased risk of adverse drug reactions when administered cephalosporin. Eighty-five patients with a history of penicillin allergy and positive penicillin skin test and 726

patients with a history of penicillin allergy and a negative penicillin skin test were administered a first generation cephalosporin. Five (6%) of 85 cases had an adverse drug reaction to cephalosporin compared to 5 (0.7%) of 726 of the control population ($p=0.0019$). The rate of presumed IgE-mediated adverse drug reactions to the cephalosporin among the cases was 2 (2%) of 85 compared to 1 (0.1%) of 726 among the reference population ($p=0.03$).⁵⁰

Question 6: What are the indications for administration of vancomycin?

Consensus: Vancomycin should be considered for patients who are current MRSA carriers or have anaphylactic allergy to penicillins.

Consideration should be given to screening high risk patients such as:

- Patients in regions with a high prevalence of MRSA
- Institutionalized patients (nursing home residents, dialysis- dependent patients, and those who have been in the intensive care unit)
- Healthcare workers.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 93%, Disagree: 7%, Abstain: 0% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: The AAOS recommendation for the use of IV antibiotic prophylaxis in primary TJA, recommendation 2, states that “vancomycin may be used in patients with known colonization with MRSA or in facilities with recent MRSA outbreaks.”⁵¹ Similarly, the consensus position of the Medicare National Surgical Infection Prevention Project’s SIPGWW meeting was that “for patients with known MRSA colonization, vancomycin should be considered the appropriate antimicrobial agent for prophylaxis.”⁶ Additionally, the Society for Healthcare Epidemiology of America recently recommended routine surveillance cultures at the time of hospital admission for patients at high risk for carriage of MRSA.⁵²

Question 7: Is there evidence to support the routine use of vancomycin for preoperative prophylaxis?

Consensus: No. Routine use of vancomycin for preoperative prophylaxis is not recommended.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 93%, Disagree: 6%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Current data suggest that the role of vancomycin in orthopaedic surgery prophylaxis should be limited. There is ample evidence that vancomycin is inferior against methicillin-sensitive strains of staphylococcal species when compared to cephalosporin and penicillinase-resistant penicillin.^{8, 53}

Several systematic analyses concluded that no clear benefit in clinical or cost effectiveness has been demonstrated for the routine use of vancomycin compared with cephalosporin for prophylaxis. However, most of these studies were conducted before the increasing prevalence of MRSA and may not accurately reflect the current environment. In some hospitals, community-associated MRSA (CA-MRSA) strains are now responsible for a significant portion of SSIs.^{54, 55} However, there is no consensus about what constitutes a high prevalence of methicillin resistance and no evidence that routine use of vancomycin for prophylaxis in institutions with perceived high risk of MRSA infection results in fewer SSIs than the use of a cephalosporin. Although two RCTs have been conducted in institutions with a high MRSA prevalence, the differences in SSI rates and outcomes were conflicting. Similarly, several studies have utilized decision analysis models to calculate MRSA prevalence thresholds for which vancomycin would have clinical benefit and be more cost-effective than cephalosporin for surgical prophylaxis. However, these studies all suffer from the same limitation, the lack of randomization to provide baseline probabilities for the clinical effectiveness of each treatment at different rates of MRSA prevalence.

While there is a growing body of evidence to support the routine use of vancomycin for preoperative prophylaxis, this should be tempered by the fact that there is an increasing threat of colonization and infection with vancomycin-resistant *enterococci* (VRE)⁵⁶ and an increased prevalence of MRSA strains with reduced susceptibility to vancomycin.^{57, 58}

The choice of drug prophylaxis should take into account the antibiotic resistance patterns in hospital systems. In a recent study by Fulkerson et al., the susceptibilities of *S. epidermidis* and

S. aureus to cefazolin at two high-volume academic centers in New York and Chicago were only 44% and 74%, respectively.⁵⁹ Of the most common organisms infecting patients undergoing TJA at these hospitals, 26% to 56% were resistant to the standard recommended prophylactic agent. Thirty-three of the 194 infections were diagnosed within a month after the surgery. Of these, 8 were due to *S. epidermidis* and 16 were due to *S. aureus*. Of these, only 2 of the 8 (25%) of the *S. epidermidis* infections and 11 of the 16 (69%) of the *S. aureus* infections were sensitive to cefazolin. However, these infections were 100% susceptible to vancomycin.

In a study of deep infections following hip and knee arthroplasty over a 15-year period at The Royal Orthopaedic Hospital and Queen Elizabeth Hospital in England, 22 of 75 hip and knee infections (29%) were caused by microorganisms that were resistant to the antibiotic used for prophylaxis (cefuroxime). These included all 3 MRSA infections, all 3 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* infections, and 11 coagulase-negative staphylococcus infections.^{60, 61} Wiesel and Esterhai recommend administration of vancomycin in institutions where the prevalence of MRSA is greater than 10% to 20%.⁶²

In a hospital with a high prevalence of MRSA, Merrer et al. conducted a prospective, observational study comparing the incidence of SSI after vancomycin or cefazolin prophylaxis before femoral neck fracture surgery, as well as the impact of antibiotic prophylaxis on the emergence of VRE and *Staphylococcus aureus*. The authors found no significant difference in the rate of SSI, as a total of 8 (3%) occurred, 4% in the cefazolin group and 2% in the vancomycin group (p=0.47). At one week after surgery, there were a total of 6 patients (2%) who had hospital-acquired MRSA, corresponding to 0.7% in the cefazolin group and 5% in the vancomycin group (p=0.04), none of which were resistant to glycopeptides. Additionally, 3 patients (1%) acquired VRE, all of which were in the cefazolin group (p=0.27).⁶³

Cranny et al. used a combination of systematic reviews and economic modeling in order to answer questions about whether there is a level of MRSA prevalence at which a switch from non-glycopeptide to glycopeptide antibiotics for routine prophylaxis is indicated in surgical environments with a high risk of MRSA infection. The effectiveness reviews identified 16 RCTs with a further 3 studies included for adverse events only. They found no evidence to support that glycopeptides are more effective than non-glycopeptides in preventing SSI. Most of the trials did not report either the baseline prevalence of MRSA at the participating surgical units or MRSA infections as an outcome. The cost-effectiveness review included 5 economic evaluations of glycopeptide prophylaxis. Only one study incorporated health-related quality of

life and undertook a cost-utility analysis. In conclusion, the authors indicate that there is currently insufficient evidence to determine whether there is a threshold prevalence of MRSA at which switching from non-glycopeptide to glycopeptide antibiotic prophylaxis might be cost effective.⁶⁴

Bolon et al. performed a meta-analysis of 7 RCTs published in the cardiothoracic surgery literature that compared SSIs in subjects receiving glycopeptide prophylaxis with those who received β -lactam prophylaxis. While neither agent proved to be superior for prevention of the primary outcome, occurrence of SSI at 30 days (RR 1.14, 95% CI 0.91-1.42), vancomycin prophylaxis was superior for the prevention of SSI caused by methicillin-resistant gram-positive bacteria (RR, 0.54; 95% CI 0.33-0.90) at 30 days after surgery.⁶⁵

The AAOS recommendations for the use of IV antibiotic prophylaxis in primary TJA, recommendation 2, states that “vancomycin may be used in patients with known colonization with MRSA or in facilities with recent MRSA outbreaks.”¹ The Hospital Infection Control Practices Advisory Committee guideline also suggests that a high frequency of MRSA infection at an institution should influence the use of vancomycin for prophylaxis but acknowledges that there is no consensus about what constitutes a high prevalence of methicillin resistance.⁶⁶

Two prospective RCTs have evaluated antibiotic prophylaxis in hospitals with a high prevalence of MRSA. Tacconnelli et al. randomized patients undergoing surgery for cerebrospinal shunt placement to receive either vancomycin or cefazolin. The prevalence of MRSA in 2001 for this 1700-bed university hospital was reported as one new case of MRSA infection per 100 hospital admissions. Shunt infections developed in 4% of patients receiving vancomycin (4/88) and 14% receiving cefazolin (12/88, RR, 0.22; 95% CI 0.11-0.99, p=0.03). The infecting pathogen was MRSA in 2 of 4 patients (50%) receiving vancomycin and 9 of 12 (75%) patients receiving cefazolin.⁶⁷ Finkelstein et al. randomized 855 patients undergoing cardiothoracic surgery to either a vancomycin or cefazolin group. The prevalence of new cases of MRSA infection in the cardiac surgery ward was reported to be 3.0 and 2.6 per 100 admissions in 1995 and 1996 respectively. The overall rates of SSI were similar in both groups (9.5% for vancomycin and 9.0% for cefazolin). A trend toward more methicillin-resistant gram-positive infections was observed in the cefazolin group (4.2% vs 2.0%; p=0.09), while more methicillin-sensitive staphylococcus infections were seen in patients receiving vancomycin (3.7% vs 1.3%; p=0.04).⁶⁸

Three other clinical studies have used pre- and post-intervention periods to assess the effect of switching to vancomycin for surgical prophylaxis in patients undergoing cardiothoracic or orthopaedic surgery. Garey et al. demonstrated that a change from cefuroxime to vancomycin prophylaxis decreased the average monthly SSI rate by 2.1 cases/100 coronary artery bypass graft (CABG) procedures when compared with patients undergoing cardiac valve replacement surgery. This was attributed to a lower rate of infections caused by MRSA and coagulase negative *Staphylococcus* (CNS) during this 4-year study of nearly 6,500 patients.⁶⁹ Similarly, Spelman et al. reported a decrease in SSI rates from 10.5% to 4.9% ($p < 0.001$) after switching the antibiotic prophylaxis regimen from cefazolin to vancomycin plus rifampin in 1,114 CABG procedures. This was attributed to a decrease in the incidence of MRSA infections from 67% during the one year pre-intervention period to 0% in the one year post-intervention period.⁷⁰ Smith et al. retrospectively reviewed total and MRSA PJI in 5,036 primary TJAs as well as the cure rate of PJI in a 2 year pre-intervention period when cefazolin was the antibiotic prophylaxis of choice to the 2 year post-intervention period when vancomycin was the antibiotic prophylaxis of choice. They found that with the use of vancomycin the total rate of PJI was significantly reduced (1.0% vs 0.5%, $p = 0.03$) and the rate of MRSA PJI was also reduced (0.23% vs 0.07%, $p = 0.14$). Furthermore, PJIs were more successfully treated with irrigation and debridement only, not requiring antibiotic spacers (76.9% vs 22.2%, $p = 0.002$).⁷¹

A study published on Australian Surveillance Data (Victorian Healthcare Associated Surveillance System VICNISS) of over 20,000 cardiac and arthroplasty procedures identified 1,610 cases in which vancomycin was administered as compared to 20,939 cases in which a β -lactam was used. The adjusted OR for an SSI with methicillin-sensitive *Staphylococcus aureus* (MSSA) was 2.79 (95% CI 1.6-4.9) when vancomycin prophylaxis was administered ($p < 0.001$), whereas the unadjusted OR for an SSI with MRSA was 0.44 (OR 0.19-1.004; $p = 0.05$).⁷²

Several recent studies have developed decision analysis models to determine the threshold of MRSA prevalence at which vancomycin would minimize the incidence and cost of SSI. For CABG surgery, the authors of two studies have recommended a MRSA prevalence threshold of 3% among infections caused by *S. aureus*.⁷³⁻⁷⁵ Miller et al. suggested that lower rates of MRSA prevalence (eg 3%-10%) were within the error of their model and that surgical prophylaxis with vancomycin would have a modest effect in reducing the incidence of SSI. For vascular surgery, a MRSA prevalence of 50% was suggested before a β -lactam agent is replaced with vancomycin for surgical prophylaxis.⁷⁶ The authors also suggested that an aminoglycoside should be added to the prophylactic regimen once the prevalence of MRSA reaches 10%, which

is in agreement with the recent guidelines from the British Society of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy.⁷⁷ Elliot et al. developed an economic model to explore the cost-effectiveness of vancomycin and/or cephalosporin for surgical prophylaxis in patients undergoing THA. Vancomycin was recommended when the rate of MRSA SSIs is $\leq 0.15\%$ and the rate of non-MRSA SSIs is $\geq 0.1\%$, or when the rate of MRSA infections is $\leq 0.2\%$ and the rate of other infections is $> 0.2\%$.⁷⁸ Each of these decision analysis studies noted that their biggest limitation was the lack of available evidence from RCTs, with a high prevalence of MRSA infections as one of the most important factors that influenced modeling assumptions.

Question 8: Is there a role for routine prophylactic use of dual antibiotics (cephalosporins and aminoglycosides or cephalosporins and vancomycin)?

Consensus: Routine prophylactic use of dual antibiotics is not recommended.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 85%, Disagree: 14%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Clinical studies have used pre- and post-intervention periods to assess the effect of switching to vancomycin for surgical prophylaxis in patients undergoing cardiothoracic surgery. Walsh et al. implemented a comprehensive MRSA bundle program in which vancomycin was added to the routine cefazolin prophylaxis regimen for patients who tested positive for nasal MRSA carriage. Other components of the program included decolonization of all cardiothoracic staff who screened positive for nasal MRSA, application of nasal mupirocin ointment for 5 days in all patients starting one day before surgery, application of topical mupirocin to exit sites after removal of chest and mediastinal tubes, and rescreening of patients for MRSA colonization at the time of hospital discharge. This program resulted in a significant reduction in the SSI rate (2.1% to 0.8%, $p < 0.001$) as well as a 93% reduction in postoperative MRSA wound infections (from 32 infections/2,767 procedures during the 3-year pre-intervention period to 2 infections/2,496 procedures during the 3-year post-intervention period).⁷⁹

Dhadwal et al. conducted a double-blind RCT to compare the efficacy of a 48 hour, weight-based dosing of vancomycin plus gentamicin and rifampin versus a 24 hour cefuroxime regimen for antibiotic prophylaxis of sternal wound infections in a high-risk group of patients undergoing

CABG surgery. The infection rates significantly decreased from 23.6% (25/106) in the cefuroxime group to 8.4% (8/95) in the combination vancomycin group ($p=0.004$).⁸⁰ Patrick et al. conducted an RCT to compare cefazolin and combinations of cefazolin and either vancomycin or daptomycin in 181 low-risk patients undergoing vascular surgery. Only 6 postoperative MRSA infections were reported (2 in the cefazolin group, 4 in the vancomycin plus cefazolin group, and 0 in the daptomycin plus cefazolin group), making the interpretation of the differences between antibiotic regimens difficult.⁸¹

Sewick et al. retrospectively reviewed 1,828 primary TJAs that received either a dual antibiotic regimen of cefazolin and vancomycin or received cefazolin alone in order to determine the rate of SSI as well as the microbiology of subsequent SSI. There was a total of 22 SSIs (1.2%) with no significant difference in the infection rate between the dual antibiotic prophylaxis group compared to the single antibiotic regimen (1.1% and 1.4% respectively, $p=0.636$), while the prevalence of subsequent MRSA infection was significantly lower (0.002% vs 0.08%, $p=0.02$).⁸² Ritter et al. administered a single prophylactic dose of vancomycin and gentamicin in a cohort of 201 consecutive TJA patients and documented bactericidal blood concentrations during and for 24 hours after surgery with no postoperative infections.⁸³

Elliot et al. developed an economic model to explore the cost effectiveness of vancomycin and/or cephalosporin for surgical prophylaxis in patients undergoing THA. Combination therapy (such as vancomycin plus a cephalosporin) was recommended when the rate of MRSA SSIs is $\geq 0.25\%$ and the rate of non-MRSA SSIs is $\geq 0.2\%$.⁷⁸

Thus, based on the available literature, this workgroup feels that dual antibiotics may be utilized to allow broad coverage in institutions or regions where there is a high rate of MRSA infection for which prophylactic vancomycin use is deemed appropriate under question 6 above.

Question 9: What should be the antibiotic of choice for patients with abnormal urinary screening and/or an indwelling urinary catheter?

Consensus: The presence of urinary tract symptoms should trigger urinary screening prior to TJA. Asymptomatic patients with bacteriuria may safely undergo TJA provided that routine

prophylactic antibiotics are administered. Patients with acute UTI need to be treated prior to elective arthroplasty

Delegate Vote: Agree: 82%, Disagree: 12%, Abstain: 6% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There is sparse literature on the risk of deep joint infection in patients with abnormal perioperative urinalysis. While several case reports in the 1970s linked postoperative UTIs to PJI,^{84, 85} the literature supporting the correlation between preoperative UTIs and PJI following TJA is inadequate.⁸⁶ Only 3 studies have directly addressed the relationship between preoperative bacteriuria and PJI following TJA, none of which observed a positive correlation.⁸⁷⁻⁸⁹ To our knowledge there are no studies of patients with symptomatic UTI undergoing TJA with routine perioperative prophylactic antibiotics. There is no evidence either in support of or against proceeding with surgery in this cohort of patients.

The presence of UTI symptoms should serve as a preliminary screening tool for surgical clearance of the TJA candidate. Symptoms can then be classified as either irritative or obstructive. Irritative symptoms (such as dysuria, urgency, or frequency) may or may not be related to bacteriuria and a noncentrifuged clean catch midstream urine sample should be evaluated for white blood cells (WBCs) in these patients. In patients with $>10^4$ WBC/mL, a bacterial count and culture should be obtained and in patients with >4 WBC/high power field (HPF) and bacterial count $>10^3$ /mL, surgery should be postponed until an appropriate course of microbe-specific antibiotics is administered and repeat urinalysis is obtained. On the other hand, asymptomatic patients with bacteriuria may safely undergo TJA provided routine prophylactic antibiotics are administered. Patients with obstructive symptoms should undergo urologic evaluation before arthroplasty, as postoperative urinary retention has been shown to be a risk factor for PJI.^{86, 90, 91}

In a prospective, multicenter study of 362 knee and 2,651 hip arthroplasty cases, the authors reported a deep joint infection rate of 2.5% for knee and 0.64% for hip cases at one year follow-up. While univariate analysis showed no association between deep joint infection and preoperative UTI ($>10^5$ CFU/mL), multivariate regression analysis indicated that postoperative UTI increased the risk of hip PJI.⁸⁸

Of 1,934 surgical cases (1,291 orthopaedic surgeries) performed at a Veterans Administration hospital, a preoperative urine culture was obtained in 25% (489) of cases. Of these, bacteriuria

was detected in 54 (11%) patients, of which only 16 received antimicrobial drugs. The incidence of SSI was similar between those with bacteriuria and those without (20% vs 16%, $p=0.56$), while the rate of postoperative UTI was more frequent among patients with bacteriuria than those without (9% vs 2%, $p=0.01$). Among the 54 patients with a positive urinary culture, treated and untreated patients were compared. Unexpectedly, a greater proportion of treated patients developed an SSI (45% vs 14%, $p=0.03$). This effect was greatest among patients with high count bacteriuria ($>10^5$ CFU/mL), with SSI occurring in 4 of 8 (50%) of treated vs 1 of 15 (7%) of untreated ($p=0.03$). These results led the authors to conclude that in this system preoperative urinary cultures were inconsistently ordered and that when they were, they were rarely positive for bacteriuria. Even when bacteriuria was detected, it was usually not treated. The authors noted that treating bacteriuria associated with SSI is likely confounded by factors that contributed to the initial decision to administer antimicrobials in the first place.⁹²

A retrospective study of 274 THAs found that 5 patients with PJI had perioperative UTIs. However, the same organism was isolated from the urinary tract and hip in only 3 patients. Of these, only one had a documented preoperative urinalysis.⁹³ A retrospective analysis of 277 patients (364 TJAs) showed that 35 patients had evidence of preoperative or perioperative UTI with colony counts greater than 10^5 CFU/mL on preoperative clean-catch urine specimens. Only 3 patients (1.1%) developed joint infections at 9, 19, and 45 months respectively, and none was thought to be due to perioperative UTI.⁸⁷ Another retrospective analysis found 57 (55 asymptomatic, 2 symptomatic) of 299 arthroplasty patients had bacteriuria on admission. Twenty of the 57 patients went to surgery before the routine culture results were available, but postoperatively received appropriate antibiotics for treatment of the UTI. Another 18 patients underwent surgery during their treatment course for preoperatively-diagnosed UTI, while the other 19 patients completed an appropriate antibiotic course prior to surgery. None of the patients developed a PJI, which led the authors to conclude that a treatment course of antibiotics can be implemented at any time perioperatively once culture data are obtained.⁸⁹

The incidence of bacteriuria rises from 0.5% to 1% for a single in-and-out catheterization, 10% to 30% for catheters in place for up to 4 days, and up to 95% for catheters in place for 30 days or more.^{94, 95}

Question 10: Should the preoperative antibiotic choice be different in patients who have previously been treated for another joint infection?

Consensus: The type of preoperative antibiotic administered to a patient with prior septic arthritis or PJI should cover the previous infecting organism of the same joint. In these patients, we recommend the use of antibiotic-impregnated cement, if a cemented component is utilized.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 84%, Disagree: 10%, Abstain: 6% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There is no evidence that septic arthritis or a PJI can be completely cured. Jerry et al. conducted a study of 65 patients who underwent TKA and had a history of prior sepsis or osteomyelitis around the knee. They reported rates of deep PJI of 4% and 15% respectively.⁹⁶

Lee et al. studied a consecutive series of 20 primary TKAs in 19 patients with a history of prior septic arthritis or osteomyelitis around the knee. They performed a preoperative workup to evaluate for infection that included serologies and plain radiographs in all patients, while 8 patients additionally had tagged WBC scans and 7 patients had a knee aspiration. Intraoperatively, frozen section for evidence of acute inflammation was used to guide decisions on whether the procedure was done as a single or staged procedure. All TKA components were implanted with antibiotic cement containing 1g of vancomycin and 1.2g of tobramycin/batch of Simplex bone cement. Of the 17 patients with a minimum of 2 years follow-up, only one developed a PJI approximately 3.5 years from the index arthroplasty. Of note, this was one of the two patients that had been treated in a staged manner and additionally had immunosuppressive comorbidities, including rheumatoid arthritis, insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus, and taking daily doses of prednisone.⁹⁷

Larson et al. performed a retrospective matched case control study to review the clinical results of 19 patients who underwent TKA after infected tibial plateau fractures, comparing them to 19 control subjects matched for age, gender, and arthroplasty year, who underwent TKAs for tibial plateau fractures without a history of infection. Of the 19 case patients, 13 underwent one-stage TKA, while the remainder underwent a staged TKA with either an antibiotic spacer or debridement and intravenous antibiotic therapy. Antibiotic cement was used in the majority of patients. Previously infected knees were 4.1 times more likely to require additional procedures for complications compared with knees with no previous infection (95% CI 1.2-18.3, p=0.02). The 5 year infection-free survival was 73%±10% in the case group compared with 100% in the control group (p=0.023). The authors recommended that in patients at high risk less than one

year since active evidence of infection, a two-stage TKA be performed, with antibiotic therapy and a 4 to 6 week delay between procedures.⁹⁸

Question 11: Should postoperative antibiotics be continued while a urinary catheter or surgical drain remains in place?

Consensus: No. There is no evidence to support the support the continued use of postoperative antibiotics when urinary catheter or surgical drains are in place. Urinary catheters and surgical drains should be removed as soon as safely possible.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 90%, Disagree: 7%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Short-term use of an indwelling catheter after surgery reduces the incidence of urinary retention and bladder over-distension without increasing the rate of UTI and is therefore common practice in many hospitals.⁹⁹ However, it has been shown that there is an increased risk of UTIs when a catheter is employed for more than 48 hours.^{100, 101} Urinary retention as well as catheterization can both lead to bacteriuria,¹⁰¹⁻¹⁰³ which increases the risk of deep PJI from 3 to 6 times.^{87, 88, 104, 105}

Literature in the field of surgical oncology demonstrates that bacterial colonization of surgical drains used in breast and axillary procedures is a significant risk factor for the development of SSI and the microorganisms that caused SSIs were the same as those that colonized the drainage tube in 83% of cases.¹⁰⁶ Other studies have demonstrated that there is an association between longer duration of drain use and increased incidence of SSI.¹⁰⁷

The AAOS recommendations for the use of IV antibiotic prophylaxis in primary TJA, recommendation 3, states that the “duration of prophylactic antibiotic administration should not exceed the 24 hour postoperative period. Prophylactic antibiotics should be discontinued within 24 hrs of the end of surgery. The medical literature does not support the continuation of antibiotics until all drains or catheters are removed and provides no evidence of benefit when they are continued past 24 hours.”²

Colonization of drains by skin organisms can certainly occur, but in only 10% of cases with positive drain tip culture does overt infection develop.¹⁰⁸ Michelson et al. conducted an RCT of

100 TJA patients using two methods of bladder management: short term (<24 hour) indwelling catheters and intermittent catheterization. All patients received the same perioperative cefazolin prophylaxis. The authors reported a lower incidence of urinary retention in the indwelling catheter group (27% vs 52%, $p<0.01$) and a lower rate of bladder distension (7% vs 45%; $p<0.01$). Moreover, patients who had an indwelling catheter for more than 48 hours had a significantly higher rate of bladder infection (35%) than patients who were straight catheterized and/or who had an indwelling catheter for fewer than 48 hours (6%, $p<0.01$).⁹⁹

Van den Brand et al. performed a prospective RCT to determine whether an indwelling catheter for 48 hours or intermittent catheterization leads to less postoperative bacteriuria or a UTI with a single dose of cefazolin prophylaxis in primary hip and knee arthroplasties. In their protocol, patients received 48 hours of IV prophylactic cefazolin during the postoperative period. Patients who had an indwelling catheter in place after the IV antibiotics were completed were treated with oral antibiotic prophylaxis (nitrofurantoin) until catheter removal. Of the 99 patients who completed the study, 14 patients (5 men, 9 women) developed postoperative bacteriuria. The indwelling catheter group had a bacteriuria rate of 24% (11/46) compared with 6% (3/53) in the intermittent catheterization group ($p=0.018$).¹⁰⁹

Similar findings were reported by Oishi et al., who reviewed 95 consecutive patients who had been managed with either an indwelling catheter (72 hours) or intermittent catheterization. Patients who were treated with an indwelling catheter had significantly lower incidences of urinary retention (7% vs 84% respectively; $p<0.005$) and bladder distension (7% vs 41%; $p<0.005$) than those who were treated with straight catheterization. While not statistically significant, though no patient in the indwelling catheter group developed infection, in the intermittent catheterization group one patient (2%) had bacteriuria and one patient (2%) had a UTI ($p>0.1$).¹¹⁰

Koulouvaris et al. performed a retrospective case control study to determine whether a treated preoperative or postoperative UTI or asymptomatic bacteriuria increases the risk of deep PJI and whether the organisms are the same for the UTI and PJI. The authors matched 58 patients who had wound infections with 58 patients who did not develop wound infection based on age, gender, surgeon, joint, year of surgery, and length of follow-up. The authors found no association between preoperative UTI and wound infection (OR 0.34; 95% CI 0.086-1.357, $p=0.13$), and no association between postoperative UTI and wound infection (OR 4.22; 95% CI

0.46-38.9, p=0.20). Only one patient had the same bacteria (*E. faecalis*) cultured in the urine and the wound.¹¹¹

In a survey of the members of the American Society of Breast Surgeons regarding the use of perioperative antibiotics for breast operations requiring drains, respondents continued antibiotic prophylaxis for 2-7 days or until all drains were removed (38% and 39% respectively) in cases without reconstruction, while in reconstruction cases 33% of respondents continued antibiotic prophylaxis for 2-7 days or until all drains were removed.¹¹² A similar study surveying the American and Canadian societies of Plastic Surgeons regarding drain use and perioperative antibiotic prophylaxis in cases of breast reconstruction found that 72% of plastic surgeons prescribed postoperative outpatient antibiotics in reconstruction patients with drains, with 46% continuing antibiotics until drains were removed.¹¹³

Question 12: What is the evidence for the optimal duration of postoperative antibiotics in decreasing SSI or PJI?

Consensus: Postoperative antibiotics should not be administered for greater than 24 hours after surgery.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 87%, Disagree: 10%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Many studies across surgical specialties have been performed to compare durations of antibiotic prophylaxis and the overwhelming majority have not shown any benefit in antibiotic use for more than 24 hours in clean elective cases.¹¹⁴⁻¹¹⁶ Prolonged postoperative prophylaxis should be discouraged because of the possibility of added antimicrobial toxicity, selection of resistant organisms, and unnecessary expense.²⁴

The AAOS recommendations for the use of IV antibiotic prophylaxis in primary TJA, recommendation 3, states that “duration of prophylactic antibiotic administration should not exceed the 24 hour postoperative period. Prophylactic antibiotics should be discontinued within 24 hours of surgery.”¹

Mcdonald et al. performed a systematic review across surgical disciplines to determine the overall efficacy of single versus multiple dose antimicrobial prophylaxis for major surgery. They included only prospective RCTs which used the same antimicrobial in each treatment arm whose results were published in English. Regardless of fixed models (OR 1.06, 95% CI 0.89-1.25) or random effects (OR 1.04; 95% CI 0.86-1.25), there was no significant advantage of either single or multiple dose regimens in preventing SSI. Furthermore, subgroup analysis showed no significant differences in the type of antibiotic used, length of the multiple dose arm (>24 hr vs ≤24 hr), or type of surgery (obstetric-gynecological vs other).¹¹⁷

Mauerhan compared the efficacy of a one-day regimen of cefuroxime with a 3-day regimen of cefazolin in a prospective, double-blinded, multicenter study of 1,354 patients treated with arthroplasty and concluded that there was no significant difference in the prevalence of wound infections between the two groups. In the group treated with primary THA, the prevalence of deep wound infection was 0.5% (1/187) for those treated with cefuroxime compared with 1.2% (2/168) for those who had received cefazolin. In the group treated with a primary TKA, the rate of deep wound infection was 0.6% (1/178) for those treated with cefuroxime compared with 1.4% (3/207) for those who had received cefazolin.²²

Heydemann and Nelson, in a study of hip and knee arthroplasty procedures, initially compared a 24-hour regimen of either nafcillin or cefazolin with a 7-day regimen of the same and found no difference in the prevalence of infection. They then compared a single preoperative dose with a 48-hour regimen and again found no difference in infection prevalence. A total of 466 procedures were performed during the 4-year study. No deep infections developed in either the one-dose or 48-hour antibiotic protocol group. A deep infection developed in one (0.8%) of the 127 patients in the 24-hour protocol group and in two (1.6%) of the 128 patients in the 7-day protocol group for an overall infection rate of 0.6% (3/466). The authors recognized that as a result of the small sample sizes, the study lacked the power to compare the one dose and the more than one dose categories.¹¹⁸

Stone et al. performed two separate prospective, placebo RCTs of variable-duration antibiotic prophylaxis in patients undergoing elective gastric, biliary, or colonic surgery and then in patients undergoing emergency laparotomy and found that in both cases no significant difference was seen in the rate of SSI. Specifically, in a prospective RCT of 220 patients undergoing elective general surgery who were randomized to either perioperative cefamandole plus 5 days of placebo or perioperative plus 5 postoperative days of cefamandole, there was no

significant difference in the rate of wound infection (6 and 5% respectively). In the second prospective RCT of patients undergoing emergent laparotomy in which cephalothin was utilized perioperatively, there was no significant difference in the rate of peritoneal infection between those who received perioperative therapy only (8 and 4% respectively) compared to those who had 5 to 7 days of additional postoperative therapy (10 and 5% respectively).¹¹⁹

In a retrospective review of 1,341 TJAs, Williams and Gustilo found no difference in deep infection rates between a 3-day and 1-day course of prophylactic antibiotics, but emphasized the importance of the preoperative dose, which was 2g of cefazolin.¹²⁰

Clinical studies have used pre- and post-intervention periods to assess the effect of antibiotic duration for surgical prophylaxis. One institution launched a surgical wound infection surveillance program to monitor all orthopaedic surgeries and changed the prophylactic antibiotic regimen from intravenous cefuroxime (one preoperative and 2 postoperative doses every 8 hours) to one single preoperative dose of intravenous cefazolin for all clean orthopaedic surgeries. The authors of this study found no significant difference in the superficial and deep wound infection rates in 1,367 primary arthroplasties performed with a single preoperative dose of cefazolin versus 3 doses of cefuroxime. The deep wound infection rate for THA was 1.1% (95% CI, 0%-3.3%) in the cefuroxime group and 1.1% (95% CI, 0%-2.2%) in the cefazolin group ($p=1.0$). The deep wound infection rate of TKA was 1.6% (95% CI, 0%-3.8%) in the cefuroxime group and 1.0% (95% CI, 0.3%-1.7%) in the cefazolin group ($p=0.63$).¹²¹

Question 13: Until culture results are finalized, what antibiotic should be administered to a patient with a presumed infection?

Consensus: In a patient with a presumed infection when culture results are pending, empiric antibiotic coverage should depend on the local microbiological epidemiology. Culture data should assist in the tailoring of antibiotic regimens.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 96%, Disagree: 1%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Guidelines based on individual institutional microbiological epidemiology should be developed.¹²⁴ In the US, vancomycin is recommended for gram-positive coverage due to a high rate of resistance to methicillin in many cases and gentamicin or a third or fourth

generation cephalosporin is recommended for gram-negative coverage. However, in areas with low MRSA prevalence, vancomycin should not be recommended as the first choice of drug until culture results are obtained and other antibiotics should be chosen instead.

Sharma et al. classified the spectrum and antibiotic susceptibility of bacteria isolated from revision hip and knee arthroplasty specimens in order to recommend appropriate empiric perioperative antibiotics before definitive cultures are obtained. They identified 147 patients with positive specimens, yielding 248 microorganisms from 195 tissue specimens, 43 fluid specimens, and 10 swabs. Of the 248 isolated microorganisms, *staphylococcus* species was the most common genus encountered (53%), followed by gram-negative isolates (24%). Eighty-eight percent of gram-negative organisms were detected within 48 hours of inoculation and 94% of gram-positive organisms within 96 hours. Overall, 46% of isolates were susceptible to cephalothin, while only 35% of CNS were sensitive to cephalothin. No gram-positive vancomycin resistance was encountered. Therefore the authors concluded that empiric prophylactic antibiotics for revision hip and knee arthroplasty should include vancomycin for gram-positive organisms and gentamicin for gram-negative bacteria; and if infection is suspected, vancomycin and gentamicin should be continued postoperatively for 96 and 48 hours respectively, unless culture or histology results suggest otherwise.¹²²

Knee: In a retrospective review of 121 patients who underwent revision TKA for infection between 1994 and 2008 in the United Kingdom, the most common organism was CNS (49%) and *S. aureus* (13%). The prevalence of CNS appears to be increasing, while that of *S. aureus* and other organisms is decreasing. Vancomycin and teicoplanin were the most effective antibiotics, with overall sensitivity rates of 100% and 96% respectively. Also, the authors reported that based on their theoretical model of comparing microorganism sensitivities against specific antibiotics, gentamicin combined with vancomycin or teicoplanin is the most effective empirical regimen. While the authors recognized the potential serious nephrotoxic side effects, these antibiotics may be added to bone cement relatively safely. The authors also suggested that this empirical regimen can potentially allow for a one-stage revision procedure to be conducted when deep infection arises.¹²³

In early, delayed, and late infections observed from data from the SKAR from 1986-2000 in 426 surgically revised cases, CNS was most prevalent (105/299, 35.1%) and twice as common as *S. aureus* (55/299, 18.4%). In hematogenous infections, *S. aureus* was the dominating pathogen (67/99, 67.7%), followed by streptococci and gram-negative bacteria. Methicillin

resistance was found in 1/84 tested isolates of *S. aureus* and 62/100 tested isolates of CNS. During the study period of 1986-2000, methicillin resistance among CNS increased ($p=0.002$). Gentamicin resistance was found in 1/28 tested isolates of *S. aureus* and 19/29 tested CNS isolates. Therefore, the authors conclude that empiric antibiotics should cover CNS, as most early infections were caused by this organism. They also raised the concern that due to high rate of gentamicin resistance among CNS in infected TKA, other antibiotics should be used in bone cement at revision.²³

Data from the SKAR have previously been used to report on the microbiology of 357 TKA infections in patients operated on before the year 1986. *S. aureus* was the most common pathogen (45.4%) followed by CNS (18%).¹²⁴ In later studies, staphylococci continued to be the most common pathogens, with *S. aureus* reported to account for 13%-51% of the infections and CNS accounting for 15%-49%.^{123, 125, 126}

Hip: Rafiq et al. retrospectively reviewed the microbiology of 337 one-stage revision hip replacements for deep infection and found that CNS was the predominant organism (67%) and that *Staphylococcus* (13%) is becoming more prevalent. The authors also noted an increase in antimicrobial resistance (24% resistance to gentamicin), which lead the authors to suggest that other antibiotics such as erythromycin or fusidic acid be added to bone cement during these procedures.¹²⁷

In a study examining the microbiology of contaminating bacteria during primary THA, Al-maiyah et al. cultured the gloved hands ($n=627$ impressions) of the surgical team in 50 THA cases after draping, at 20 minute intervals, and then before cementation. They found contamination present in 57 (9%) of impressions and a total of 106 bacterial isolates, with CNS being the most frequent (68.9%), micrococcus (12.3%) and diptheroids (9.4%) following, and *S. aureus* only representing 6.6% of cases. Interestingly, only half (52%) of the CNS isolates were sensitive to cefuroxime, the institutional prophylactic agent of choice, suggesting alternate agents may be indicated.¹²⁸

Phillips et al. reviewed the microbiology of deep infection following hip and knee arthroplasty at a specialist orthopaedic hospital in the United Kingdom over a 15 year period. At their institution, CNS was the most common infecting organism (36%), followed by *S. aureus* (25%), *enterococcus* (9%), and MRSA (4%). Of the infecting organisms, 72% were sensitive to routine

prophylactic agents. There was no significant change in microbiology over that time period at this institution.¹²⁹

Timing of Infection: A retrospective analysis of 146 patients who had a total of 194 positive cultures obtained at time of revision total hip or knee arthroplasty was performed. Seventy percent of the infections were classified as chronic, 17% as acute postoperative, and 13% as acute hematogenous. Gram-positive organisms caused the majority of the infections (87% or 168/194). The microorganisms were sensitive to cefazolin in 61% of cases, gentamicin in 88% of cases, and vancomycin in 96% of cases. The most antibiotic-resistant bacterial strains were from patients for whom prior antibiotic treatment had failed. Acute postoperative infections had a greater resistance profile than did chronic or hematogenous infections. Bacteria isolated from a hematogenous infection had a high sensitivity to both cefazolin and gentamicin. This led to the following recommendations:

- Until final cultures are available, acute hematogenous infections should be treated with cefazolin and gentamicin.
- All chronic and acute postoperative infections with gram-positive bacteria and all cases in which a gram stain fails to identify bacteria should be managed with vancomycin.
- Infections with gram-negative bacteria should be managed with third or fourth generation cephalosporin.
- Infections with mixed gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria should be managed with a combination of vancomycin and third or fourth generation cephalosporin.
- As 93% (180) of the 194 cultures tested positive by the fourth postoperative day, the authors recommend that if culture results are not positive by the fourth postoperative day, termination of empiric antibiotic therapy should be considered.⁵⁹

In a retrospective review of 97 patients (106 infections in 98 hips), Tsukayama et al. noted that aerobic gram-positive cocci accounted for 109 (74%) of the 147 isolates; gram-negative bacilli, 21 (14%); and anaerobes, 12 (8%). Of the CNS species 27 (48%) were oxacillin-resistant, while all 33 (100%) of the coagulase-positive staph species were sensitive to oxacillin. The authors noted that most of the gram-negative isolates came from the early postoperative and late chronic infections, while isolates from the acute hematogenous infections were exclusively gram-positive cocci.¹³⁰

Irrigation and Debridement (I&D): A retrospective review was conducted to describe the microbiological spectrum of PJI in 112 patients managed with I&D or arthroscopic washout of infected prosthetic joints between 1998 and 2003 in order to guide the choice of empirical antibiotics. Overall, the most frequently isolated organisms were CNS (47%) and MSSA (44%), while 8% were MRSA and 7% were anaerobes. In their series, 60% of CNS isolates were resistant to methicillin. Most gram-negative isolates were resistant to cefuroxime and all were sensitive to meropenem. Based on the high rate of early polymicrobial infection, cephalosporin resistance among gram-negative organisms, β -lactamase resistance among gram-negative organisms, and β -lactam resistance among CNS, the authors recommend glycopeptides with a carbapenem in the initial regimen, with modification when culture and sensitivity results are available.¹³¹

Question 14: What is the appropriate preoperative antibiotic for a second-stage procedure?

Consensus: The appropriate preoperative antibiotic for the second stage should include coverage of the prior organism(s). Cemented arthroplasty components should be inserted with antibiotic-laden bone cement.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 66%, Disagree: 31%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Patients undergoing reimplantation surgery following a two-stage exchange procedure are at risk of developing recurrent infection.^{132, 133} The recurrent infection may be either due to incomplete eradication of the prior bacteria during the antibiotic spacer exchange or to a new infection. In order to properly address both potential scenarios, the appropriate preoperative antibiotics should include coverage of the prior organism as well as the most common infecting microorganisms.

Antibiotic-laden bone cement has been shown to decrease septic failure following TJA in high-risk individuals and it is US Food and Drug Administration-approved for use during reimplantation of components in a two-stage exchange. While there is no evidence to support

the practice, it makes theoretical sense to add antibiotics that are effective in treating the index infection.

In a systematic review of 31 studies that compared the clinical outcomes achieved with one- and two-stage revision TKA with different types of spacers, the authors noted that after the index revision for infection, deep joint infection was detected in 0%-31% of cases. Of these, the infection was considered recurrent in 0%-18% of cases, while new infection rates varied from 0 to 31%. While the length of follow-up did not appear to influence the rate of recurrent infections, the studies with <4 years of clinical follow-up had fewer new infections.¹³⁴

Azzam et al. retrospectively reviewed 33 patients who had failed an initial two-stage exchange arthroplasty, of whom 18 eventually went on to undergo a second two-stage procedure. Of this cohort, the isolated organism was different from the previous infecting organism in only one of 18 patients.¹³²

In a similar study, Kalra et al. retrospectively reviewed 11 patients who developed reinfection after two-stage revision for infected THA and were subsequently treated with a two-stage re-revision. In their series, the infecting microorganisms were polymicrobial in 3 patients and only 2 had reinfection by the initial offending microbe.¹³³

In a review of the outcomes of 69 patients with PJI in TKA, Mont et al. determined that in 8 of 9 cases reinfections were from the organism that had caused the initial infection, although in 6 of the 8 patients the sensitivity of the organism to antibiotics had changed.¹²⁶

Kubista et al. published results on 368 patients treated with a two-stage revision for infected TKA. Of this cohort, 58 (15.8%) developed reinfection and a causative organism was identified in 47/58 (81%) of patients.¹³⁵

In a retrospective review of 117 patients who underwent two-stage exchange arthroplasty for PJI of the knee, 33 of 117 patients (28%) required reoperation for infection. At the time of reimplantation, antibiotic-laden bone cement (1.2g tobramycin and 1g vancomycin per 40g of cement) was used for fixation of the prosthesis, but there was no note of the parenteral or perioperative antibiotics utilized at the second stage.¹³⁶

Question 15: For surgeries of longer duration, when should an additional dose of antibiotic be administered intraoperatively?

Consensus: An additional dose of antibiotic should be administered intraoperatively after two half-lives of the prophylactic agent. The general guidelines for frequency of intraoperative antibiotic administration are provided. We recommend that re-dosing of antibiotics be considered in cases of large blood volume loss (>2000 cc) and fluid resuscitation (>2000cc). As these are independent variables, re-dosing should be considered as soon as the first of these parameters are met.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 94%, Disagree: 5%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: In cases of large blood volume loss and fluid resuscitation there is a remarkable loss of the prophylactic agent that can result in levels below the MIC. The same is true for longer surgeries that extend beyond the half-life of the agent. Thus, additional antibiotic treatment is needed to re-establish antibiotic levels that exceed the MIC. An additional dose of antibiotic has been shown to reduce SSI rates in cardiac patients and should be administered intraoperatively after two half-lives of the prophylactic agent.^{3, 74, 75}

The AAOS recommendations for the use of IV antibiotic prophylaxis in primary TJA, recommendation 2, states that “timing and dosage of antibiotic administration should be such to optimize the efficacy of the therapy.”¹ Both the IDSA and AAOS state that “Additional intraoperative doses of antibiotic are advised when the duration of the procedure exceeds one to two times the antibiotic’s half-life or when there is significant blood loss during the procedure.” The general guidelines for frequency of intraoperative antibiotic administration are as follows: cefazolin every 2 to 5 (4) hours, cefuroxime every 3-4 hours, clindamycin every 3 to 6 hours, isoxazoyl penicillin every 3 hours, and vancomycin every 6 to 12 hours.^{2, 137, 138}

In a prospective multicenter study exploring the relationship between timing, duration, and intraoperative redosing of surgical antimicrobial prophylaxis and the risk of SSI, Steinberg et al. determined that intraoperative dosing was associated with a lower infection risk only when the preoperative antibiotic was given in the recommended time frame. In 1,062 (24%) cases, the surgical procedure lasted for at least 4 hours. Because of a longer half-life and the reduced need for redosing, cases that received vancomycin or fluoroquinolones were excluded from the analysis of the impact of redosing on infection risk (n=372). Intraoperative redosing was given in 21% of 690 of these long operations. Of the group that had a surgical procedure with a duration

of >4 hours and who received the preoperative dose within one hour, 2 of 112 (1.8%) patients who were redosed intraoperatively developed infection, compared to 22 of 400 (5.5%) of those who were not re-dosed (OR 3.08, p=0.06).¹⁰

Scher et al. randomized 801 patients undergoing clean contaminated operations to one of three antibiotic regimens: 1g of cefazolin preoperatively, 1g of cefazolin preoperatively and another dose 3 hours later, and 1g of cefotetan preoperatively. While all regimens demonstrated similar wound infection rates for surgeries lasting less than 3 hours, for those that exceeded 3 hours, the group that only received the single preoperative cefazolin dose had a statistically significant higher wound infection rate than those who received the second cefazolin dose (6.1% vs 1.3%, p<0.01).¹³⁹

Shapiro et al. performed a placebo-controlled RCT to test the efficacy of perioperative cefazolin in preventing infection after abdominal or vaginal hysterectomy. The authors sub-analyzed the effect of surgery duration on the efficacy of perioperative prophylaxis by calculating adjusted relative odds of infection with and without prophylaxis for different durations of surgery and found that the efficacy of prophylaxis diminishes rapidly with increasing length of surgery; by 3 hours, 20 minutes prophylaxis had no measurable effect (OR=1).¹⁴⁰

Polk et al. prospectively analyzed the antibiotic levels of 3 cephalosporins (cefazolin, cephaloridine, and cephalothin) given as a single preoperative dose and found that acceptable concentrations of cefazolin were maintained near the incision site until 3 hours post-administration, whereas cephalothin did not maintain wound levels consistent with effective antimicrobial activity.¹⁴¹

Ohge et al. prospectively examined the pancreatic tissue concentrations of cefazolin in 10 patients undergoing pancreatectomy and determined the optimal intraoperative time to repeat the dose of cefazolin. Based on their results, the authors recommended a second dose of kefzol be given 3 hours after first administration in order to maintain adequate levels of antibiotic activity. They measured MIC for 4 bacterial species, namely 360 isolates of MSSA, 204 isolates of *K. pneumoniae*, 314 isolates of *E. coli*, and 30 isolates of streptococci species, and measured tissue levels of cefazolin. Antibiotic concentrations in adipose tissue and peritoneum 3 hours after administration of kefzol were lower than the MIC 80 for *K. pneumoniae*, *E. coli*, and streptococcal species.¹⁴²

In a retrospective review of 131 patients with primary colorectal cancer in prolonged operations exceeding 4 hours, the surgical wound infection rates were 8.5 and 26.5% respectively for those with (n=47) and without (n=49) intraoperative repeated dosing, which were significantly different based on both a univariate (p=0.031) and a multivariate analysis (p=0.008).¹⁴³

Zanetti et al. retrospectively compared the risk of SSIs in 1,548 patients who underwent cardiac surgery lasting >240 minutes after preoperative administration of cefazolin prophylaxis. The overall risk of SSI was similar among patients with (43 (9.4%) of 459) and without (101 (9.3%) of 1089) intraoperative redosing (OR 1.01, 95% CI 0.7-1.47). However, redosing was beneficial in procedures lasting >400 minutes; infection occurred in 14 (7.7%) of 182 patients with redosing and in 32 (16.0%) of 200 patients without (adjusted OR 0.44, 95% CI 0.23-0.86). Intraoperative redosing of cefazolin was associated with a 16% reduction in the overall risk for SSI after cardiac surgery, including procedures lasting >240min.^{74, 75}

Blood Loss: Swoboda et al. attempted to determine the effect of intraoperative blood loss on prophylactic cefazolin and gentamicin serum and tissue concentration in a prospective study of elective spinal surgical procedures with expected large blood loss. At 60 minutes after the incision, blood loss correlated with cefazolin tissue concentrations (r=-0.66, p=0.05) and the clearance of gentamicin from the tissues (r=0.82, p=0.01). Based on their measured pharmacokinetic values, additional doses of cefazolin should be administered when the operation exceeds 3 hours and blood loss is greater than 1500mL. A dose of gentamicin greater than 1.8mg/kg should be administered more than 30 minutes prior to the surgical incision.¹⁴⁴

Blood Loss/Volume Replacement: Markantonis et al. investigated the effects of surgical blood loss and fluid volume replacement on gentamicin concentrations in serum and in 3 tissue types (subcutaneous fat, epiploic fat, and colonic wall) in patients in undergoing colorectal surgery. Gentamicin was administered at a standard dose of 2 mg/kg and blood and tissue samples were obtained concurrently at specific times throughout each procedure. The mean concentration at first surgical incision was 7.83 (0.82) µg/mL and decreased to 2.60 (0.28) µg/mL at skin closure, resulting in borderline effectiveness even for susceptible gram-negative microorganisms (MIC-1.0). A strong negative correlation was found between the intravenously-administered fluids and gentamicin concentrations in serum and tissues (p<=0.04).¹⁴⁵

Klekamp et al. prospectively studied orthopaedic patients with either large or small blood loss who also received vancomycin prophylaxis to determine the effect of intraoperative volume shifts on serum vancomycin concentrations. There were 6 index patients in the large blood loss

group (greater than 2L) and 7 in the control group (less than 2L), with mean estimated blood loss for index and controls was 4.4L and 1.0L; and the mean intraoperative fluid resuscitation, excluding blood products, was 12.4L and 5.1L respectively. There was a modest inverse correlation between blood loss and the intraoperative serum half-life of vancomycin. Although controls maintained slightly higher intraoperative vancomycin concentrations at each time point, there was no statistically significant difference between the groups with regard to absolute concentrations or rate of decline. After 8 hours, the serum concentration of vancomycin exceeded the MIC-90 for *S. aureus* by approximately eightfold in all but one case patient, who was morbidly obese and had massive blood loss. Thus blood loss during orthopaedic procedures has a minimal effect on the intraoperative kinetics of vancomycin and administering vancomycin every 8 to 12 hours seems appropriate for most patients.¹⁴⁶

Two well-controlled studies of surgical prophylaxis with cefazolin similarly demonstrated minimal effects of blood loss on drug concentrations during THA and spine fusion procedures. Meter et al. examined the effect of intraoperative blood loss and volume resuscitation during THA on serum levels of cefazolin in 18 patients. At 4 hours after administration, the serum level of cefazolin was 45 mcg/mL, which far exceeded the MIC for *S. aureus* (0.5mcg/mL), despite an average intraoperative blood loss of 1137±436 mL. This led the authors to conclude that even with blood losses of 2L, it is not necessary to redose cefazolin any earlier than 4 hours in order to maintain the MIC for most common infecting organisms.¹⁴⁷ The authors repeated the study in 19 patients undergoing instrumented posterior spinal fusion and found that there was no significant difference between preoperative and intraoperative cefazolin clearance and there was no correlation between blood loss and cefazolin level.¹⁴⁸

Question 16: Should preoperative antibiotic doses be weight-adjusted?

Consensus: Preoperative antibiotics have different pharmacokinetics based on patient weight and should be weight-adjusted.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 95%, Disagree: 4%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Because of the relative unpredictability of pharmacokinetics in obese individuals, doses are best estimated on the basis of specific studies for individual drugs carried out in this population. Only a few antibiotics (aminoglycosides, vancomycin, daptomycin, and linezolid) have been studied in the obese population.

AAOS recommendations for the use of IV antibiotic prophylaxis in primary TJA, recommendation 2, states that “timing and dosage of antibiotic administration should optimize the efficacy of the therapy. Dose amount should be proportional to patient weight; for patients >80 kg, the doses of cefazolin should be doubled.”²

The recommended dose of cefazolin is based on patient’s body mass index (BMI), with 1.0g for people who weigh <80 kg, and 2.0g for those who weigh >80 kg. The adult dose of cefuroxime is 1.5g. The recommended dose of clindamycin is 600 to 900mg.⁶¹ The recommended dose of vancomycin, which is based on BMI, is 10-15mg/kg, up to a limit of 1g, in patients with normal renal function.¹⁴⁹ However, there is literature to support the use of higher doses of vancomycin, with emphasis that doses >4g/day have been associated with increased risk of nephrotoxicity. A trough level is obtained prior to the fourth scheduled dose and in certain occasions there may be a need to shorten dosing interval to maintain therapeutic trough level (eg q12h to q8h dosing).

Because 30% of adipose is water, an empirical approach is to use the Devine formula to calculate ideal body weight (IBW), to which is added a dosing weight correction factor (DWCF) of 0.3 times the difference between actual body weight (ABW) and IBW ($IBW + 0.3 \times [ABW - IBW]$) to arrive at a weight on which to base dosage of hydrophilic antibiotics. No studies confirm this approach for β -lactam drugs. Clinical studies suggest a DWCF of 0.4 for aminoglycosides and 0.45 for quinolones.¹⁵⁰

For aminoglycosides, some suggest using ABW using a dosing correction factor,^{151,153} while others suggest dosing based on lean body weight (LBW) with appropriate monitoring with the first dose.¹⁵² Current guidelines for vancomycin administration are based on loading doses of vancomycin on the total body weight (TBW) of the patient and maintenance doses on the calculated creatinine clearance (CrCl) of the patient.^{153, 154} However, deciding whether to base CrCl calculations on ABW, IBW, or another measure is still to be determined. As a general rule, obese and morbidly obese patients require higher doses of cephalosporin to achieve similar outcomes; however, there are fewer absolute dosing recommendations. At least one study

demonstrated that a dose of 2g of cephazolin should provide adequate levels for at least 4 hours even in super morbid obesity (BMI $\geq 50\text{kg/m}^2$).¹⁵⁵

Other studies confirm that vancomycin should be given on the basis of ABW, with dosage adjustments based on serum concentrations¹⁵⁶ whereas aminoglycoside dosing requires calculation of adjusted body weight via a correction factor.¹⁵⁷

Forse et al. conducted a prospective RCT in morbidly obese patients undergoing gastroplasty and found that the blood and tissue levels of cefazolin were significantly lower for all morbidly obese patients who received 1g cefazolin compared with the blood and tissue levels of the drug found in normal weight patients who received a similar dose of antibiotic. Moreover, the morbidly obese patients who only received 1g of cefazolin had antibiotic levels below the MIC of 2mcg/mL for gram-positive cocci and 4mcg/mL for gram-negative rods. The serum and tissue concentrations were adequate only when 2g of cefazolin were administered. Also, relative to 1g, the administration of cefazolin 2g decreased the wound infection rate from 16.5 to 5.6% in these morbidly obese patients.¹⁸

Van Kralingen et al. studied the influence of body weight measures and age on pharmacokinetic parameters and evaluated unbound cefazolin concentrations over time in obese patients. Twenty morbidly obese (MO) patients (BMI 38-79 kg/m^2) were studied following the administration of 2g of cefazolin at induction of anesthesia. Blood samples were collected up to 4 hours post dosing to determine the total and unbound plasma cefazolin concentrations. Cefazolin clearance was 4.2 ± 1.0 L/h (mean \pm standard deviation) and showed a negative correlation with age ($p=0.003$) but not with body weight measures ($p>0.05$). In all patients, unbound cefazolin concentrations remained above 1mg/L (MIC 90) of MSSA until 4 hours post dosing.¹⁵⁸

Ho et al. attempted to determine an optimal dosing regimen for cefazolin as a prophylactic antibiotic in surgery for patients with morbid obesity. Twenty-five patients undergoing elective surgical procedures were given a single dose of cefazolin: 10 with MO (BMI 40-50 kg/m^2) received 2g via intravenous push (IVP), 5 with MO received 2g via 30 minute infusion, 5 with super morbid obesity (SMO, BMI >50 kg/m^2) received 2g via infusion, and 5 with SMO received 3g via infusion. The protective duration, determined using a pharmacodynamic target for $fT>MIC$ of 70%, was 5.1 hours for MO2-IVP, 4.8 hours for MO2-INF, 5.8 hours for SMO2-INF, and 6.8 hours for SMO3-INF. The authors concluded that a single 2g dose of cefazolin appears

to provide antibiotic exposure sufficient for most common general surgical procedures of <5 hr duration regardless of BMI.¹⁵⁵

In contrast, Edmiston et al. concluded that 2g of cefazolin may not be sufficient for patients with a BMI >50 kg/m², based upon measurements of total serum concentrations in morbidly obese patients undergoing gastric bypass. The authors assigned 38 patients to one of 3 BMI groups: A) BMI=40-49 kg/m² (n=17), B) BMI=50-59 kg/m² (n=11), and C) BMI>=60 kg/m² (n=10) and measured serum and tissue concentrations of cefazolin. They determined that therapeutic tissue levels were only achieved in 48.1%, 28.6%, and 10.2%% in groups A, B, and C respectively. The authors measured concentrations in the serum skin, adipose tissue, and omentum, but did not evaluate unbound cefazolin concentrations, which may be expected to migrate across tissues rapidly.¹⁵⁹

A table listing recommended dosing by weight is provided below:

Antimicrobial	Actual Body Weight (ABW; kg)	Recommended Dose (mg)	Perioperative Redosing Interval (hours)	Indication
Cefazolin	< 60	1000	4	Primary Perioperative Prophylaxis
	60-120	2000	4	
	> 120	3000	4	
Cefuroxime	No adjustments	1500	4	Primary Perioperative Prophylaxis

Vancomycin	Weight based dosing recommended	15 mg/kg (Maximum dose 2000 mg)	6-12	Perioperative Prophylaxis for current MRSA carriers and/or patients with <input type="checkbox"/> -lactam allergy
Clindamycin	No adjustments	900	3	Perioperative Prophylaxis for patients with <input type="checkbox"/> -lactam allergy
Teicoplanin	No adjustments	400	NA	Perioperative Prophylaxis for current MRSA carriers and/or patients with <input type="checkbox"/> -lactam allergy

Question 17A: What type of perioperative antibiotic prophylaxis is recommended for current MRSA carriers?

Consensus: For current MRSA carriers, vancomycin or teicoplanin is the recommended perioperative antibiotic prophylaxis.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 86%, Disagree: 12%, Abstain: 2%(Strong Consensus)

Question 17B: Should patients with prior history of MRSA be re-screened? What should the choice of perioperative prophylactic antibiotics be in these patients?

Consensus: Patients with prior history of MRSA should be re-screened preoperatively. If patients are found to be negative for MRSA, we recommend routine perioperative antibiotic prophylaxis.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 76%, Disagree: 23%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Implementation of a MRSA prevention program may significantly reduce MRSA SSIs. However, it is unlikely that any single MRSA-specific intervention (such as adding or switching to vancomycin) can optimally prevent SSIs. Several studies provide convincing data on the clinical effectiveness of vancomycin in preventing SSIs when MRSA prevalence is high.^{69, 70, 79} Further research is needed to determine which components of a MRSA prevention program are essential in successfully preventing MRSA SSIs.¹⁶⁰ It is uncertain whether decontamination should alter the type of antibiotic prophylaxis, as few studies have retested patients' MRSA status immediately prior to surgery.

The AAOS recommendations for the use of IV antibiotic prophylaxis in primary TJA, recommendation 2, states that “vancomycin may be used in patients with known colonization with MRSA or in facilities with recent MRSA outbreaks.”¹ Additionally, the Society for Healthcare Epidemiology of America recently recommended routine surveillance cultures at the time of admission to the hospital for patients at high risk of MRSA.⁵²

Walsh et al. implemented a comprehensive MRSA program in which vancomycin was added to the routine cefazolin prophylaxis regimen for patients who tested positive for nasal MRSA carriage. Other components of the program included decolonization of all cardiothoracic staff who screened positive for nasal MRSA carriage, application of nasal mupirocin ointment for 5 days in all patients starting one day before surgery, application of topical mupirocin to exit sites after removal of chest and mediastinal tubes, and rescreening of patients for MRSA colonization at the time of hospital discharge. This program resulted in a significant reduction in the SSI rate (2.1% vs 0.8%, $p < 0.001$) as well as a 93% reduction in postoperative MRSA wound infections (from 32 infections/2,767 procedures during the 3 year pre-intervention period to 2 infections/2,496 procedures during the 3 year postintervention period). The data suggest that a bundled approach to preventing MRSA SSIs may be more critical than a single intervention.⁷⁹

Pofahl et al. published on the impact of introducing MRSA screening programs and treatment of subsequent MRSA SSIs. After a MRSA surveillance program was instituted, the rate of MRSA SSI decreased from 0.23% to 0.09%, with the most pronounced reduction seen in TJA procedures (0.30% to 0%, $p = 0.04$). However, the authors note that changes in perioperative antibiotics in MRSA-positive patients was at the discretion of the attending surgeon.¹⁶¹

Question 18: What is the recommended prophylaxis, in patients undergoing major orthopaedic reconstructions for either tumor or non-neoplastic conditions using megaprosthesis?

Consensus: Until the emergence of further evidence, we recommend the use of routine antibiotic prophylaxis for patients undergoing major reconstruction.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 93%, Disagree: 6%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Deep infection has been reported as being one of the most common complications following endoprosthetic replacement of large bone defects, ranging between 5%-35% in some series.¹⁶²⁻¹⁶⁶ Reinfection rates after revision surgery for endoprosthetic infection have been reported as high as 43%.¹⁶⁵ Despite this there is insufficient evidence to suggest that a different perioperative antibiotic regimen is warranted. Recently a multicenter, blinded,

randomized, controlled trial, using a parallel two-arm design has been set up (PARTITY study) that will evaluate 920 patients from Canada and the USA who are undergoing surgical excision and endoprosthetic reconstruction of a primary bone tumour. The patients will receive either short (24 h) or long (5 days) duration postoperative antibiotics. The primary outcome will be rates of deep postoperative infections in each arm. Secondary outcomes will include type and frequency of antibiotic-related adverse events, patient functional outcomes and quality-of-life scores, reoperation and mortality.¹⁶⁷

Another area of development involves silver coating of foreign materials, such as heart valves, cardiac catheters, and urinary catheters that has shown the ability to reduce the infection rate of medical devices; therefore, a logical extension of this work was to translate this concept to the field of endoprosthetics.^{168, 169} Both basic science and clinical research suggests a decreased incidence of SSI and PJI in endoprostheses coated with silver. Recently iodine-supported titanium implants have been also effective for preventing and treating infections after major orthopaedic surgery.^{170, 171}

In a rabbit study, the infection rate of silver-coated versus noncoated prostheses after inoculation with *Staphylococcus aureus* was determined and the silver concentrations in blood, urine, and organs with possible toxic side effects were documented. The authors convincingly demonstrated that megaprotheses coated with silver showed a significantly lower infection rate (7% vs 47%, $p < 0.05$) in comparison with a titanium group.¹⁷³ Furthermore, measurements of C-reactive protein, neutrophilic leukocytes, rectal temperature, and body weight showed significantly lower ($p < 0.05$) signs of inflammation in the silver group. In a second study, authors analyzed the potential toxicological side effects of these implants and found that the silver concentration in blood (median 1.883 parts per billion (PPB)) and in organs (0.798-86.002 PPB) showed elevated silver concentrations, without pathologic changes in laboratory parameters and without histologic changes of organs.¹⁷²

In a prospective observational study, Harges et al. compared the infection rate in 51 patients with sarcoma (proximal femur, $n=22$; proximal tibia, $n=29$) who underwent placement of a silver-coated megaprosthesis to 74 patients (proximal femur, $n=33$; proximal tibia, $n=41$) in whom an uncoated titanium megaprosthesis was used. The authors reported a substantial reduction in the infection rate from 17.6% in the titanium group compared to 5.9% in the silver group ($p=0.06$). Furthermore, while 38.5% of patients ultimately underwent amputation when PJI developed, this was not necessary in any case in the study group. However, the authors note

that the operating time required for the proximal tibia replacement was significantly shorter in the silver-coated prosthesis group ($p=0.034$) and that prolonged operating time was associated with a higher rate of PJI ($p=0.025$).

The same group reported a lack of toxicological side effects of silver-coated megaprotheses in 20 patients with bone metastases.¹⁷³ They reported that silver levels in the blood did not exceed 56.4 PPB and can be considered non-toxic. They further excluded significant changes in liver and kidney function based on laboratory values; and histopathologic examination of the periprosthetic environment in two patients showed no signs of foreign body granulomas or chronic inflammation, despite effective silver concentrations up to 1,626 PPB directly related to the prosthetic surface.¹⁷³

Tsuchiya et al reported that iodine-supported implants were used to prevent infection in 257 patients with compromised status. Acute infection developed only in 3 tumor cases and one diabetic foot among the 257 patients. Abnormalities of thyroid gland function were not detected. None of the patients experienced loosening of the implants. Excellent bone ingrowth was found around all hip and tumor prostheses. The results indicate that iodine-supported titanium has favorable antibacterial activity, biocompatibility, and no cytotoxicity.¹⁷⁰

Gosheger reviewed 197 patients with megaprotheses and discovered that those with cobalt chrome implants had more infections than those with titanium implants.¹⁷⁶ Reviewing 197 patients (77 patients with a cobalt chrome alloy system and 120 patients with a titanium alloy system) who underwent lower extremity reconstruction with a megaprosthesis, the authors reported a 31.2% infection rate in the cobalt chrome group compared to 14.2% in the titanium group ($p<0.01$). When they performed a secondary analysis matching two identical subgroups, the cobalt chrome group was still associated with a significantly higher infection rate, with 5 infections of 26 megaprotheses vs one infection of 36 titanium megaprotheses ($p<0.05$).¹⁷⁴

Question 19: Should antibiotic prophylaxis be different in patients who have reconstruction by bulk allograft?

Consensus: We recommend the use of routine antibiotic prophylaxis in patients who have reconstruction by bulk allograft.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 93%, Disagree: 5%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: The periprosthetic area is inherently a locus minoris resistance. Bulk allograft is in essence is a large foreign body and therefore represents a nidus for deep infection following surgery, apart from the prosthetic components. Additionally, bulk allografts are used most often in the setting of revision arthroplasty when there is frequently additional local soft tissue and vascular compromise, which compounds the risk for infection. Therefore, it would seem reasonable to want to modify the perioperative antibiotic protocol to protect these reconstructions. Unfortunately, there is insufficient literature to support altering antibiotic regimens, as most studies on the use of bulk allograft do not indicate or detail the antibiotic regimens utilized. Even if this data were available, it would not be accurate to properly compare the infection rates of different clinical series based on their perioperative antibiotic protocols because of the heterogeneity of patient populations. However, there is a growing body of literature to support the use of antibiotic-impregnated allograft in the revision setting as a means of decreasing infection rates. In addition, there are several reports of using antibiotic-impregnated graft substitute or grafts as a way to fill bony defects and promote bony ingrowth while delivering suprathreshold doses of antibiotics to the local environment in cases of osteomyelitis. While there is no current literature applying this technology to the use of bone defects in infected revision arthroplasty, it may be a promising technique.

Witso et al. used netilmicin-impregnated allografts for reconstruction in revision hip and knee surgery and found no adverse effects.¹⁷⁵ Buttaro et al. favorably used vancomycin-supplemented cancellous grafts for reconstruction after infected THA^{176, 177} Michalak et al. and Khoo et al. impregnated segmental allografts with gentamicin and flucloxacillin respectively.^{178, 179} However, all these groups used antibiotic impregnated grafts only in the second stage of a two-stage revision, after resolution of clinical and laboratory evidence of infection.

Winkler et al. performed 37 one-stage uncemented revision THAs using cancellous allograft bone impregnated with antibiotics and noted a 92% success rate, defined as recurrent infection at a mean follow-up of 4.4 years (range 2-8 years). In addition, no adverse effects were seen and the incorporation of bone graft was comparable to unimpregnated grafts.¹⁸⁰

In a similar series, Buttaro analyzed the incidence of infection after one-stage aseptic revision hip reconstruction using acetabular and/or femoral vancomycin-impregnated impacted bone allograft and a THA fixed with cement containing no antibiotic. In 75 consecutive patients (80

hips), followed for a mean of 36 months (range 24-59 months), deep infection occurred in one patient for an incidence of infection of 1.25%, which occurred 2 years after the index procedure and was thought to be hematogenous in origin.¹⁸¹

Cancellous bone allograft can store and release high initial local amounts of vancomycin without compromising incorporation of the graft, and some favorable results have been published following two-stage revision of infected THA with this technique.^{176, 177, 182-184}

Question 20: Do patients with poorly controlled diabetes, immunosuppression, or autoimmune disease require a different perioperative antibiotic prophylaxis?

Consensus: No. Routine antibiotic prophylaxis is recommended in these patients.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 90%, Disagree: 9%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Several studies have demonstrated that diabetes mellitus (DM), especially uncontrolled DM, is a risk factor for postoperative infection in THA and TKA.¹⁸⁵⁻¹⁸⁸ A recent retrospective cohort study within the Kaiser Healthcare system found no significant increase in risk of revision or deep infection or revision whether patients had controlled (HbA1c<7%) or uncontrolled diabetes (HbA1c>7%). Specifically, compared with patients without DM, there was no association between controlled DM and risk of revision (OR 1.32; 95% CI 0.99-1.76). Similarly, compared to patients without DM, there was no association between uncontrolled DM and risk of revision (OR 1.03; 95% CI 0.68-1.54).¹⁸⁹

Obesity has also been associated with a significant increase in rate of postoperative infection following TJA.¹⁹⁰⁻¹⁹²

Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) has also been associated with an alarming rate of postoperative complications, including infection. Parvizi et al. reported on 6 deep infections in 21 HIV-positive patients undergoing TJA. The authors remarked that the immune status of the patients was related to their risk of deep PJI, in that 5 of the 6 patients ultimately developed Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) and the CD4 count was significantly lower at $239 \pm 112 \mu\text{L}$ at latest follow-up for patients who developed infection compared to $523 \pm 171 \mu\text{L}$ for

the study population as a whole ($p < 0.001$). In this study the authors reported using prophylactic antibiotics (cephalosporins) preoperatively and 3 doses postoperatively and added antibiotic powder (vancomycin and tobramycin) to the cement in 2 patients thought to be at high risk for infection.¹⁹³

Similarly, Ragni et al. found a very high postoperative infection rate (26.5%) in 34 TJA in HIV-positive hemophiliacs, all of whom had CD4 counts less than 200/ μL at time of surgery.¹⁹⁴ Haberman et al. noted an infection rate of 12.7% in their cohort of 41 patients with HIV undergoing TJA, but did not identify any difference in the outcomes relating to CD4 count.¹⁹⁵ Their perioperative antibiotic protocol was a 5 day course of cefuroxime and in all procedures antibiotic-containing cement (Palacos R, Zimmer, Warsaw, IN) was used. In a smaller series of 6 HIV-infected patients undergoing TJA, Wang et al. noted no infectious or other complications. The authors again used antibiotic (vancomycin)-impregnated bone cement in all cemented cases.¹⁹⁶ Unger et al. evaluated the results of 26 TKAs in HIV-positive hemophiliacs and found no cases of deep infection, but it is interesting to note that the average CD4 count of these patients was 463/ μL .¹⁹⁷

Hemophilia has historically been considered a risk factor for PJI, due in part to its relation to HIV and AIDS, but also as an independent risk factor. An article by Silva et al. reviewed the long-term results of primary TKA in patients with hemophilia and noted an overall prevalence of PJI of 16% with a rate of infection in HIV-positive and HIV-negative patients of 17% and 13% respectively ($p = 0.5$). The authors' perioperative protocol included 3 to 5 days of prophylactic antibiotics and antibiotic cement was not used.¹⁹⁸ In contrast, Rodriguez-Marchan reported an infection rate of only 3% of 35 TJA in hemophiliac patients, but used antibiotic-laden bone cement and 2 days of perioperative antibiotic prophylaxis.¹⁹⁹

Asplenic patients are at increased risk of infection by encapsulated bacteria; and although there is evidence to support vaccinations and penicillin prophylaxis in patients under 16 and over 50 years of age, there is no consensus on the appropriate perioperative management of these immunocompromised patients. In a single case report by Shaarani et al. of an asplenic patient who underwent a TKA, the patient ultimately developed a MRSA infection. In this case standard polymethylmethacrylate (PMMA) was used for cementing components and the patient received intravenous prophylactic dose of second generation cephalosporin preoperatively.²⁰⁰

Renal disease (including renal failure, dialysis dependence, and renal transplant) has been implicated as increasing the risk of PJI. McCleery et al. analyzed the Scottish Arthroplasty

Registry in order to determine the rates of PJI in patients with renal failure, those undergoing dialysis, and those patients with a renal transplant. They found that patients with renal failure had a significantly increased risk of early infection (1.6%, RR 1.52, $p=0.02$) and late infection (4.47%, RR 2.2, $p<0.001$). Patients on dialysis had a significantly increased risk of late infection (8.0%, RR 3.99, $p<0.001$) and early revision (3.7%, RR 4.4, $p<0.001$). Renal transplant patients had a significantly increased risk of late infection, despite whether the transplantation occurred before TKA (9.1%, RR 4.5, $p=0.03$) or at any time (8.0%, RR 4.0, $p=0.05$).²⁰¹ Lieberman et al. documented a deep infection rate of 19% in 16 chronic renal dialysis patients and more favorable outcomes in renal transplant patients.²⁰² Sakalkale et al. reported a deep infection rate of 13% in 12 patients with end-stage renal failure on dialysis who underwent THA. In this study, perioperative prophylactic antibiotics were administered for 2 to 5 days.²⁰³ In contrast, other authors have reported no increased rate of infection in patients on chronic hemodialysis undergoing THA.^{204, 205}

Similarly, liver disease has been associated with increased morbidity following TJA. Pour et al. performed a case control study of 71 non-cirrhotic patients with hepatitis C undergoing TJA and found that this cohort had higher rates of wound drainage following THA when compared to matched controls (15 vs 3.8%, $p=0.03$).²⁰⁶ Orozco et al. recently published a case control study to analyze the effect of fibrosis and thrombocytopenia on the diagnosis of hepatitis C and clinical outcomes. Analyzing 72 patients (77 joint replacements), the authors found that fibrotic hepatitis C patients had higher deep infection rates (21 vs 0%, $p=0.047$) and rates of cellulitis (21 vs 0%, $p=0.047$), while thrombocytopenia showed a trend towards greater infection.²⁰⁷

Solid organ transplant (SOT) is a risk factor for PJI due to the need for chronic use of immunosuppressant medications. Vergidis et al. performed a case control study of patients with SOT who developed PJI and compared them to non-infected controls matched by transplant type, prosthetic joint type, and order of organ transplantation or joint implantation. Of 367 patients with both a joint replacement and SOT, there were 12 cases of PJI, of which 8 were renal transplants, 3 were liver transplants, and 1 was a heart transplant patient. Eight infections were caused by gram-positive organisms, 2 were caused by nontuberculous mycobacteria, and the remaining 2 were culture negative. Of note, patients received perioperative cefazolin, or in cases of colonization or prior infection with MRSA, vancomycin.²⁰⁸ Tannenbaum et al. reported results on 35 TJA in 19 patients with renal or liver transplant and documented an infection in 5 patients who had the joint replacement after the transplantation. There were no infections in patients who had TJA before the organ transplantation. In this series, prophylactic antibiotics

were administered for at least 48 hours or until the drains were removed and bone cement when used was not impregnated with antibiotics.²⁰⁹

Question 21A: Should preoperative antibiotics be different for primary and revision TJA?

Consensus: No. Perioperative antibiotic prophylaxis should be the same for primary and uninfected revision arthroplasty.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 89%, Disagree: 10%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Question 21B: Should preoperative antibiotics be different for hips and knees?

Consensus: Perioperative antibiotic prophylaxis should be the same for hips and knees.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 99%, Disagree: 1%, Abstain: 0% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Patients undergoing revision TJA are at higher risk of developing PJI than primary arthroplasty and those undergoing revision knee procedures are at even highest risk.²¹⁰⁻
²¹² One recent study has effectively demonstrated targeting infection prevention programs at high-risk surgical patients that take into account an institution's local epidemiology and antibiogram.²¹³

Liu et al. determined the impact of adding vancomycin to cefazolin as antimicrobial prophylaxis in 414 patients undergoing revision TKA based on a notable increase in PJI in revision TKA patients, with many being methicillin-resistant. Following introduction of vancomycin to the routine preoperative antibiotic prophylaxis, the infection rate decreased from 7.89% to 3.13% (p=0.046). In particular, a significant reduction in PJI resulting from methicillin-resistant organisms over this time period was seen (4.2% to 0.9%, p=0.049).²¹⁹

Question 22: What is the best antibiotic prophylaxis to choose in patients with colonization by carbapenem resistant enterobacteriaceae or MDR-Acinetobacter spp?

Consensus: There is insufficient data to recommend expanded antibiotic prophylaxis in patients known to be colonized or recently infected with multi-drug resistant (MDR) pathogens.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 76%, Disagree: 8%, Abstain: 16% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There is an increasing awareness of the threat posed by *K. pneumoniae* strains with decreased susceptibility to carbapenems worldwide.²¹⁴ This resistance is conferred by *K. pneumo carbapemenase* (KPC), which is a β -lactamase that also confers resistance to broad-spectrum cephalosporins, as well as commercially available β -lactam/ β -lactamase inhibitor combinations.²¹⁵ As there are few antimicrobial options, prevention of *K. pneumo carbapemenase K. pneumoniae* (KPC-KP) has become a major priority of those studying nosocomial infections.²¹⁶

While there is no evidence on the management of surgical antimicrobial prophylaxis in a patient with past infection or colonization with a resistant gram-negative pathogen, it is logical to provide prophylaxis with an agent active against MRSA for any patient known to be colonized with this gram-positive pathogen who will have a skin incision; specifically, prophylaxis for a resistant gram-negative pathogen in a patient with past infection or colonization with such a pathogen may not be necessary for a purely cutaneous procedure.

In a literature review, KPC-producing microbes are resistant to many non- β -lactam molecules. Most isolates are resistant to fluoroquinolones, aminoglycosides, and co-trimoxazole. Some isolates are susceptible to amikacin and gentamicin and most are susceptible to colistin and tigecycline.^{214, 217-219}

In a prospective RCT, De Smet et al. studied the elimination of colonization with MDR organisms using selective oropharyngeal and/or digestive tract decontamination (SOD/SDD) in a multicenter crossover study using cluster randomization of 5,939 intensive care unit patients in the Netherlands. SOD included 4 days of intravenous cefotaxime and topical application of tobramycin, colistin, and amphotericin B in the oropharynx and stomach. SDD consisted of oropharyngeal application only of the same antimicrobials. Using a random effects logistic

regression analysis, the OR for death at day 28 in the SOD and SDD group, as compared with the standard care group, were 0.86 (95% CI 0.74-0.99) and 0.83 (95% CI 0.72-0.97) respectively.²²⁰

Perez et al. used a mouse model to examine the effect of antibiotic treatment on the establishment and elimination of intestinal colonization of KPC-KP. They administered 3 days of antibiotics (clindamycin, zosyn, tigecycline, ertapenem, cefepime, and ciprofloxacin) before KPC-KP was administered orogastrically. The authors reported that of the 4 antibiotics with minimal activity against the KPC-KP strain (MIC >16mcg/mL), those that suppressed total anaerobes and Bacteroides (ie clindamycin and zosyn) promoted colonization by KPC-KP ($p < 0.001$), while agents that did not suppress total anaerobes and Bacteroides (ie ciprofloxacin and cefepime) did not ($p = 0.35$). Of the antibiotics with moderate activity against KPC-KP, ertapenem (MIC 4mcg/mL) did not promote colonization by KPC-KP, while tigecycline (MIC 3mcg/mL) did ($p < 0.001$), despite not reducing levels of total anaerobes and Bacteroides. Orogastic administration of gentamicin and polymyxin E-suppressed KPC-KP to undetectable levels in the majority of mice. The authors posited that antibiotics that disturb the intestinal anaerobic microflora lack significant activity against KPC-KP promote colonization, while the administration of non-absorbed oral antibiotics may be an effective strategy to suppress colonization with this microorganism.²²¹

References:

1. Recommendations for the Use of Intravenous Antibiotic Prophylaxis in Primary Total Joint Arthroplasty. <http://www.aaos.org/about/papers/advistmt/1027.asp>. Accessed 2013.
2. Prokuski L. Prophylactic antibiotics in orthopaedic surgery. *J Am Acad Orthop Surg.* 2008;16(5):283-293.
3. Bratzler DW, Houck PM. Antimicrobial prophylaxis for surgery: an advisory statement from the National Surgical Infection Prevention Project. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2004;38(12):1706-1715.
4. van Kasteren ME, Mannien J, Ott A, Kullberg BJ, de Boer AS, Gyssens IC. Antibiotic prophylaxis and the risk of surgical site infections following total hip arthroplasty: timely administration is the most important factor. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2007;44(7):921-927.
5. Classen DC, Evans RS, Pestotnik SL, Horn SD, Menlove RL, Burke JP. The timing of prophylactic administration of antibiotics and the risk of surgical-wound infection. *N Engl J Med.* 1992;326(5):281-286.
6. Bratzler DW, Houck PM. Antimicrobial prophylaxis for surgery: an advisory statement from the National Surgical Infection Prevention Project. *Am J Surg.* 2005;189(4):395-404.

7. Galandiuk S, Polk HC, Jr., Jagelman DG, Fazio VW. Re-emphasis of priorities in surgical antibiotic prophylaxis. *Surg Gynecol Obstet.* 1989;169(3):219-222.
8. Hawn MT, Richman JS, Vick CC, et al. Timing of surgical antibiotic prophylaxis and the risk of surgical site infection. *JAMA Surg.* 2013;148(7):649-657.
9. Weber WP, Marti WR, Zwahlen M, et al. The timing of surgical antimicrobial prophylaxis. *Ann Surg.* 2008;247(6):918-926.
10. Steinberg JP, Braun BI, Hellinger WC, et al. Timing of antimicrobial prophylaxis and the risk of surgical site infections: results from the Trial to Reduce Antimicrobial Prophylaxis Errors. *Ann Surg.* 2009;250(1):10-16.
11. Johnson DP. Antibiotic prophylaxis with cefuroxime in arthroplasty of the knee. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1987;69(5):787-789.
12. Friedman RJ, Friedrich LV, White RL, Kays MB, Brundage DM, Graham J. Antibiotic prophylaxis and tourniquet inflation in total knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1990(260):17-23.
13. Soriano A, Bori G, Garcia-Ramiro S, et al. Timing of antibiotic prophylaxis for primary total knee arthroplasty performed during ischemia. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2008;46(7):1009-1014.
14. A WD, Robertsson O, Stefansdottir A, Gustafson P, Lidgren L. Timing of preoperative antibiotics for knee arthroplasties: Improving the routines in Sweden. *Patient Saf Surg.* 5:22.
15. Neu HC. Cephalosporin antibiotics as applied in surgery of bones and joints. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1984(190):50-64.
16. Oishi CS, Carrion WV, Hoaglund FT. Use of parenteral prophylactic antibiotics in clean orthopaedic surgery. A review of the literature. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1993(296):249-255.
17. Schurman DJ, Hirshman HP, Kajiyama G, Moser K, Burton DS. Cefazolin concentrations in bone and synovial fluid. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1978;60(3):359-362.
18. Forse RA, Karam B, MacLean LD, Christou NV. Antibiotic prophylaxis for surgery in morbidly obese patients. *Surgery.* 1989;106(4):750-756; discussion 756-757.
19. Sodhi M, Axtell SS, Callahan J, Shekar R. Is it safe to use carbapenems in patients with a history of allergy to penicillin? *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2004;54(6):1155-1157.
20. Hill C, Flamant R, Mazas F, Evrard J. Prophylactic cefazolin versus placebo in total hip replacement. Report of a multicentre double-blind randomised trial. *Lancet.* 1981;1(8224):795-796.
21. Tyllianakis ME, Karageorgos A, Marangos MN, Saridis AG, Lambiris EE. Antibiotic prophylaxis in primary hip and knee arthroplasty: comparison between cefuroxime and two specific antistaphylococcal agents. *J Arthroplasty.* 2010;25(7):1078-1082.
22. Mauerhan DR, Nelson CL, Smith DL, et al. Prophylaxis against infection in total joint arthroplasty. One day of cefuroxime compared with three days of cefazolin. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1994;76(1):39-45.
23. Stefansdottir A, Johansson D, Knutson K, Lidgren L, Robertsson O. Microbiology of the infected knee arthroplasty: report from the Swedish Knee Arthroplasty Register on 426 surgically revised cases. *Scand J Infect Dis.* 2009;41(11-12):831-840.
- 24.ENZLER MJ, BERBARI E, OSMON DR. Antimicrobial prophylaxis in adults. *Mayo Clin Proc.* 2011;86(7):686-701.
25. Wilson W, Taubert KA, Gewitz M, et al. Prevention of infective endocarditis: guidelines from the American Heart Association: a guideline from the American Heart Association Rheumatic Fever, Endocarditis, and Kawasaki Disease Committee, Council on Cardiovascular Disease in the Young, and the Council on Clinical Cardiology, Council on Cardiovascular Surgery and Anesthesia, and the Quality of Care and Outcomes Research Interdisciplinary Working Group. *Circulation.* 2007;116(15):1736-1754.
26. Eagle KA, Guyton RA, Davidoff R, et al. ACC/AHA 2004 guideline update for coronary artery bypass graft surgery: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart

- Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines (Committee to Update the 1999 Guidelines for Coronary Artery Bypass Graft Surgery). *Circulation*. 2004;110(14):e340-437.
27. Edwards FH, Engelman RM, Houck P, Shahian DM, Bridges CR. The Society of Thoracic Surgeons Practice Guideline Series: Antibiotic Prophylaxis in Cardiac Surgery, Part I: Duration. *Ann Thorac Surg*. 2006;81(1):397-404.
 28. Haydon TP, Presneill JJ, Robertson MS. Antibiotic prophylaxis for cardiac surgery in Australia. *Med J Aust*. 2010;192(3):141-143.
 29. Mollan RA, Haddock M, Webb CH. Teicoplanin vs cephmandole for antimicrobial prophylaxis in prosthetic joint implant surgery: (preliminary results). *Eur J Surg Suppl*. 1992(567):19-21.
 30. Lazzarini L, Pellizzer G, Stecca C, Viola R, de Lalla F. Postoperative infections following total knee replacement: an epidemiological study. *J Chemother*. 2001;13(2):182-187.
 31. Periti P, Pannuti F, Della Cuna GR, et al. Combination chemotherapy with cyclophosphamide, fluorouracil, and either epirubicin or mitoxantrone: a comparative randomized multicenter study in metastatic breast carcinoma. *Cancer Invest*. 1991;9(3):249-255.
 32. Periti P, Stringa G, Mini E. Comparative multicenter trial of teicoplanin versus cefazolin for antimicrobial prophylaxis in prosthetic joint implant surgery. Italian Study Group for Antimicrobial Prophylaxis in Orthopedic Surgery. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis*. 1999;18(2):113-119.
 33. Brogden RN, Peters DH. Teicoplanin. A reappraisal of its antimicrobial activity, pharmacokinetic properties and therapeutic efficacy. *Drugs*. 1994;47(5):823-854.
 34. Wood MJ. The comparative efficacy and safety of teicoplanin and vancomycin. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 1996;37(2):209-222.
 35. Wilson AP. Antibiotic prophylaxis in cardiac surgery. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 1988;21(5):522-524.
 36. Darley ES, MacGowan AP. Antibiotic treatment of gram-positive bone and joint infections. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2004;53(6):928-935.
 37. Dash CH. Penicillin allergy and the cephalosporins. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 1975;1(3 Suppl):107-118.
 38. Petz LD. Immunologic cross-reactivity between penicillins and cephalosporins: a review. *J Infect Dis*. 1978;137 Suppl:S74-S79.
 39. Kelkar PS, Li JT. Cephalosporin allergy. *N Engl J Med*. 2001;345(11):804-809.
 40. Saxon A, Beall GN, Rohr AS, Adelman DC. Immediate hypersensitivity reactions to beta-lactam antibiotics. *Ann Intern Med*. 1987;107(2):204-215.
 41. Pichichero ME. Use of selected cephalosporins in penicillin-allergic patients: a paradigm shift. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2007;57(3 Suppl):13S-18S.
 42. Pichichero ME, Casey JR. Safe use of selected cephalosporins in penicillin-allergic patients: a meta-analysis. *Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg*. 2007;136(3):340-347.
 43. Audicana M, Bernaola G, Urrutia I, et al. Allergic reactions to betalactams: studies in a group of patients allergic to penicillin and evaluation of cross-reactivity with cephalosporin. *Allergy*. 1994;49(2):108-113.
 44. Solensky R, Earl HS, Gruchalla RS. Lack of penicillin re-sensitization in patients with a history of penicillin allergy after receiving repeated penicillin courses. *Arch Intern Med*. 2002;162(7):822-826.
 45. Campagna JD, Bond MC, Schabelman E, Hayes BD. The use of cephalosporins in penicillin-allergic patients: a literature review. *J Emerg Med*. 2012;42(5):612-620.
 46. DePestel DD, Benninger MS, Danziger L, et al. Cephalosporin use in treatment of patients with penicillin allergies. *J Am Pharm Assoc (2003)*. 2008;48(4):530-540.
 47. Platt R. Adverse effects of third-generation cephalosporins. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 1982;10 Suppl C:135-140.

48. Goodman EJ, Morgan MJ, Johnson PA, Nichols BA, Denk N, Gold BB. Cephalosporins can be given to penicillin-allergic patients who do not exhibit an anaphylactic response. *J Clin Anesth.* 2001;13(8):561-564.
49. Apter AJ, Kinman JL, Bilker WB, et al. Is there cross-reactivity between penicillins and cephalosporins? *Am J Med.* 2006;119(4):354 e311-359.
50. Park MA, Koch CA, Klemawesch P, Joshi A, Li JT. Increased adverse drug reactions to cephalosporins in penicillin allergy patients with positive penicillin skin test. *Int Arch Allergy Immunol.* 2010;153(3):268-273.
51. Advisory statement. Recommendations for the use of intravenous antibiotic prophylaxis in primary total joint arthroplasty. <http://www.aaos.org/about/papers/advistmt/1027.asp>, Accessed 2013.
52. Muto CA, Jernigan JA, Ostrowsky BE, et al. SHEA guideline for preventing nosocomial transmission of multidrug-resistant strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* and enterococcus. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* 2003;24(5):362-386.
53. Cantoni L, Glauser MP, Bille J. Comparative efficacy of daptomycin, vancomycin, and cloxacillin for the treatment of *Staphylococcus aureus* endocarditis in rats and role of test conditions in this determination. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 1990;34(12):2348-2353.
54. Patel M, Kumar RA, Stamm AM, Hoesley CJ, Moser SA, Waites KB. USA300 genotype community-associated methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* as a cause of surgical site infections. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2007;45(10):3431-3433.
55. Manian FA, Griesnauer S. Community-associated methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) is replacing traditional health care-associated MRSA strains in surgical-site infections among inpatients. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2008;47(3):434-435.
56. Recommendations for preventing the spread of vancomycin resistance. Recommendations of the Hospital Infection Control Practices Advisory Committee (HICPAC). *MMWR Recomm Rep.* 1995;44(RR-12):1-13.
57. Hiramatsu K, Aritaka N, Hanaki H, et al. Dissemination in Japanese hospitals of strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* heterogeneously resistant to vancomycin. *Lancet.* 1997;350(9092):1670-1673.
58. Michel M, Gutmann L. Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and vancomycin-resistant enterococci: therapeutic realities and possibilities. *Lancet.* 1997;349(9069):1901-1906.
59. Fulkerson E, Valle CJ, Wise B, Walsh M, Preston C, Di Cesare PE. Antibiotic susceptibility of bacteria infecting total joint arthroplasty sites. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2006;88(6):1231-1237.
60. UK Health protection agency. Surgical Site Infection surveillance service. Protocol for surveillance of surgical site infection. . http://www.hpa.org/uk/we/HPAwebFile/HPAweb_C/1194947388966, Accessed 2013.
61. Meehan J, Jamali AA, Nguyen H. Prophylactic antibiotics in hip and knee arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2009;91(10):2480-2490.
62. Wiesel BB, Esterhai JL. Prophylaxis of musculoskeletal infections. In: J C, JT M, eds. *Musculoskeletal Infections.* New York: Marcel Dekker; 2003:115-129.
63. Merrer J, Desbouchages L, Serazin V, Razafimamonjy J, Pauthier F, Leneveu M. Comparison of routine prophylaxis with vancomycin or cefazolin for femoral neck fracture surgery: microbiological and clinical outcomes. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* 2006;27(12):1366-1371.
64. Cranny G, Elliott R, Weatherly H, et al. A systematic review and economic model of switching from non-glycopeptide to glycopeptide antibiotic prophylaxis for surgery. *Health Technol Assess.* 2008;12(1):iii-iv, xi-xii, 1-147.
65. Bolon MK, Morlote M, Weber SG, Koplan B, Carmeli Y, Wright SB. Glycopeptides are no more effective than beta-lactam agents for prevention of surgical site infection after cardiac surgery: a meta-analysis. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2004;38(10):1357-1363.

66. Mangram AJ, Horan TC, Pearson ML, Silver LC, Jarvis WR. Guideline for prevention of surgical site infection, 1999. Hospital Infection Control Practices Advisory Committee. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* 1999;20(4):250-278; quiz 279-280.
67. Tacconelli E, Cataldo MA, Albanese A, et al. Vancomycin versus cefazolin prophylaxis for cerebrospinal shunt placement in a hospital with a high prevalence of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *J Hosp Infect.* 2008;69(4):337-344.
68. Finkelstein R, Rabino G, Mashiah T, et al. Vancomycin versus cefazolin prophylaxis for cardiac surgery in the setting of a high prevalence of methicillin-resistant staphylococcal infections. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg.* 2002;123(2):326-332.
69. Garey KW, Lai D, Dao-Tran TK, Gentry LO, Hwang LY, Davis BR. Interrupted time series analysis of vancomycin compared to cefuroxime for surgical prophylaxis in patients undergoing cardiac surgery. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2008;52(2):446-451.
70. Spelman D, Harrington G, Russo P, Wesselingh S. Clinical, microbiological, and economic benefit of a change in antibiotic prophylaxis for cardiac surgery. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* 2002;23(7):402-404.
71. Smith EB, Wynne R, Joshi A, Liu H, Good RP. Is it time to include vancomycin for routine perioperative antibiotic prophylaxis in total joint arthroplasty patients? *J Arthroplasty.* 2012;27(8 Suppl):55-60.
72. Bull AL, Worth LJ, Richards MJ. Impact of vancomycin surgical antibiotic prophylaxis on the development of methicillin-sensitive staphylococcus aureus surgical site infections: report from Australian Surveillance Data (VICNISS). *Ann Surg.* 2012;256(6):1089-1092.
73. Miller LG, McKinnell JA, Vollmer ME, Spellberg B. Impact of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* prevalence among *S. aureus* isolates on surgical site infection risk after coronary artery bypass surgery. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* 2011;32(4):342-350.
74. Zanetti G, Giardina R, Platt R. Intraoperative redosing of cefazolin and risk for surgical site infection in cardiac surgery. *Emerg Infect Dis.* 2001;7(5):828-831.
75. Zanetti G, Goldie SJ, Platt R. Clinical consequences and cost of limiting use of vancomycin for perioperative prophylaxis: example of coronary artery bypass surgery. *Emerg Infect Dis.* 2001;7(5):820-827.
76. Muralidhar B, Anwar SM, Handa AI, Peto TE, Bowler IC. Prevalence of MRSA in emergency and elective patients admitted to a vascular surgical unit: implications for antibiotic prophylaxis. *Eur J Vasc Endovasc Surg.* 2006;32(4):402-407.
77. Gemmell CG, Edwards DI, Fraise AP, Gould FK, Ridgway GL, Warren RE. Guidelines for the prophylaxis and treatment of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) infections in the UK. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2006;57(4):589-608.
78. Elliott RA, Weatherly HL, Hawkins NS, et al. An economic model for the prevention of MRSA infections after surgery: non-glycopeptide or glycopeptide antibiotic prophylaxis? *Eur J Health Econ.* 2010;11(1):57-66.
79. Walsh EE, Greene L, Kirshner R. Sustained reduction in methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* wound infections after cardiothoracic surgery. *Arch Intern Med.* 2011;171(1):68-73.
80. Dhadwal K, Al-Ruzzeh S, Athanasiou T, et al. Comparison of clinical and economic outcomes of two antibiotic prophylaxis regimens for sternal wound infection in high-risk patients following coronary artery bypass grafting surgery: a prospective randomised double-blind controlled trial. *Heart.* 2007;93(9):1126-1133.
81. Patrick S, James C, Ali A, Lawson S, Mary E, Modak A. Vascular surgical antibiotic prophylaxis study (VSAPS). *Vasc Endovascular Surg.* 2010;44(7):521-528.
82. Sewick A, Makani A, Wu C, O'Donnell J, Baldwin KD, Lee GC. Does dual antibiotic prophylaxis better prevent surgical site infections in total joint arthroplasty? *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2012;470(10):2702-2707.

83. Ritter MA, Barzilauskas CD, Faris PM, Keating EM. Vancomycin prophylaxis and elective total joint arthroplasty. *Orthopedics*. 1989;12(10):1333-1336.
84. Cruess RL, Bickel WS, vonKessler KL. Infections in total hips secondary to a primary source elsewhere. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1975(106):99-101.
85. Hall AJ. Late infection about a total knee prosthesis. Report of a case secondary to urinary tract infection. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 1974;56(1):144-147.
86. David TS, Vrahas MS. Perioperative lower urinary tract infections and deep sepsis in patients undergoing total joint arthroplasty. *J Am Acad Orthop Surg*. 2000;8(1):66-74.
87. Ritter MA, Fechtman RW. Urinary tract sequelae: possible influence on joint infections following total joint replacement. *Orthopedics*. 1987;10(3):467-469.
88. Wymenga AB, van Horn JR, Theeuwes A, Muyltjens HL, Slooff TJ. Perioperative factors associated with septic arthritis after arthroplasty. Prospective multicenter study of 362 knee and 2,651 hip operations. *Acta Orthop Scand*. 1992;63(6):665-671.
89. Glynn MK, Sheehan JM. The significance of asymptomatic bacteriuria in patients undergoing hip/knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1984(185):151-154.
90. Waterhouse N, Beaumont AR, Murray K, Staniforth P, Stone MH. Urinary retention after total hip replacement. A prospective study. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 1987;69(1):64-66.
91. Walton JK, Robinson RG. An analysis of a male population having total hip replacement with regard to urological assessment and post-operative urinary retention. *Br J Urol*. 1982;54(5):519-521.
92. Drekonja DM, Rector TS, Cutting A, Johnson JR. Urinary tract infection in male veterans: treatment patterns and outcomes. *JAMA Intern Med*. 2013;173(1):62-68.
93. Irvine R, Johnson BL, Jr., Amstutz HC. The relationship of genitourinary tract procedures and deep sepsis after total hip replacements. *Surg Gynecol Obstet*. 1974;139(5):701-706.
94. Garibaldi RA, Burke JP, Dickman ML, Smith CB. Factors predisposing to bacteriuria during indwelling urethral catheterization. *N Engl J Med*. 1974;291(5):215-219.
95. Kunin CM, McCormack RC. Prevention of catheter-induced urinary-tract infections by sterile closed drainage. *N Engl J Med*. 1966;274(21):1155-1161.
96. Jerry GJ, Jr., Rand JA, Ilstrup D. Old sepsis prior to total knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1988(236):135-140.
97. Lee GC, Pagnano MW, Hanssen AD. Total knee arthroplasty after prior bone or joint sepsis about the knee. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2002(404):226-231.
98. Larson AN, Hanssen AD, Cass JR. Does prior infection alter the outcome of TKA after tibial plateau fracture? *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2009;467(7):1793-1799.
99. Michelson JD, Lotke PA, Steinberg ME. Urinary-bladder management after total joint-replacement surgery. *N Engl J Med*. 1988;319(6):321-326.
100. Martinez OV, Civetta JM, Anderson K, Roger S, Murtha M, Malinin TI. Bacteriuria in the catheterized surgical intensive care patient. *Crit Care Med*. 1986;14(3):188-191.
101. Schaeffer AJ. Catheter-associated bacteriuria. *Urol Clin North Am*. 1986;13(4):735-747.
102. Skelly JM, Guyatt GH, Kalbfleisch R, Singer J, Winter L. Management of urinary retention after surgical repair of hip fracture. *CMAJ*. 1992;146(7):1185-1189.
103. Donovan TL, Gordon RO, Nagel DA. Urinary infections in total hip arthroplasty. Influences of prophylactic cephalosporins and catheterization. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 1976;58(8):1134-1137.
104. Fitzgerald RH, Jr., Nolan DR, Ilstrup DM, Van Scoy RE, Washington JA, 2nd, Coventry MB. Deep wound sepsis following total hip arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 1977;59(7):847-855.
105. 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(4):412-418.

106. Felipe WA, Werneck GL, Santoro-Lopes G. Surgical site infection among women discharged with a drain in situ after breast cancer surgery. *World J Surg.* 2007;31(12):2293-2299; discussion 2300-2291.
107. Lanier ST, Wang ED, Chen JJ, et al. The effect of acellular dermal matrix use on complication rates in tissue expander/implant breast reconstruction. *Ann Plast Surg.* 2010;64(5):674-678.
108. Sorensen AI, Sorensen TS. Bacterial growth on suction drain tips. Prospective study of 489 clean orthopedic operations. *Acta Orthop Scand.* 1991;62(5):451-454.
109. van den Brand IC, Castelein RM. Total joint arthroplasty and incidence of postoperative bacteriuria with an indwelling catheter or intermittent catheterization with one-dose antibiotic prophylaxis: a prospective randomized trial. *J Arthroplasty.* 2001;16(7):850-855.
110. Oishi CS, Williams VJ, Hanson PB, Schneider JE, Colwell CW, Jr., Walker RH. Perioperative bladder management after primary total hip arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 1995;10(6):732-736.
111. Koulouvaris P, Sculco P, Finerty E, Sculco T, Sharrock NE. Relationship between perioperative urinary tract infection and deep infection after joint arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2009;467(7):1859-1867.
112. Brahmhatt RD, Huebner M, Scow JS, et al. National practice patterns in preoperative and postoperative antibiotic prophylaxis in breast procedures requiring drains: survey of the American Society of Breast Surgeons. *Ann Surg Oncol.* 2012;19(10):3205-3211.
113. Phillips BT, Wang ED, Mirrer J, et al. Current practice among plastic surgeons of antibiotic prophylaxis and closed-suction drains in breast reconstruction: experience, evidence, and implications for postoperative care. *Ann Plast Surg.* 2011;66(5):460-465.
114. Turano A. New clinical data on the prophylaxis of infections in abdominal, gynecologic, and urologic surgery. Multicenter Study Group. *Am J Surg.* 1992;164(4A Suppl):16S-20S.
115. Niederhauser U, Vogt M, Vogt P, Genoni M, Kunzli A, Turina MI. Cardiac surgery in a high-risk group of patients: is prolonged postoperative antibiotic prophylaxis effective? *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg.* 1997;114(2):162-168.
116. Wymenga AB, Hekster YA, Theeuwes A, Muyltjens HL, van Horn JR, Slooff TJ. Antibiotic use after cefuroxime prophylaxis in hip and knee joint replacement. *Clin Pharmacol Ther.* 1991;50(2):215-220.
117. McDonald M, Grabsch E, Marshall C, Forbes A. Single- versus multiple-dose antimicrobial prophylaxis for major surgery: a systematic review. *Aust N Z J Surg.* 1998;68(6):388-396.
118. Heydemann JS, Nelson CL. Short-term preventive antibiotics. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1986(205):184-187.
119. Stone HH, Haney BB, Kolb LD, Geheber CE, Hooper CA. Prophylactic and preventive antibiotic therapy: timing, duration and economics. *Ann Surg.* 1979;189(6):691-699.
120. Williams DN, Gustilo RB. The use of preventive antibiotics in orthopaedic surgery. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1984(190):83-88.
121. Tang WM, Chiu KY, Ng TP, Yau WP, Ching PT, Seto WH. Efficacy of a single dose of cefazolin as a prophylactic antibiotic in primary arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 2003;18(6):714-718.
122. Sharma D, Douglas J, Coulter C, Weinrauch P, Crawford R. Microbiology of infected arthroplasty: implications for empiric peri-operative antibiotics. *J Orthop Surg (Hong Kong).* 2008;16(3):339-342.
123. Nickinson RS, Board TN, Gambhir AK, Porter ML, Kay PR. The microbiology of the infected knee arthroplasty. *Int Orthop.* 2010;34(4):505-510.
124. Bengston S, Knutson K, Lidgren L. Treatment of infected knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1989(245):173-178.
125. Peersman G, Laskin R, Davis J, Peterson M. Infection in total knee replacement: a retrospective review of 6489 total knee replacements. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2001(392):15-23.

126. Mont MA, Waldman BJ, Hungerford DS. Evaluation of preoperative cultures before second-stage reimplantation of a total knee prosthesis complicated by infection. A comparison-group study. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2000;82-A(11):1552-1557.
127. Rafiq I, Gambhir AK, Wroblewski BM, Kay PR. The microbiology of infected hip arthroplasty. *Int Orthop.* 2006;30(6):532-535.
128. Al-Maiyah M, Hill D, Bajwa A, et al. Bacterial contaminants and antibiotic prophylaxis in total hip arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2005;87(9):1256-1258.
129. Phillips JE, Crane TP, Noy M, Elliott TS, Grimer RJ. The incidence of deep prosthetic infections in a specialist orthopaedic hospital: a 15-year prospective survey. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2006;88(7):943-948.
130. Tsukayama DT, Estrada R, Gustilo RB. Infection after total hip arthroplasty. A study of the treatment of one hundred and six infections. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1996;78(4):512-523.
131. Moran E, Masters S, Berendt AR, McLardy-Smith P, Byren I, Atkins BL. Guiding empirical antibiotic therapy in orthopaedics: The microbiology of prosthetic joint infection managed by debridement, irrigation and prosthesis retention. *J Infect.* 2007;55(1):1-7.
132. Azzam K, McHale K, Austin M, Purtill JJ, Parvizi J. Outcome of a second two-stage reimplantation for periprosthetic knee infection. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2009;467(7):1706-1714.
133. Kalra KP, Lin KK, Bozic KJ, Ries MD. Repeat 2-stage revision for recurrent infection of total hip arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 2010;25(6):880-884.
134. Jansen E, Stogiannidis I, Malmivaara A, Pajamaki J, Puolakka T, Konttinen YT. Outcome of prosthesis exchange for infected knee arthroplasty: the effect of treatment approach. *Acta Orthop.* 2009;80(1):67-77.
135. Kubista B, Hartzler RU, Wood CM, Osmon DR, Hanssen AD, Lewallen DG. Reinfection after two-stage revision for periprosthetic infection of total knee arthroplasty. *Int Orthop.* 2012;36(1):65-71.
136. Mortazavi SM, O'Neil JT, Zmistowski B, Parvizi J, Purtill JJ. Repeat 2-stage exchange for infected total hip arthroplasty: a viable option? *J Arthroplasty.* 2012;27(6):923-926 e921.
137. Fletcher N, Sofianos D, Berkes MB, Obrebsky WT. Prevention of perioperative infection. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2007;89(7):1605-1618.
138. Dellinger EP, Gross PA, Barrett TL, et al. Quality standard for antimicrobial prophylaxis in surgical procedures. The Infectious Diseases Society of America. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* 1994;15(3):182-188.
139. Scher KS. Studies on the duration of antibiotic administration for surgical prophylaxis. *Am Surg.* 1997;63(1):59-62.
140. Shapiro M, Munoz A, Tager IB, Schoenbaum SC, Polk BF. Risk factors for infection at the operative site after abdominal or vaginal hysterectomy. *N Engl J Med.* 1982;307(27):1661-1666.
141. Polk HC, Jr., Trachtenberg L, Finn MP. Antibiotic activity in surgical incisions. The basis of prophylaxis in selected operations. *JAMA.* 19 1980;244(12):1353-1354.
142. Ohge H, Takesue Y, Yokoyama T, et al. An additional dose of cefazolin for intraoperative prophylaxis. *Surg Today.* 1999;29(12):1233-1236.
143. Morita S, Nishisho I, Nomura T, et al. The significance of the intraoperative repeated dosing of antimicrobials for preventing surgical wound infection in colorectal surgery. *Surg Today.* 2005;35(9):732-738.
144. Swoboda SM, Merz C, Kostuik J, Trentler B, Lipsett PA. Does intraoperative blood loss affect antibiotic serum and tissue concentrations? *Arch Surg.* 1996;131(11):1165-1171; discussion 1171-1162.
145. Markantonis SL, Kostopanagiotou G, Panidis D, Smirniotis V, Voros D. Effects of blood loss and fluid volume replacement on serum and tissue gentamicin concentrations during colorectal surgery. *Clin Ther.* 2004;26(2):271-281.

146. Klekamp JW, DiPersio D, Haas DW. No influence of large volume blood loss on serum vancomycin concentrations during orthopedic procedures. *Acta Orthop Scand*. 1999;70(1):47-50.
147. Meter JJ, Polly DW, Jr., Brueckner RP, Tenuta JJ, Asplund L, Hopkinson WJ. Effect of intraoperative blood loss on the serum level of cefazolin in patients managed with total hip arthroplasty. A prospective, controlled study. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 1996;78(8):1201-1205.
148. Polly DW, Jr., Meter JJ, Brueckner R, Asplund L, van Dam BE. The effect of intraoperative blood loss on serum cefazolin level in patients undergoing instrumented spinal fusion. A prospective, controlled study. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976)*. 1996;21(20):2363-2367.
149. The Sanford guide to antimicrobial therapy. 30th ed; 2000.
150. Wurtz R, Itokazu G, Rodvold K. Antimicrobial dosing in obese patients. *Clin Infect Dis*. 1997;25(1):112-118.
151. Leader WG, Tsubaki T, Chandler MH. Creatinine-clearance estimates for predicting gentamicin pharmacokinetic values in obese patients. *Am J Hosp Pharm*. 1994;51(17):2125-2130.
152. Begg EJ, Barclay ML, Duffull SB. A suggested approach to once-daily aminoglycoside dosing. *Br J Clin Pharmacol*. 1995;39(6):605-609.
153. Janson B, Thursky K. Dosing of antibiotics in obesity. *Curr Opin Infect Dis*. 2012;25(6):634-649.
154. Truong J, Levkovich BJ, Padiglione AA. Simple approach to improving vancomycin dosing in intensive care: a standardised loading dose results in earlier therapeutic levels. *Intern Med J*. 2012;42(1):23-29.
155. Ho VP, Nicolau DP, Dakin GF, et al. Cefazolin dosing for surgical prophylaxis in morbidly obese patients. *Surg Infect (Larchmt)*. 2012;13(1):33-37.
156. Rybak MJ, Lomaestro BM, Rotschafer JC, et al. Vancomycin therapeutic guidelines: a summary of consensus recommendations from the infectious diseases Society of America, the American Society of Health-System Pharmacists, and the Society of Infectious Diseases Pharmacists. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2009;49(3):325-327.
157. Traynor AM, Nafziger AN, Bertino JS, Jr. Aminoglycoside dosing weight correction factors for patients of various body sizes. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 1995;39(2):545-548.
158. van Kralingen S, Taks M, Diepstraten J, et al. Pharmacokinetics and protein binding of cefazolin in morbidly obese patients. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol*. 2011;67(10):985-992.
159. Edmiston CE, Krepel C, Kelly H, et al. Perioperative antibiotic prophylaxis in the gastric bypass patient: do we achieve therapeutic levels? *Surgery*. 2004;136(4):738-747.
160. Liu C. The bundled approach to MRSA surgical site infection prevention: is the whole greater than the sum of its parts?: comment on "Sustained reduction in methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* wound infections after cardiothoracic surgery". *Arch Intern Med*. 2011;171(1):73-74.
161. Pofahl WE, Goettler CE, Ramsey KM, Cochran MK, Nobles DL, Rotondo MF. Active surveillance screening of MRSA and eradication of the carrier state decreases surgical-site infections caused by MRSA. *J Am Coll Surg*. 2009;208(5):981-986; discussion 986-988.
162. Wirganowicz PZ, Eckardt JJ, Dorey FJ, Eilber FR, Kabo JM. Etiology and results of tumor endoprosthesis revision surgery in 64 patients. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1999(358):64-74.
163. Safran MR, Kody MH, Namba RS, et al. 151 endoprosthetic reconstructions for patients with primary tumors involving bone. *Contemp Orthop*. 1994;29(1):15-25.
164. Malawer MM, Chou LB. Prosthetic survival and clinical results with use of large-segment replacements in the treatment of high-grade bone sarcomas. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 1995;77(8):1154-1165.
165. Capanna R, Morris HG, Campanacci D, Del Ben M, Campanacci M. Modular uncemented prosthetic reconstruction after resection of tumours of the distal femur. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 1994;76(2):178-186.

166. Mittermayer F, Krepler P, Dominkus M, et al. Long-term followup of uncemented tumor endoprostheses for the lower extremity. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2001(388):167-177.
167. Ghert M, Deheshi B, Holt G, et al. Prophylactic antibiotic regimens in tumour surgery (PARITY): protocol for a multicentre randomised controlled study. *BMJ Open.* 2012;2(6).
168. Jansen B, Rinck M, Wolbring P, Strohmeier A, Jahns T. In vitro evaluation of the antimicrobial efficacy and biocompatibility of a silver-coated central venous catheter. *J Biomater Appl.* 1994;9(1):55-70.
169. Karchmer TB, Giannetta ET, Muto CA, Strain BA, Farr BM. A randomized crossover study of silver-coated urinary catheters in hospitalized patients. *Arch Intern Med.* 2000;160(21):3294-3298.
170. Tsuchiya H, Shirai T, Nishida H. New implant technology: iodine-coating for infection control. Paper presented at: 26th European Musculoskeletal Oncology Society Meeting, 2013; Gothenburg, Sweden.
171. Tsuchiya H, Shirai T, Nishida H, et al. Innovative antimicrobial coating of titanium implants with iodine. *J Orthop Sci.* 2012;17(5):595-604.
172. Gosheger G, Harges J, Ahrens H, et al. Silver-coated megaendoprostheses in a rabbit model--an analysis of the infection rate and toxicological side effects. *Biomaterials.* 2004;25(24):5547-5556.
173. Harges J, von Eiff C, Streitbuenger A, et al. Reduction of periprosthetic infection with silver-coated megaprotheses in patients with bone sarcoma. *J Surg Oncol.* 2010;101(5):389-395.
174. Gosheger G, Goetze C, Harges J, Joosten U, Winkelmann W, von Eiff C. The influence of the alloy of megaprotheses on infection rate. *J Arthroplasty.* 2008;23(6):916-920.
175. Witso E, Persen L, Benum P, Aamodt A, Husby OS, Bergh K. High local concentrations without systemic adverse effects after impaction of netilmicin-impregnated bone. *Acta Orthop Scand.* 2004;75(3):339-346.
176. Buttaro MA, Gimenez MI, Greco G, Barcan L, Piccaluga F. High active local levels of vancomycin without nephrotoxicity released from impacted bone allografts in 20 revision hip arthroplasties. *Acta Orthop.* 2005;76(3):336-340.
177. Buttaro MA, Pusso R, Piccaluga F. Vancomycin-supplemented impacted bone allografts in infected hip arthroplasty. Two-stage revision results. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2005;87(3):314-319.
178. Michalak KA, Khoo PP, Yates PJ, Day RE, Wood DJ. Iontophoresed segmental allografts in revision arthroplasty for infection. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2006;88(11):1430-1437.
179. Khoo PP, Michalak KA, Yates PJ, Megson SM, Day RE, Wood DJ. Iontophoresis of antibiotics into segmental allografts. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2006;88(9):1149-1157.
180. Winkler H, Stoiber A, Kaudela K, Winter F, Menschik F. One stage uncemented revision of infected total hip replacement using cancellous allograft bone impregnated with antibiotics. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2008;90(12):1580-1584.
181. Buttaro MA, Guala AJ, Comba F, Suarez F, Piccaluga F. Incidence of deep infection in aseptic revision THA using vancomycin-impregnated impacted bone allograft. *Hip Int.* 2010;20(4):535-541.
182. Witso E, Persen L, Loseth K, Bergh K. Adsorption and release of antibiotics from morselized cancellous bone. In vitro studies of 8 antibiotics. *Acta Orthop Scand.* 1999;70(3):298-304.
183. Buttaro MA, Gonzalez Della Valle AM, Pineiro L, Mocetti E, Morandi AA, Piccaluga F. Incorporation of vancomycin-supplemented bone incorporation of vancomycin-supplemented bone allografts: radiographical, histopathological and immunohistochemical study in pigs. *Acta Orthop Scand.* 2003;74(5):505-513.
184. Witso E, Persen L, Loseth K, Benum P, Bergh K. Cancellous bone as an antibiotic carrier. *Acta Orthop Scand.* 2000;71(1):80-84.

185. Berbari EF, Hanssen AD, Duffy MC, et al. Risk factors for prosthetic joint infection: case-control study. *Clin Infect Dis*. 1998;27(5):1247-1254.
186. Yang K, Yeo SJ, Lee BP, Lo NN. Total knee arthroplasty in diabetic patients: a study of 109 consecutive cases. *J Arthroplasty*. 2001;16(1):102-106.
187. Meding JB, Reddeman K, Keating ME, et al. Total knee replacement in patients with diabetes mellitus. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2003(416):208-216.
188. Pedersen AB, Mehnert F, Johnsen SP, Sorensen HT. Risk of revision of a total hip replacement in patients with diabetes mellitus: a population-based follow up study. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 2010;92(7):929-934.
189. Adams AL, Paxton EW, Wang JQ, et al. Surgical outcomes of total knee replacement according to diabetes status and glycemic control, 2001 to 2009. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2013;95(6):481-487.
190. Haverkamp D, Klinkenbijn MN, Somford MP, Albers GH, van der Vis HM. Obesity in total hip arthroplasty--does it really matter? A meta-analysis. *Acta Orthop*. 2011;82(4):417-422.
191. Namba RS, Paxton L, Fithian DC, Stone ML. Obesity and perioperative morbidity in total hip and total knee arthroplasty patients. *J Arthroplasty*. 2005;20(7 Suppl 3):46-50.
192. Dowsey MM, Choong PF. Early outcomes and complications following joint arthroplasty in obese patients: a review of the published reports. *ANZ J Surg*. 2008;78(6):439-444.
193. Parvizi J, Sullivan TA, Pagnano MW, Trousdale RT, Bolander ME. Total joint arthroplasty in human immunodeficiency virus-positive patients: an alarming rate of early failure. *J Arthroplasty*. 2003;18(3):259-264.
194. Ragni MV, Crossett LS, Herndon JH. Postoperative infection following orthopaedic surgery in human immunodeficiency virus-infected hemophiliacs with CD4 counts \leq 200/mm³. *J Arthroplasty*. 1995;10(6):716-721.
195. Habermann B, Eberhardt C, Kurth AA. Total joint replacement in HIV positive patients. *J Infect*. 2008;57(1):41-46.
196. Wang TI, Chen CF, Chen WM, et al. Joint replacement in human immunodeficiency virus-infected patients. *J Chin Med Assoc*. 2012;75(11):595-599.
197. Unger AS, Kessler CM, Lewis RJ. Total knee arthroplasty in human immunodeficiency virus-infected hemophiliacs. *J Arthroplasty*. 1995;10(4):448-452.
198. Silva M, Luck JV, Jr. Long-term results of primary total knee replacement in patients with hemophilia. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2005;87(1):85-91.
199. Rodriguez-Merchan EC. Total knee replacement in haemophilic arthropathy. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 2007;89(2):186-188.
200. Shaarani SR, Collins D, O'Byrne JM. The need for guidelines in asplenic patients undergoing total joint arthroplasty: a case report. *Case Rep Orthop*. 2012;2012:147042.
201. McCleery MA, Leach WJ, Norwood T. Rates of infection and revision in patients with renal disease undergoing total knee replacement in Scotland. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 2010;92(11):1535-1539.
202. Lieberman JR, Fuchs MD, Haas SB, et al. Hip arthroplasty in patients with chronic renal failure. *J Arthroplasty*. 1995;10(2):191-195.
203. Sakalkale DP, Hozack WJ, Rothman RH. Total hip arthroplasty in patients on long-term renal dialysis. *J Arthroplasty*. 1999;14(5):571-575.
204. Li WC, Shih CH, Ueng SW, Shih HN, Lee MS, Hsieh PH. Uncemented total hip arthroplasty in chronic hemodialysis patients. *Acta Orthop*. 2010;81(2):178-182.
205. Nagoya S, Nagao M, Takada J, Kuwabara H, Kaya M, Yamashita T. Efficacy of cementless total hip arthroplasty in patients on long-term hemodialysis. *J Arthroplasty*. 2005;20(1):66-71.
206. Pour AE, Matar WY, Jafari SM, Purtill JJ, Austin MS, Parvizi J. Total joint arthroplasty in patients with hepatitis C. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2011;93(15):1448-1454.

207. Orozco F, Post ZD, Baxi O, Miller A, Ong A. Fibrosis in Hepatitis C Patients Predicts Complications After Elective Total Joint Arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty*. May 3 2013.
208. Vergidis P, Lesnick TG, Kremers WK, Razonable RR. Prosthetic joint infection in solid organ transplant recipients: a retrospective case-control study. *Transpl Infect Dis*. 2012;14(4):380-386.
209. Tannenbaum DA, Matthews LS, Grady-Benson JC. Infection around joint replacements in patients who have a renal or liver transplantation. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 1997;79(1):36-43.
210. Mortazavi SM, Molligan J, Austin MS, Purtill JJ, Hozack WJ, Parvizi J. Failure following revision total knee arthroplasty: infection is the major cause. *Int Orthop*. 2011;35(8):1157-1164.
211. Poss R, 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(182):117-126.
212. Sierra RJ, Cooney WPt, Pagnano MW, Trousdale RT, Rand JA. Reoperations after 3200 revision TKAs: rates, etiology, and lessons learned. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2004(425):200-206.
213. Liu C, Kakis A, Nichols A, Ries MD, Vail TP, Bozic KJ. Targeted Use of Vancomycin as Perioperative Prophylaxis Reduces Periprosthetic Joint Infection in Revision TKA. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. May 4 2013. Epub before print.
214. Nordmann P, Cuzon G, Naas T. The real threat of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* carbapenemase-producing bacteria. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2009;9(4):228-236.
215. Queenan AM, Bush K. Carbapenemases: the versatile beta-lactamases. *Clin Microbiol Rev*. 2007;20(3):440-458, table of contents.
216. Schwaber MJ, Carmeli Y. Carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae: a potential threat. *JAMA*. 2008;300(24):2911-2913.
217. Bratu S, Landman D, Haag R, et al. Rapid spread of carbapenem-resistant *Klebsiella pneumoniae* in New York City: a new threat to our antibiotic armamentarium. *Arch Intern Med*. 2005;165(12):1430-1435.
218. Marchaim D, Navon-Venezia S, Schwaber MJ, Carmeli Y. Isolation of imipenem-resistant Enterobacter species: emergence of KPC-2 carbapenemase, molecular characterization, epidemiology, and outcomes. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2008;52(4):1413-1418.
219. Cuzon G, Naas T, Demachy MC, Nordmann P. Plasmid-mediated carbapenem-hydrolyzing beta-lactamase KPC-2 in *Klebsiella pneumoniae* isolate from Greece. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2008;52(2):796-797.
220. de Smet AM, Kluytmans JA, Cooper BS, et al. Decontamination of the digestive tract and oropharynx in ICU patients. *N Engl J Med*. 2009;360(1):20-31.
221. Perez F, Pultz MJ, Endimiani A, Bonomo RA, Donskey CJ. Effect of antibiotic treatment on establishment and elimination of intestinal colonization by KPC-producing *Klebsiella pneumoniae* in mice. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2011;55(6):2585-2589.

Workgroup 4: Operative Environment

Liaisons:

Pouya Alijanipour MD, Joseph Karam MD

Leaders:

Adolfo Llinás MD (International), Kelly G Vince MD (International), Charalampos Zalavras MD (US)

Delegates:

Matthew Austin MD, Grant Garrigues MD, Snir Heller MD, James Huddleston MD, Brian Klatt MD, Viktor Krebs MD, Christoph Lohmann MD, Edward J McPherson MD, Robert Molloy MD, Ali Oliashirazi MD, Mitchell Schwaber MD, Eoin Sheehan MD, Eric Smith MD, Robert Sterling MD, Gregory Stocks MD, Shrinand Vaidya MD

Question 1: Do numbers of bacteria arriving in the surgical wound correlate directly with probability of SSI?

Consensus: We recognize that the probability of surgical site infection correlates directly with the quantity of bacteria that reach the wound. Accordingly we support strategies to lower particulate and bacterial counts at surgical wounds.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 97%, Disagree: 2%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Postoperative surgical site infections are believed to occur via bacterial inoculation at the time of surgery or as a result of bacterial contamination of the wound via open pathways to the deep tissue layers.¹⁻³ The probability of surgical site infection is reflected by interaction of parameters that can be categorized into three major groups.² The first group consists of factors related to the ability of bacteria to cause infection and include initial inoculation load and genetically determined virulence factors that are required for adherence, reproduction, toxin production and bypassing host defense mechanisms. The second group involves those factors related to the defense capacity of the host including local and systemic defense mechanisms. The last group are environmental determinants of exposure such as size, time and location of the surgical wound that can provide an opportunity for the bacteria to enter the surgical wound, overcome the local defense system, sustain their presence, replicate and initiate local as well as systemic inflammatory reactions of the host.

The use of iodine impregnated skin incise drapes shows decreased skin bacterial counts but no correlation has been established with SSI. However, no recommendations regarding the use of skin barriers can be made (See Workgroup 4 Question 27).

Question 2: Do numbers of bacteria in the operating room environment correlate directly with the probability of surgical site infection?

Consensus: We recognize that airborne particulate bacteria are a major source of contamination in the operating room environment and that bacteria shed by personnel are the

predominant source of these particles. The focus of our recommendations is to reduce the volume of bacteria in the operating room with particular attention to airborne particles.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 93%, Disagree: 5%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Air is a potential source of contamination in the operating room.^{2, 4} Studies have demonstrated that the number of airborne bacteria around the wound is correlated to the incidence of PJI.¹ It has been suggested that if it was possible to measure accurately the number of bacteria present in the wound it should constitute the most precise predictor of subsequent infection.⁵ Bacteria can be considered as part of the total mass of particulates in the air. Some studies have suggested that the airborne particulate count should be considered as potential surrogate for airborne microbial density.⁶ Others have found correlation between the number of particulates larger than 10 micrometers with the density of viable bacteria at the site of surgery (measured by colony forming units).⁷ It has been suggested that monitoring particulate count be used as a real-time proxy for increased risk of wound contamination or infection.⁷ Persons in the operating room are major source of bacterial load and shed bacterial particulates. These particulates circulate through the operating room via air currents. Movements of objects (personnel and/or operating room equipment including opening and closing doors) can generate significant marked air currents and increase the probability of bacteria being deposited in the surgical site.^{3, 8}

Question 3: Should the operating room (OR) in which an elective arthroplasty is performed be fitted with laminar air flow (LAF)?

Consensus: We believe that arthroplasty surgery may be performed in operating theaters without laminar flow. Laminar flow rooms and other strategies that may reduce particulates in operating rooms would be expected to reduce particulate load. Studies have not shown lower SSI in laminar flow rooms and some cases, are associated with increased rates of SSI. These are complex technologies that must function in strict adherence to maintenance protocols. We do recommend further investigation in this field.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 85%, Disagree: 7%, Abstain: 8% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: The most cited studies supporting the use of LAF were conducted in the 1970s and 1980s by Charnley and Lidwell et al.^{9, 10} However, several recent studies have shown no clear benefit of LAF in reducing the incidence of deep surgical site infection (SSI).¹¹⁻¹⁴ Breier et al. conducted a nationwide study in Germany, controlling for confounding factors with multivariate analysis, and found no independent effect of LAF on SSI rates, even when considering LAF rooms with large ceiling sizes (at least 3.2m x 3.2m).¹¹

A recent study by Hooper et al. that was based on the New Zealand joint registry evaluated the subject on a wide basis.¹³ The authors analyzed 51,485 total hip arthroplasties (THA) and 36,826 total knee arthroplasties (TKA) and revealed increased early infection rates with laminar flow use, especially for THA patients. This increase was found to be independent of patient characteristics, operative time, surgeon, or institution. Unfortunately, except for the study performed by Salvati et al. in which horizontal LAF was found to increase the risk of PJI in TKA, other studies, including those supporting the use of LAF,¹⁰ those opposing its use,¹³ and those with indifferent results,¹⁵⁻¹⁷ did not conduct any sub-analysis to distinguish influence of different types of LAF on PJI.

Question 4: Is there enough evidence to enforce the universal use of body exhaust suits during total joint arthroplasty (TJA)?

Consensus: There is currently no conclusive evidence to support the routine use of space suits in performing TJA.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 84%, Disagree: 11%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Similar to the situation with laminar flow, the use of space suits during TJA has become a subject of controversy. A recent study by Miner et al. showed no benefit in the use of body exhaust suits¹⁴ and a study by Hooper et al. evaluating the use of space suit and its effect on early infection rates identified an increased rate of early infection with the use of space suits both in conventional and in laminar flow theaters.¹³ However, there is some suggestion that space suits should be worn in laminar flow-fitted rooms to prevent contamination.^{18, 19}

Question 5: What strategies should be implemented regarding operating room traffic?

Consensus: We recommend that operating room traffic should be kept to a minimum.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 100%, Disagree: 0%, Abstain: 0% (Unanimous Consensus)

Justification: Personnel are the major source of air contamination in the OR, both by traffic that creates turbulence and contaminates ultraclean air and by bacterial shedding. Ritter et al. showed that bacterial counts in OR air increased 34-fold in an operating room with 5 people compared to an empty room.¹⁷ Keeping the OR door open also significantly increased bacterial air contamination of the room in the same study. Andersson et al. showed a positive correlation between traffic flow rates and air bacterial counts in orthopaedic procedures.¹⁵ They also identified a direct correlation between the number of people present in the OR and bacterial counts. Quraishi et al. further demonstrated a direct correlation between the activity level of OR personnel and bacterial fallout into the sterile field.²⁰ Panahi et al. observed door openings during primary and revision TJA cases.²¹ They identified 0.65 and 0.84 door openings per minute in primary and revision cases, respectively. The main personnel responsible for door openings were implant technical representatives and circulating nurses. Lynch et al. showed an exponential relationship between the number of door openings and the number of personnel in the OR. In their series, information requests (an easily avoidable cause) was the reason for the majority of door openings.²² Multiple door openings can result in a drop in the pressure gradient requiring more air being pumped through LAF systems and therefore the HEPA (high efficiency particulate air) filters are consumed more quickly. It has been proposed by experts that OR personnel pass through a sub-sterile hallway every time they enter or leave the OR, though evidence regarding this practice is lacking. If preoperative templating is possible, available sizes of the implants should be in the OR at the start of the surgery.

Question 6: Should operating lights be controlled with a foot pedal as opposed to reaching above eye level?

Consensus: We recommend a general awareness that light handles can be a source of contamination and to minimize handling of lights as much as possible. Other strategies for light control need to be developed in the future to minimize contamination.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 91%, Disagree: 4%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Davis et al. identified a 14.5% rate of contamination of sterile light handles during TJA cases.²³ Hussein et al. showed no evidence of contamination of the sterile light handle (autoclaved plastic or metallic) after 15 cases of primary TJA.²⁴ However, we were unable to identify other studies in the literature addressing the risk of contamination of the surgeon's gown or of parts of the sterile field when compared with reaching up for light adjustment, or studies that looked at air disruptions secondary to the movement of the surgeon reaching above eye level.

Question 7: Is there a role for ultraviolet (UV) light use in the prevention of infection after TJA?

Consensus: We agree that UV light environments can lower infection rates, but recognize that this can pose a risk to operating room personnel. We recognize that the benefit of UV might be the inhibition of operating traffic.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 74%, Disagree: 13%, Abstain: 13% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Even though UV light use has been shown to significantly decrease the number of bacterial counts in the OR, as well as the occurrence of postoperative infection, its use is harmful for OR personnel and increases the risk of corneal injuries and skin cancer; as such, current guidelines from the Centers for Disease Control recommend against the use of UV lights in the OR to prevent SSIs.^{5, 25-30}

Question 8: Do UV decontamination/sterilization lights or portable units in unoccupied operating rooms (nights and weekends) make a difference in the sterility of the OR environment?

Consensus: UV would be expected to lower bacterial load in operating rooms, but the technology has not been studied in this application. It might be considered an adjunct but not a replacement for conventional cleaning. There are potential risks to staff by UV technology inadvertently left on at the start of the work day.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 84%, Disagree: 3%, Abstain: 13% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: After a thorough literature search, we were unable to identify evidence to support or refute the use of UV light to keep the OR environment sterile outside operative times.

Question 9: Should the patient and OR personnel wear a mask to avoid contamination of the OR air?

Consensus: Despite the absence of conclusive studies that show a reduction in SSI when surgical masks are worn properly and uniformly by all staff, we believe there is reason to expect particulate airborne bacteria counts to be reduced by disciplined use of surgical masks. Until evidence appears that shows an advantage to NOT wearing a mask, we believe that it is in the interest of patient safety that all personnel wear surgical masks at all time that they are in the operating room. There is insufficient evidence to support the use of masks by patients that outweighs the benefit of airway access.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 85%, Disagree: 7%, Abstain: 8% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Several authors have questioned the utility of face masks worn by OR personnel in preventing air and wound contamination.³¹⁻³³ A study by Lipp and Edwards included 3 controlled trials with a total of 2,113 subjects and concluded that the use of face masks had no significant effect on surgical wound infections in patients undergoing clean surgery.³² Sellden et

al. decided to refrain from the use of face masks for unscrubbed personnel in the OR.³⁴ A recent randomized controlled trial (RCT) by Webster et al. showed that if none of the non-scrubbed OR personnel wore a face mask, there was no increase in the rate of SSIs. However, this study included non-orthopaedic as well as orthopaedic procedures and followed patients for only 6 weeks postoperatively.³⁵ Furthermore, it was not clear if orthopaedic procedures included implantation procedures. We were unable to identify studies looking specifically at face masks worn by the patient undergoing TJA or studies evaluating the benefit of this practice in reducing OR air contamination.

Question 10: What garments are required for operating room personnel?

Consensus: We recommend that all personnel wear clean theatre attire including disposable head covering, when entering an operating room. Garments worn outside of the hospital should not be worn during TJA.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 98%, Disagree: 1%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification:

Some aspects of the appropriate attire for surgical personnel (such as surgical gowns and gloves) have been addressed in other sections. Controversy has been raised regarding the utility of surgical masks or head coverings in the prevention of surgical site infection based on inconsistent results from experimental and clinical investigations in the field of general surgery, gynecology and cardiology (cardiac catheterization).³⁶⁻⁴² Nevertheless, as affirmed by CDC guidelines²⁸, use of surgical masks by all OR personnel is an advantageous and harmless behavior that provides a mechanical obstacle for OR personnel's oro- and nasopharyngeal secretions. These secretions may contain bacterial particulates and all efforts should be made to decrease the risk of exposure of surgical wound to these particulates. Moreover, masks can also be beneficial in protecting the personnel from patients' blood or other bodily fluids.

Question 11: What restrictions should be placed on the use of portable electronic devices (such as mobile phones, laptops, tablets, or music devices) in the operating room?

Consensus: We recognize that portable electronic devices may be contaminated with bacteria. We also recognize that increased levels of talking are associated with higher levels of bacteria in the operating room environment. Accordingly we recommend that portable electronic device usage be limited to that necessary for patient care.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 84%, Disagree: 14%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Many studies have shown a high rate of contamination of cell phones and other portable electronic devices used in hospitals by healthcare workers, from 44% to 98%, with a high percentage of resistant strains, namely extended-spectrum β -lactamase-producing gram-negative bacteria and methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA).⁴³⁻⁴⁹ Ulger et al. demonstrated that 52% of *Staphylococcus aureus* strains isolated from cell phones were methicillin-resistant.⁴⁸ Brady et al. showed that cleaning mobile phones with an alcohol-based solution significantly reduced contamination of mobile phones,⁴³ similar to what was previously observed by Singh et al. for pagers⁵⁰ and Hassoun et al. for personal digital assistants.⁵¹ Thus, regular cleaning of portable electronic devices with alcohol is highly recommended, as efforts towards maintaining hand hygiene to prevent nosocomial infections, including SSI, may be compromised by the use of handheld electronic devices that act as reservoirs of pathogens. Limitation of portable electronic devices in the OR is also advised, although no evidence in the literature is able to link their use to an increased risk of SSI.

Question 12: Does prolonged surgical time predispose to an increased risk of PJI?

Consensus: We recognize that SSI rates increase directly with the duration of surgery. We recognize that some surgeries present a marked and inescapable level of complexity that will

require more time. We recognize that minimizing the duration of surgery is an important goal and a cooperative effort on the base of the entire surgical team as well as the institution. We recommend that a coordinated effort be made to minimize the duration of surgery without technical compromise of the procedure.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 96%, Disagree: 3%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Numerous studies have linked increased operative time to the risk of infection after TJA with statistical significance.⁵²⁻⁶⁵ Skramm et al. investigated the incidence of SSI following THA and TKA for fractures after the implementation of surveillance policies. When considering the risk factors for infection, the duration of surgery was the only significant independent factor in a logistic regression model, also taking into account age, American Society of Anesthesiologists' physical status score, and level of emergency.⁶¹ The study by van Kasteren et al supported the use of duration of surgery more than the 75th percentile as a risk factor for PJI,⁶⁴ as previously suggested by the National Nosocomial Infections Surveillance (NNIS) risk index.⁶⁶ In a population-wide study based on the Danish national hip arthroplasty registry that included 80,756 cases of primary THA, surgical time was a significant independent risk factor for revision due to infection.⁵⁷ Similar results were reported in countries such as Norway and England.^{60, 62} Peersman et al. suggested using operative times as a predictive risk factor for infection after TKA in a risk stratification model.⁵⁸ In a systematic review of only observational studies that investigated deep SSI in THA and included more than 100 patients, Urquhart et al found just two studies that examined operative time.^{54, 60} After merging data from these two studies, they reported duration of surgery as an independent risk factor for SSI. In addition, in a recent analysis of 56,216 primary TKAs, Namba et al. identified a 9% increase in the risk of deep SSI per 15 minute-increment increase in operative time.⁵⁶

Nevertheless, methodological concerns exist regarding the studies that support the role of operative time as a risk factor for PJI, including missing data,⁹ failure to consider potential confounding factors,^{57, 58} and statistical considerations.⁵⁹⁻⁶¹ On the other hand, there are studies that failed to demonstrate such a correlation⁶⁷ or even found an opposite relationship.⁶⁸ Moreover, none of the previous studies considered the potential confounding role of repeat doses of antibiotic prophylaxis during prolonged procedures. Procedure duration may be an indicator of complexity of surgery (extensive surgical exposure and more severe tissue damage), surgical indication (previous procedures and indications other than osteoarthritis),

inexperienced surgical team, surgeon with slow pace, perioperative complications, inadequate optimal standardization program, or patient's preexisting medical conditions.^{57, 69, 70} Perhaps staff education in how to operate efficiently and follow systematically defined steps might decrease the risk of SSI. Interestingly, it has also been demonstrated that procedures with a longer duration are at increased risk for revision due to aseptic failure.⁶²

Question 13: Should the scheduling of elective TJA be ordered such that clean cases are not preceded by known infected, dirty, or contaminated cases?

Consensus: We recognize the concern regarding risk of infection to a clean surgery following a contaminated surgery. We recognize that studies have not demonstrated increased infection rates in clean surgery performed subsequent to contaminated cases. We recommend thorough cleaning as defined by local institutional standards, after contaminated surgery and before further surgery.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 89%, Disagree: 8%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Although performing an infected arthroplasty procedure before non-infected procedures is theoretically risky for cross-contamination between procedures, there is inadequate evidence to support or oppose this practice. However, this policy may allow the hygiene staff a thorough clean down procedure at the end of OR working day when there is no economical concern regarding the duration of time that might be required for a compliant OR disinfection.

Literature: A common practice in orthopaedic surgery, especially in arthroplasty, is to organize the OR in a manner so that confirmed or suspicious cases of infection are operated on at the end of the OR session after clean procedures. Whether the practice of performing a clean arthroplasty procedure following an infected case increases the probability of infection or not has not been adequately studied. Microbiologic studies have demonstrated long-term

survivorship of common nosocomial pathogens on inanimate surfaces.⁷¹ This may support the theoretical risk of cross-contamination between procedures if there is no efficient preventive strategy for disinfection of these surfaces after every procedure. There are only two retrospective studies that have addressed this issue, but both had inadequate power and inconsistent conclusions.^{72, 73} Despite the lack of evidence, a sound practice consists of thoroughly addressing this potential factor of PJI, even though there is inadequate evidence for cross-contamination between procedures.

Abolghasemian et al. evaluated 85 primary and revision cases performed after TJA resection for PJI and evaluated the risk of infection in those patients,⁷² After a minimum follow-up of 12 months, an increased rate of superficial or deep infections was not witnessed in this cohort when compared to 321 patients matched for demographic factors who did not undergo TJA after an infected TJA in the same operating room. The one patient who developed a deep PJI in the study group had a different infecting organism than the one responsible for the PJI of the preceding surgical case. Cleaning the OR after an infected case did not differ from cleaning after an aseptic case. Namdari et al. undertook a similar endeavor when they evaluated the development of infection in 39 cases of primary TJA performed after dirty cases. They identified one case of PJI in this cohort when the causative infecting organism (*Propionibacterium acnes*) was the same as the one causing the infection in the preceding septic case. However, no advanced microbiological testing was performed to certify that both organisms were of identical strains.⁷³

Question 14: Does patient normothermia have an essential role in preventing infectious complications?

Consensus: We recognize the significance of patient normothermia and the data from nonorthopedic procedures. We support general recommendations from the general surgery literature and identify this as a field that requires further research.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 92%, Disagree: 1%, Abstain: 7% (Strong Consensus)

Literature: Kurz et al. undertook an RCT of major colorectal surgery patients and demonstrated significant decrease in SSI rates in patients receiving warmed fluids and forced-air warming

(FAW) blankets compared to patients who did not receive aggressive maintenance of normothermia.⁷⁴ Melling et al. conducted an RCT in non-orthopaedic clean surgery and identified a significant role for patient warming in preventing SSI.⁷⁵ A systematic protocol using FAW blankets or local warming protocols using a radiant heat dressing led to a significant decrease in SSI. No such RCT was identified specifically for TJA or orthopaedic procedures in general.

Question 15: Do Forced Air Warming (FAW) blankets increase the risk of SSI?

Consensus: We recognize the theoretical risk posed by forced air warming blankets and the fact that no studies have shown an increase in SSI related to the use of these devices. We recommend further study but no change to current practice.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 89%, Disagree: 5%, Abstain: 6% (Strong Consensus)

Literature: Recent studies have raised concern about the possibility of bacterial air contamination by FAW devices. Some authors evaluated disruptions in airflow. McGovern et al. conducted an experimental study where they found that FAW blankets lead to a disruption in the airflow at the surgical site under laminar flow conditions when compared to conductive fabric warmers in simulated THA and spine surgery.⁷⁶ Legg et al. found increased air particles above the surgical site when using FAW compared to radiant warming.⁷⁷ On the contrary, Sessler et al. did not identify any worsening in air quality with use of FAW under laminar flow conditions.⁷⁸ Memarzadeh et al. reported the results of a computational study conducted by the National Institutes of Health which showed negligible disruption of laminar flow by FAW.⁷⁹

Other authors have investigated the bacterial contamination of OR air. Moretti et al. undertook air sampling in experimental conditions and demonstrated increased bacterial contamination of air after turning FAW blankets on; however, this was much lower than worsening of air quality induced by personnel placing a patient in the OR.⁸⁰ Tumia et al. undertook air sampling under laminar flow conditions in orthopaedic procedures and failed to identify any significant rise in air bacterial counts with the use of FAW.⁸¹ Sharp et al. also performed air sampling in laminar flow-equipped ORs to study the effect of FAW on air quality using volunteer patients with psoriasis who had increased shedding of skin cells.⁸² Air at 30cm from a theoretical operating site was

sampled and there were no positive cultures. In addition, a smoke test that was used to visually assess airflow found no disturbance by the FAW device. Zink et al. were also concerned by possible contamination of the OR environment with FAW, but did not resort to air sampling. Instead, they placed culture plates on the abdomen of volunteers with use of FAW and failed to identify increased contamination rates with this method.⁸³

Albrecht et al. found that the intake filters used in air blowers were not optimally efficient and resulted in colonization of the internal parts of the device. Overall, 92% of the devices they tested resulted in positive bacterial growth with organisms that are typically implicated in PJI (mostly Staphylococci species).⁸⁴ However, there is no concrete evidence to link the use of FAW system with SSI/PJI. McGovern et al studied a change of a warming system from forced air to an alternative system in 1,437 patients. A significant increase in deep joint infection, as demonstrated by an elevated infection odds ratio (3.8, $p = 0.024$), was identified during a period when forced-air warming was used compared to a period when conductive fabric warming was used. The authors conceded that the study was observational and may have been affected by other infection prevention measures instituted by the hospital.⁷⁶

Question 16: Should OR personnel be required to decontaminate their hands with at least an alcohol-based foam every time their hands have been in contact with inanimate objects (including medical equipment) located in the immediate vicinity of the patient?

Consensus: We support current recommendations for hand hygiene in patient care.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 86%, Disagree: 8%, Abstain: 6% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Properly performed hand hygiene affords protection to both the patient and healthcare worker from cross transmission of infectious agents. Hand hygiene should be performed by OR personnel involved in examination, manipulation and placement of the patient, in accordance with the World Health Organization's (WHO's) 5 Moments for Hand Hygiene.⁸⁵ There is ample evidence to confirm that transmission of pathogens from/to a patient to/from their immediate environment, defined below, occurs. However, there is inadequate evidence to show the influence of hand decontamination on this sequence. High-quality clinical

investigations are required to study the efficiency of hand decontamination on prevention of SSI and PJI. Frequent hand decontamination has been suggested,⁸⁶ but concerns have been expressed regarding skin irritation and contact dermatitis.⁸⁷ Moreover, some risk of change of bacterial flora to colonizing bacteria with skin damage might exist.⁸⁸

Literature: Five sequential steps for cross-transmission of microbial pathogens have been described.⁸⁶ These steps include shedding of skin flora to inanimate objects surrounding the patients, transfer of the bacteria to the healthcare worker's hands, adequate survival of the microbes on the healthcare worker's hands, inadequate hand antisepsis technique by the healthcare worker, and transmission of bacteria from the healthcare worker's hands to other patients or inanimate objects that can potentially be in contact with patients.

Approximately 10^6 skin squames containing microorganisms are shed daily from normal skin.⁸⁹ Therefore, surfaces located in the close vicinity of the patient (such as floor, bed lines, gowns, furniture, and medical equipment such as blood pressure cuffs) can become contaminated with patients' skin flora.^{86, 90-92} Hands or gloves of healthcare workers can be contaminated after contact with inanimate objects in patient rooms.^{93, 94} Laboratory-based studies have demonstrated that many bacteria, including *Staphylococcus aureus*, gram-negative bacilli, and *Enterococci*, can be transferred to the hands by touching contaminated surfaces.^{86, 94, 95} Microorganisms can survive on hands for different lengths of time varying between a few minutes to several hours and healthcare workers' hands can be progressively colonized due to poor hygiene, longer duration of care, and higher quantity of contamination.⁸⁶ In one study, the use of an alcohol gel hand wash was associated with a 36% decrease in nosocomial infection rates.⁹⁶ There is substantial evidence that demonstrates improvement in the rate of healthcare-associated infections with hand hygiene promotional programs that include the use of an alcohol-based hand rub, although studies with improved design methodology are needed.⁸⁶

Question 17: What are the guidelines for hand hygiene and glove use for personnel in contact with the patient for examination, manipulation, and placement on the OR table?

Consensus: We support current recommendations in patient care in accordance with principles of Standard Precautions.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 92%, Disagree: 1%, Abstain: 7% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Gloves should be used by OR personnel as dictated by the principles of Standard Precautions.⁹⁷ Added protection to the healthcare worker, via glove use, is required in the event of potential contact with blood, body fluids, secretions, excretions, mucous membranes, non-intact skin or contaminated equipment.⁹⁷ Glove use does not preclude the need for application of hand hygiene principles. In the event that the patient is on contact precautions, gloves should be used for all contact with the patient and/or the immediate patient environment. The dynamics of contamination are similar between gloved and ungloved hands.⁸⁶ Gloves can be contaminated after touching the patient or inanimate objects in patient rooms.^{92, 93, 98, 99} Risk of cross-contamination through contaminated gloves is similar to that of naked hands.^{92, 99} Therefore, when gloves are used in patient care, hand hygiene must be performed prior to donning gloves and following glove removal. A single pair of gloves may not be used in the care of more than one patient.

Question 18: Should triple gloving be used to prevent contamination during TJA?

Consensus: We recommend double gloving and recognize the theoretical advantage of triple gloving.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 89%, Disagree: 7%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: A relatively high rate of inner glove contamination has been identified with double-gloving in TJA, leading to the consideration of triple-gloving practices.^{100, 101} Hester et al. compared the rate of inner glove perforation with 3 different gloving protocols in TJA: latex/cloth, latex/latex, and latex/cloth/latex.¹⁰² They found a reduced rate of perforation when the outer glove was a cloth glove compared to a latex glove, and interposing a cloth glove between two

latex gloves yielded the lowest rate of perforation. While double-gloving with an outer cloth glove had a notable impact on tactile sensation and was troublesome when manipulating cement, triple-gloving with a cloth glove between two latex gloves was not perceived as having such an important impact. However, reported differences in rates were not shown to be statistically significant. Sebold et al. demonstrated that the use of a cloth glove between two latex gloves was able to reduce inner glove perforation rates to zero in their institution.¹⁰³ According to their observations, surgeon dexterity was not affected by this gloving practice. In addition, the authors showed that the use of orthopaedic outer gloves yielded lower inner glove puncture rates than regular latex gloves. Sutton et al. showed that a triple-gloving protocol with a cut-resistant liner interposed between the two latex gloves significantly reduced the rate of perforation compared to double-gloving with two latex gloves.¹⁰⁴ Overall, triple-gloving seems to decrease inner glove perforation rates; however, this is at the expense of a decrease in surgical dexterity and tactile sensation.

Question 19: How frequently should gloves be changed during surgery?

Consensus: We recognize the advantage of glove changes at least every 90 minutes or more frequently and the necessity of changing perforated gloves. Permeability appears to be compromised by the exposure to methacrylate cement and gloves should be changed after cementation.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 89%, Disagree: 6%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Al-Maiyah et al. conducted a RCT on THA procedures where the study group consisted of changing outer gloves every 20 minutes and before implant cementation, compared to changing only before cementation in the control group.¹⁰⁵ This change in practice led to a significant reduction in perforation and contamination rates of outer gloves. Kaya et al. reported that glove perforations occurred after 90 minutes on average and suggested changing gloves every 90 minutes.¹⁰⁶ Dawson-Bowling et al. evaluated glove contamination after draping and before opening the final components and found 12 and 24% contamination rates respectively.¹⁰⁷ Beldame et al. identified a significantly higher rate of glove contamination before prosthesis implantation and advised changing gloves before this surgical step.¹⁰⁸ The authors

also showed that when the outer gloves were contaminated, changing them lead to non-contaminated outer gloves in 80% of cases. Furthermore, in a prospective study, Carter et al. found that a surgeon's outer glove perforation occurred in 3.7 and 8.3% of primary and revision arthroplasty, respectively. They also found that inner glove perforation was ignored in 19% of double glove perforations and recommended careful inspection of the inner glove whenever outer glove perforation is noted.¹⁰⁰

Question 20: When should instrument trays be opened?

Consensus: We recommend that the timing of opening trays should occur as close to the start of the surgical procedure as possible with the avoidance of any delays between tray opening and the start of surgery.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 98%, Disagree: 1%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Dalstrom et al. recently demonstrated a direct correlation between the duration of open exposure of instrument trays and the risk of bacterial contamination.¹⁰⁹ Some trays were found to be contaminated immediately after opening. After eliminating those trays, they reported contamination rates of 4% at 30 minutes, 15% at 1 hour, 22% at 2 hours, 26% at 3 hours, and 30% at 4 hours. Brown et al. demonstrated that bacterial air counts during preparation and draping were 4.4 times higher than during surgery, leading them to recommend opening instruments after patient preparation and draping.¹¹⁰

Question 21: Should trays be covered with sterile drapes/towels when not in use?

Consensus: We recognize a theoretical advantage to covering trays when not in use for extended periods, and that larger covers may be disadvantageous, if they are moved from contaminated areas across the sterile field. We recommend further study of this question regarding timing and techniques.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 90%, Disagree: 4%, Abstain: 6% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Chosky et al. demonstrated that covering the instruments with sterile drapes reduced bacterial contamination rates 4-fold.¹¹¹ The Association of Perioperative Registered Nurses (AORN) guideline for maintaining a sterile surgical field does not recommend covering the sterile table with sheets that fall below the table top because such a practice may cause air currents that can transfer micro-organisms from a nonsterile area (below the table level) to the sterile field over the table at the time of drape removal.¹¹² Nevertheless, Dalstrom et al. showed that covering trays significantly reduced the risk of contamination and did not identify any increased risk of contamination when uncovering them.¹⁰⁹

Question 22: After skin incision, should the knife blade be changed for deeper dissections?

Consensus: We recognize high contamination rates in studies of scalpel blades that have been used for the skin incision and recommend changes after skin incision.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 88%, Disagree: 8%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: In the majority of institutions, separate blades are used for incision of the skin and the deeper tissues during TJA. However, several studies have questioned the necessity of such practice.¹¹³⁻¹¹⁵ When comparing contamination of skin and deep knives, Ritter et al. were unable to identify any difference in contamination rates in both conventional and laminar air flow conditions.¹¹⁵ Furthermore, organisms retrieved from deep wound cultures did not correlate with those that were on the knife blades, thus refuting deep wound contamination by the blades. Other authors subsequently corroborated these findings.^{113, 114} However, Davis et al. identified a 9.4% contamination rate of superficial blades and supported the routine practice of changing blades after incision.²³ Schindler et al. reported a 15.3% contamination rate for skin blades, 74% of which grew coagulase-negative *Staphylococcus* (CNS), one of the most frequent causes of

PJI.¹¹⁶ In this study, 10.8% of deep blades were contaminated, 50% of which with CNS. Based on their findings, the authors supported changing the skin blade after incision.

Question 23: Should electrocautery tips be changed during TJA? If so, how often?

Consensus: In the absence of evidence we recommend further study and no specific behavior.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 95%, Disagree: 0%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: After review of the literature, there were no studies relevant to the necessity and frequency of change of electrocautery disposable tips during elective TJA.

Question 24: Should suction tips be regularly changed during surgery? If so, how frequently? Should suction tips enter the femoral canal?

Consensus: We recommend changing suction tips every 60 minutes based on studies showing higher rates of contamination. Suction tips can be introduced into the femoral canal for the time necessary to evacuate fluid but should not be left in the canal, where they circulate large amounts of ambient air and particles that may contaminate the surgery.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 85%, Disagree: 8%, Abstain: 7% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Several studies have demonstrated high rates of contamination of suction tips during the intraoperative period^{23, 117-123} In 1988, Strange-Vognsen et al. identified a 54% contamination rate in orthopaedic procedures¹²³ Twenty years later, Givissis et al. found the same rate of contamination, with 78% of cases growing *Staphylococcus* species.¹¹⁷ The authors reported one case of deep SSI where the organism was the same as the one isolated from the suction tip. When looking at procedure duration, they showed a 9% contamination rate in procedures lasting less than an hour compared to a 66.7% in procedures lasting over an hour, which led them to advise changing of the catheter tip every hour. Similarly to Strange-Vognsen

et al., they recommended turning the suction off when not in use. However, there are concerns that turning off the suction might impose risk of contamination of the surgical field due to backflow of the material along the suction tube and tip.

Greenough et al. found a 37% rate of contamination of operative suctions used in THA.¹¹⁸ However, when evaluating the suction tips used only for cleaning the femoral shaft, only one of those (out of 31) was contaminated. The authors advised changing the suction tip before preparing the femur in THA. The same conclusion was drawn by Robinson et al. who conducted a similar study among patients undergoing THA in laminar flow rooms and identified a 41% contamination rate of suction tips.¹²²

Question 25: Should splash basins be used, as they are known to be a source of contamination?

Consensus: We recommend against the use of fluid filled basins that sit open during the surgery.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 88%, Disagree: 3%, Abstain: 9% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Andersson et al. showed that 13 out of 21 irrigation solutions stored in basins were contaminated at the end of the procedure in conventional ventilation rooms.¹⁵ Baird et al. revealed a contamination rate of 74% in their series among specimens taken from splash basin fluids. In their series, *Staphylococcus epidermidis* was the most prevalent organism.¹²⁴ Anto et al. demonstrated a 24% rate of contamination of liquid samples removed from the basins.¹²⁵ Conversely, Glait et al. recently showed much lower rates of contamination of samples taken from basins that were used to wash and store instruments with only one contaminated case out of 46 (2.17%).¹²⁶ However, they used culture swabs as opposed to culturing fluid in other studies.

Question 26: Do disposable instruments and cutting guides reduce contamination and subsequent PJI?

Consensus: We recognize possible theoretical advantages of disposable instrumentation but in the absence of data we can make no recommendations.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 95%, Disagree: 2%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Mont et al. have recently demonstrated a decreased contamination rate of 57% in non-navigated and 32% in navigated cases of total knee arthroplasty (TKA) when using single-use instruments, cutting blocks, and trials.¹²⁷

Patient specific instrumentation can shorten the duration of surgery in TKA.¹²⁸ However, there are no studies that have specifically evaluated the incidence of subsequent PJI in patients that received custom cutting guides or disposable instruments versus those undergoing TJA using conventional instruments and cutting guides. Thus, this issue remains unresolved.

Question 27: Is there a role for incise draping? What type of incise draping should be used (impregnated or clear)?

Consensus: We recognize the presence of studies that show iodine impregnated skin incise drapes decreased skin bacterial counts but that no correlation has been established with SSI. We do not make any recommendations regarding the use of skin barriers but do recommend further study.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 89%, Disagree: 7%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There is concern about the recolonization of skin and surgical site with the host flora during surgery.¹²⁹⁻¹³² Incise drapes are intended to provide a sterile barrier at the beginning of the surgical procedure. They are used on prepped surgical sites to provide additional protection and minimize the risk of recolonization. While it has been shown that impregnated

incise drapes decrease the recolonization rate of skin flora, there have been inconsistent conclusions about the existing evidence regarding the value of drapes in preventing SSI. High-quality evidence with PJI as an endpoint is lacking. Use of adhesive incise drapes impregnated with iodine should be avoided in patients with systemic or topical allergy to iodine.

The bactericidal action of iodine-containing incise drapes is inferior to conventional skin preparation solutions such as betadine. The sole use of incise drapes as a substitute for conventional skin preparation is not recommended.¹³³

In an experimental study on the skin of normal individuals, use of an iodophor-incorporated drape was significantly associated with a lower rate of recolonization of skin bacteria compared with skin-site preparation methods, with or without non-impregnated drape.¹³¹ However, another experimental study on an animal model found that after contamination of skin samples with *Staphylococcus aureus* suspension, iodine-containing adhesive drapes were as inefficient as the control group in reducing the number of colony-forming units.¹³⁴ Another experimental study found that non-impregnated drapes can facilitate the rate of recolonization of skin after antiseptic preparation.¹³⁵ In contrast, in an earlier investigation, bacteria did not multiply underneath a plastic adhesive drape and lateral migration of bacteria did not occur.¹³⁶

In a prospective RCT, Chiu et al., with the numbers available could not demonstrate a difference between the wound contamination rates after surgery of acute hip fractures with and without the use of plastic incise drapes (4/65 versus 1/55 for with and without drapes, respectively).¹³⁷

In another prospective RCT in abdominal surgery, within the group of clean and clean-contaminated procedures, iodophor-impregnated incise drapes significantly reduced the contamination of the surgical wound by normal skin flora organisms, but the study was unable to detect any significant difference in the rate of SSI compared with the control group in whom no drape was utilized (5.9 vs 5.6% for procedures performed with and without drapes, respectively).¹³⁸

In a prospective study comparing 122 patients undergoing hip surgery in which Ioban (3M Company, USA) was applied to the operative site 24 hours before surgery, bacterial sampling of the wound at the end of the procedure showed that the wound contamination rate was reduced from 15 to 1.6% by this method.¹³⁹

One review combined the results of clinical trials of a wide range of clean and clean-contaminated surgical procedures (caesarean sections, abdominal, and hip fracture

procedures), most of which did not meet criteria for high quality evidence. In these studies plastic (defined as polyethylene, polyurethane, or polyvinyl) adhesive drapes (eg Op-Site (Smith and Nephew), Ioban (3M), Steridrape (3M, United Kingdom) were utilized. The authors concluded that adhesive drapes are not associated with a reduced infection rate compared with no adhesive drapes and appear to be associated with an increased risk of infection.¹⁴⁰ However, the quality of the few studies included in this systematic review was not high. The authors concluded that if adequately disinfected prior to surgery, the patient's skin is unlikely to be a primary cause of SSI; therefore, attempts to isolate the skin from the wound using an adhesive drape may be pointless and potentially harmful, as excessive moisture under plastic drapes may encourage bacteria residing in hair follicles to migrate to the surface and multiply.^{137, 140}

Another issue that should be considered is that the type of skin preparation affects drape adhesion.¹⁴¹ A few studies demonstrated that addition of Duraprep (3M) enhanced the adhesive capacity of drapes.^{129, 130} Choosing a skin preparation that enhances drape adhesion may minimize drape lifting and the potential for wound contamination. It has been concluded that the separation of incise drapes from the skin was associated with a 6-fold increase in the infection rate compared with surgical procedures in which the incise drape was not lifted.¹⁴² A prospective RCT on patients with TJA confirmed that Duraprep solution was associated with significantly better drape adhesion than povidone-iodine scrub and paint. However, the study was not able to demonstrate a significant difference in skin contamination between the groups, although Duraprep was associated with slightly lower rate of contamination.¹³⁰

Allergic reactions to povidone-iodine can occur and there is at least one case report of allergic contact dermatitis associated with the use of iodophor-impregnated incise draping.^{143, 144}

Question 28: Does the application of towels or other sterile materials to wound edges and subcutaneous fat during an operation, clipped securely to the edges of the wound, diminish the chances of wound contamination and wound infection?

Consensus: We recognize the traditional practice of covering skin edges with sterile draping but there is wide variation in clinical practice and we make no recommendations.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 94%, Disagree: 2%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Evidence regarding the application of sterile material to wound edges is mainly available for abdominal open surgery.¹⁴⁵ There is no evidence regarding its use in orthopaedic surgery and we found no recommendation regarding their use for PJI. Towels can serve to support the drapes against instrument strike-through. They may also protect the wound edges from trauma by instruments such as retractors or broaches.

Literature: Wound edge protection devices (wound protectors or wound guards) have been used in abdominal surgery to avoid contamination and trauma of the wound edges during laparotomy.^{145, 146} There are two main types of protectors: (1) wound protectors with an external and internal ring connected by an impermeable plastic that covers the wound edges and (2) those with an internal ring connected to a drape that extends outward and over the abdomen and is fixed by adhesive material or clips.¹⁴⁶ They provide a physical barrier to protect the incision site from contamination. In contrast, adhesive drapes do not cover the edges of the wound. Wound protectors have only been used in abdominal surgery.¹⁴⁵ Two meta-analyses of RCTs compared the use of wound protectors with no protection in abdominal laparotomy. The authors concluded that their use seems to be protective against SSI.^{145, 146} However, the quality of those RCTs has been poor. Two multicenter trials on abdominal laparotomy procedures have been registered and are being conducted at the time of writing.^{147, 148}

Question 29: What type of draping should be used (reusable or disposable)?

Consensus: We recognize that penetration of drapes by liquids is believed to be equivalent to contamination and recommend impervious drapes. In the absence of data on disposable versus cloth drapes, we make no recommendation except for further study.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 90%, Disagree: 6%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: The available evidence is solely experimental. Most of the studies have been performed in models with rigorous conditions that are unusual in real-life situations. Clinical trials with PJI as an endpoint are lacking.

Literature: In addition to the physical properties of material applied for fabricating drapes, factors such as pressure, friction, contact time with contaminated material, state of moisture/dryness, and the moisturizing agent (blood, normal saline, or antiseptic solutions) can affect bacterial permeability of drapes.^{149, 150} While passage of bacteria through dry drapes does happen, the strike-through rate of bacteria is enhanced when wetted by normal saline or blood and diminished when wetted by antiseptic solutions (iodine or chlorhexidine).¹⁴⁹ Moreover, drape material may demonstrate different levels of impermeability depending on the penetrating particle (aqueous fluids, albumin, or bacteria).¹⁵¹⁻¹⁵³ Woven and non-woven materials vary in their ability to resist bacterial strikethrough. Disposable nonwoven drapes are superior to reusable woven cotton/linen drapes in resisting bacterial penetration. When wetted by normal saline, reusable woven drapes were penetrated by bacteria within 30 minutes, while the majority of disposable nonwoven drapes were not.¹⁵¹ Being impervious does not necessarily mean being absolutely impenetrable to bacteria and impermeability can vary between different disposable drape brands. However, disposable drapes considerably decrease bacterial load passing through them.¹⁵⁴

Two RCTs were conducted comparing reusable and disposable drapes and gowns in coronary artery bypass graft and elective abdominal surgery, with SSI as their main outcome. None of these studies found differences between the two types of gowns and drapes.^{155, 156}

Question 30: Is there evidence that the use of sticky U drapes, applied before and after prepping, effectively seals the non-prepped area from the operative field?

Consensus: We recognize that adhesive “U-drapes to isolate the perineum” has been traditional practice but in the absence of data we make no recommendations.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 83%, Disagree: 11%, Abstain: 6% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There are no published or unpublished reports that we could identify that were related to this issue.

Question 31: Is irrigation useful? How should the delivery method for irrigation fluid be (high pulse, low pulse or bulb)?

Consensus: We recognize the theoretical basis for irrigation to dilute contamination and non-viable tissue and that a greater volume of irrigation would be expected to achieve greater dilution. We recognize advantages and disadvantages of different methods of delivering fluid but make no recommendations of one method over another.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 91%, Disagree: 4%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There are indirect data regarding the optimal volume of irrigation in TJA. In both animal and human studies, increasing the volume of irrigation solution removes more particulate matter and bacteria, but the effect plateaus depending on the system. There have been no reported human clinical studies related to the volume of irrigation.^{157, 158} High-quality studies with PJI as endpoint are lacking. No evidence was found regarding differences in irrigation in primary and revision TJA. Use of high-pressure pulsatile lavage may have potential benefits of being time-saving and removing necrotic tissue and debris more effectively.¹⁵⁹⁻¹⁶⁴ It also improves the mechanical stability of cemented arthroplasty by allowing better cement penetration in cancellous bone tissue. However, there are some concerns regarding damage to tissue structures and propagation of bacteria into the deeper layers of soft tissues with the use of high pressure lavage. High-pressure pulsatile lavage should perhaps be reserved for severely contaminated wounds or for open injuries for which treatment will be delayed. Low-pressure irrigation might be useful if contamination is minimal or treatment is immediate. High-quality evidence is lacking regarding optimum lavage pressure in primary or revision TJA.

Literature: Decreases in the amount of bacteria present in the surgical site have been observed with normal saline lavage,¹⁶⁵ indicating that a component of physical removal for every irrigating solution should be considered. For a clean contaminated surgery (appendectomy) irrigation with normal saline was found to decrease SSI in comparison with no irrigation.^{166, 167} In one study that used pulsatile lavage with normal saline after cemented TKA, particles larger than 1 μm were collected consecutively after each liter of lavage up to 8 liters. The weight of these particles peaked in the first 1L lavage fluid and gradually decreased until the eighth lavage fluid. Significant differences were found between the first and second, second and third, and third and

fourth lavage. However, no significant differences were found beyond the fourth lavage. The results of this study indicated that 4L of pulse lavage is effective for removing the bone and cement particles during cemented TKA. The authors suggested that if bacteria are considered as particles of approximately more than 1 μm , 4L of pulse lavage may be effective for removal of bacterial particles.¹⁵⁸

The precise definition of high- and low-pressure lavage is not established in the literature. Generally below 15 psi (103.4 kPa) and over 35 psi (241.3 kPa) are considered low or high pressure, respectively.¹⁶⁸ High-pulsatile lavage has been shown to improve cement penetration in cancellous bone and increase mechanical strength at the cement-bone interface during *in vitro* studies.¹⁶⁹⁻¹⁷⁴ *In vivo* studies have also demonstrated fewer radiolucency zones in follow up x-rays evaluation.¹⁷⁵ In addition, a relationship between the pressure of irrigation and the quantity of cellular material removed from the bony trabeculae has been demonstrated.¹⁷⁶ However, there is no agreement on a cut-off point for high-pressure lavage. Some studies suggest that even lavage pressures that were considered to be too low to have macroscopic influence may still have an effect on bone marrow mesenchymal cells and direct them to differentiate into adipocyte tissues, thus declining the content of osteoblasts in marrow.¹⁵⁹

High-pressure lavage may result in tissue damage in cancellous bone, cortical bone, and muscle; and can negatively influence the healing process and early formation of new bone.^{91, 176-178} Pulsatile lavage (either high or low pressure) results in greater deep bacterial seeding in bone than does brush and bulb-syringe lavage in *in vitro* models^{162, 179} and can spread the contamination to nearby tissues.¹⁷⁹ High-pressure pulsatile lavage results in deeper bacterial penetration in muscle tissue in comparison with low-pressure pulsatile lavage.¹⁶⁸

There is a considerable body of evidence regarding open fractures and contaminated wounds. A few early and recent studies, including *in vitro* and *in vivo* human and animal studies, demonstrated that high-pressure pulsatile lavage is more effective than low-pressure pulsatile lavage for removing particulate matter, bacteria, and necrotic tissue, particularly in contaminated wounds that had delayed treatment.¹⁵⁹⁻¹⁶⁴ Moreover, in an experimental model it was demonstrated that low-pressure pulsatile lavage was more effective and efficient than bulb-syringe irrigation in reducing bacterial removal.¹⁸⁰

One prospective RCT showed that pulsatile lavage in comparison with normal lavage by syringe or jug leads to a lower incidence of PJI after cemented hemiarthroplasty for hip fracture (3/164

versus 10/192 for pulsatile and syringe lavage groups, respectively).¹⁸¹

In another study, the use of high-pressure pulsatile lavage during open debridement for the treatment of acute orthopaedic implant infections (mainly TKA, THA, and hip hemiarthroplasty) was associated with a similar success rate compared with the conventional manual low-pressure lavage (n=79).¹⁸²

Question 32: What type of irrigation solution should be used? Should antibiotics be added to the irrigation solution?

Consensus: We recognize the mechanical advantage of irrigation as per section 31 but that conflicting evidence exists supporting the use of one agent over the other and make no recommendation regarding type of solution.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 90%, Disagree: 7%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Detergents such as castile soap or benzalkonium chloride are effective in decreasing the burden of bacteria in musculoskeletal wounds because of their surface-active properties. The detergents act by disrupting hydrophobic and electrostatic forces, thereby inhibiting the ability of bacteria to bind to soft tissue and bone. It is possible that some detergents act on some bacteria more efficiently than on others.^{157, 183}

Weak evidence is available for the benefit of irrigation with diluted betadine solution before closure of surgical wound. However, no deleterious influence on wound healing or any other major adverse effects have been associated with their use. Concerns for its potential chondrocytotoxicity are supported by experimental evidence only. Lower concentrations (0.35 to 0.5%) with a short time of lavage might avoid potential chondrocytotoxic effects in partial knee arthroplasty. Further clinical evidence is required to define optimal concentration and length of exposure.

The pharmacodynamic profiles of antibiotics vary depending on the type, dose, and method of delivery.¹⁸⁴ A variation of these factors, a difference in surgical settings in which studies have

been performed, and a lack of specific efficacy criteria make it difficult to reach a conclusion regarding whether topical antibiotics are efficacious; and if so, what type should be used and which formulations are optimal for prophylaxis of SSI and PJI. Moreover, the safety of using topical antibiotics has been questioned. Evidence regarding wound irrigation with antibiotic solutions mainly comes from non-orthopaedic surgical specialties with clean-contaminated surgeries. Most of these RCTs found that adding antibiotics to irrigation solutions did not decrease the incidence of SSI significantly in comparison with irrigation with normal saline solution.^{160, 185-189} This finding has also been supported by some experimental studies.^{157, 190} Further high-level evidence with SSI or PJI as endpoints is required to evaluate the efficacy and potential adverse effects of local irrigation with antibiotic solutions on the surgical site.

Literature: *In vitro* studies show that Castile soap is more effective than antibiotic solutions at removing *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Staphylococcus epidermidis*, and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* from metallic implants and bone^{191, 192}. In an RCT on open fractures, soap and bacitracin solution did not result in any difference in the incidence of SSI, although bacitracin was associated with more wound complications¹⁹³.

In one RCT in general surgery, there were more wound infections in the saline group (39/258) in comparison with the povidone-iodine solution group (7/242).¹⁹⁴ Irrigation with dilute povidone-iodine solution (0.35%) before closure of the surgical wound in THA and TKA was associated with significant decrease in PJI.¹⁹⁵ The same solution was associated with a significant decrease in deep SSI in spine surgery (6/206 deep SSIs in the no betadine group versus 0/208 in the betadine group).¹⁹⁶ Ten of 15 studies (11 RCTs and 4 prospective comparative studies) in a systematic review of different surgical specialties (2 studies of spine surgery) demonstrated that povidone-iodine irrigation was significantly more effective at preventing SSI than the comparative interventions of saline, water, or no irrigation.¹⁹⁷ The other 5 studies did not detect any significant difference. This study has considerable methodological limitations, such as considerable variety in the types of surgeries, quality of clean or contaminated interventions, inconsistent concentration of povidone-iodine, and variable use of prophylactic antibiotics. There is no reported complication with the use of dilute betadine irrigation and no adverse effect on wound healing, bone union, or clinical outcome has been reported.¹⁹⁶ One study demonstrated an increased postoperative serum iodine which was not related to any adverse effects.¹⁹⁷ The cytotoxicity of povidone-iodine solution is controversial: Chondrocyte ability for DNA synthesis

significantly decreased after 5 minutes of exposure to povidone-iodine 1%. Other studies similarly show toxic effects of povidone-iodine solution on fibroblasts, keratinocytes, synovial cells and chondrocytes.^{198, 199} Cytotoxicity has been related in bovine chondrocytes with length of exposure, regardless of concentration, although higher concentrations were associated with less viability of chondrocytes. A concentration of 0.35% povidone-iodine was the least chondrotoxic but still reduced the cell viability when applied for longer than one minute. Cytotoxicity has been observed in cultured embryonic chicken tibia osteoblasts at a betadine concentration of 5%. Less cytotoxic effect occurs at a povidone-iodine concentration of 0.5%.²⁰⁰ Povidone-iodine preparations of 1, 5, or 10% do not have a deleterious effect on wound healing in animals and humans.²⁰¹ Povidone-iodine irrigation should not be used in patients with iodine sensitivity, burns, and thyroid or renal disease.¹⁹⁷ The sterility of povidone-iodine solution before its use should be meticulously monitored because its contamination has been associated with infectious complications.^{202, 203} One experimental study showed that there was no difference in the quality of cement fixation when irrigation was done with povidone-iodine or normal saline, although both solutions were inferior to hydrogen peroxide solution.²⁰⁴

Topical antibiotics should have a broad spectrum and low systemic absorption and be relatively inexpensive and harmless to the tissue. The most commonly used topical antibiotics include cephalosporins, aminoglycosides (neomycin), glycopeptides, chloramphenicol, polymyxin, and bacitracin.^{184, 205} The potential advantages of topical antibiotic use are their limited potential for systemic absorption and toxicity, low potential for development of antibiotic resistance, and the fact that their effect is essentially independent from the local physiological changes that may affect the efficacy of systemic antibiotics.²⁰⁶ However, topical antibiotics may produce contact dermatitis or hypersensitivity and their use has been reported to be associated with serious systemic effects such as anaphylaxis with bacitracin and deafness and renal failure with a neomycin-bacitracin-polymyxin combination.²⁰⁷⁻²⁰⁹ Earlier studies demonstrated that prophylactic topical administration of antibiotics in the surgical incision during various orthopaedic and non-orthopaedic procedures is more efficacious than normal saline. However, consistent results have not been reported regarding their efficacy.¹⁶⁵ *In vitro* and animal studies using bone or metal surfaces failed to show better performance for neomycin and bacitracin solutions in comparison with normal saline for removing bacteria from bone, titanium, and stainless steel.¹⁹⁰⁻¹⁹² Despite evidence that topical antibiotics decrease bacterial inoculum in clean surgical wounds,²¹⁰ it has not been shown that they offer any advantage over intravenous antibiotic prophylaxis, nor that they have been proven to decrease the incidence of SSI.^{184, 186} A study of a

canine model for TJA reported a reduction in the SSI rate with neomycin containing irrigation solution.²¹¹ There is concern regarding the adverse effect of topical antibiotic solutions on wound and bone healing. An RCT on open fractures found that topical irrigation with bacitracin solution did not decrease the incidence of SSI in comparison with soap, yet it was associated with a higher rate of wound complications.¹⁹³

Question 33: Is there a role for intraoperative application of autologous blood-derived products to the wound in preventing infection?

Consensus: In the absence of data we make no recommendation regarding autologous blood derived products to the wound to prevent infection.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 94%, Disagree: 2%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Although some benefits have been observed regarding intraoperative application of autologous blood-derived products in TJA, the majority of the studies were not sufficiently powered to be able to detect difference for PJI. Only one RCT demonstrated that use of these products directly decreased the incidence of postoperative wound infection.²¹² Larger-scale trials with PJI as an endpoint are required.

Literature: In TKA, application of autologous platelet gel and fibrin sealant together on the wound tissues at the end of surgery was associated with a higher postoperative hemoglobin level and decreased need for blood transfusion. The incidences of wound leakage, wound healing disturbance, and wound infection (0/85 versus 4/80) were significantly less in patients managed with platelet gel and fibrin sealant.²¹²

In a multi-center study (n=58) topical spraying of fibrin tissue adhesive (non-autologous

cryoprecipitate-based fibrinogen) was added to standard hemostatic measures in TKA and resulted in a decrease in blood loss and reduced blood transfusion requirements. There were 3 cases of superficial wound infection (2/29 and 1/29 for the treatment and control groups, respectively) without any significant difference.²¹³ Other similar RCTs on TKA (n=53)²¹⁴ and THA (n=81)²¹⁵ reported similar findings regarding blood loss.

In one RCT, using autologous fibrin sealant in THA, there was an association with less wound drainage and blood loss (no significant difference), yet the transfusion rate and hospital stay remained similar to the control group.²¹⁶

One review included 6 trials²¹³⁻²¹⁸ that studied the use of fibrin sealants in orthopaedic surgery. In these trials 482 patients were included, of whom 235 were randomized to receive fibrin sealants. The review found use of fibrin sealant in the context of orthopaedic surgery that was associated with a reduced postoperative blood loss on average around 223 mL per patient, and reduced the risk of exposure to allogeneic red blood cell transfusion by 32%. Fibrin sealant treatment was not associated with an increased risk of wound infection, any infection, hematoma formation, or death. Hospital length of stay was not reduced in patients treated with fibrin sealant.²¹⁹

Question 34: Do staples or the type of suture have an effect on infectious events? If so, what is the best closure method to prevent infectious events?

Consensus: In the absence of conclusive data and the wide variability in surgical practice, we make no recommendation regarding specific sutures or staples to prevent infection.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 92%, Disagree: 3%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: We are unable to draw a clear conclusion about the best method for closure to prevent infectious complications, due to inadequate definitions for infection complications of surgical wounds. In addition, the majority of the studies reviewed were underpowered. Evidence is lacking regarding patients whose health may interfere with wound healing and in surgical sites of high tension. Tissue adhesives should be considered as a biological sealant rather than a closure method of mechanical strength.

Literature: In an RCT that included 90 patients who underwent TKA, no significant differences in infection, dehiscence, general health, and functional and clinical assessments were observed. The study compared the following: (1) combined suture tissue adhesives defined by sutures for capsule and subcutaneous layers and tissue adhesive (2-octyl or nbutyl-2) for the final cutaneous layer, (2) staples, and (3) conventional subcuticular suture approach (sutures used for the capsule, subcutaneous, and cutaneous layers). It was observed that the length of hospital stay was higher with the staple group.²²⁷

Another trial included 187 patients who underwent TKA (n=85) and THA (n=102) and compared wound closure with 2-octylcyanoacrylate (OCA), staples, and sutures.²²⁸ Early wound discharge (less than 24 hours postoperatively) was reduced with OCA in both THA and TKA. In TKA, prolonged wound discharge was observed with OCA. No significant difference was observed in the incidence of superficial wound infections between groups. No deep infection was detected. Sealing of the wound as measured by blood strike-through onto the dressing was significantly improved with OCA in both joints. The authors concluded that for more mobile surgical wounds (such as with TKA), OCA might not be appropriate for skin closure because it does not provide adequate resistance for withstanding early rehabilitation.

In another trial including 90 patients with THA, skin adhesive and surgical staples were both effective skin closure methods. Staples were quicker and easier to use than skin adhesive and less expensive. No significant difference was found regarding the occurrence of complications, although the study was not adequately powered to detect any case of deep infection.²²⁹

A review of RCTs in a wide range of non-orthopaedic surgical specialty with pediatric and adult patients²³⁰ concluded that sutures were significantly better than tissue adhesives for minimizing dehiscence. Sutures were also found to be significantly faster to use. No differences were found between tissue adhesives and tapes for minimizing dehiscence or infection. Tapes and staples were significantly faster to use than tissue adhesives. For all outcomes of dehiscence and infection there were no statistically significant difference between high- and low-viscosity adhesives.

Smith et al. performed a meta-analysis to compare the clinical outcomes of the use of staples and sutures in orthopaedic surgery.²³¹ The authors included 6 small-sized studies and noted major methodological drawbacks including inadequate definitions for superficial and deep

infections in most of them. Based on these studies, they found a significantly higher risk of developing wound infection when the wound was closed with staples rather than sutures (17/350 versus 3/333 superficial or deep infections for staples and sutures, respectively). Five of the 6 studies included data on patients who underwent hip surgery. A higher risk of infection with staples also existed in patients who underwent hip surgery. At this point there is need for future studies to evaluate this issue further.

Question 35: Does the use of a surgical safety checklist and time-out affect the rate of SSI in arthroplasty patients?

Consensus: We support the surgical checklist protocol as beneficial to patient safety, and specifically as it applies to correct administration of prophylactic antibiotics.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 97%, Disagree: 1%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Checklists seem to improve inter-professional communication in the OR. High-quality evidence exists supporting the beneficial effect of surgical safety checklists and time-outs for reduction of SSI and other major postoperative complications by assuring timely administration of preoperative antibiotic prophylaxis. However, evidence shows that many elements of adapted checklists are not adequately performed. There is no evidence regarding the influence of implementing a mandatory surgical checklist on appropriate application of evidence-based measures for SSI in TJA. Existing evidence shows the beneficial effect of mandatory safety checklists on infectious complications for other simpler procedures.

Literature: One study showed that implementation of an inter-professional preoperative checklist in the OR was associated with a decline in communication failures (mean number of communication failures per procedure decreased from 3.95 to 1.31; the number of communication failures associated with visible negative consequences decreased by 64%).²³²

A relationship appears to exist between the adoption of a routine preoperative checklist by the surgical team and improvement in the timing of antibiotic prophylaxis.²³³⁻²³⁵ In a prospective

study of 8 diverse hospitals around the world (including high- and low-income locations), substantial decreases in major surgical complications and mortality during the early postoperative period was observed after implementation of a World Health Organization checklist in the OR. The adherence rate to appropriate preoperative antibiotic administration increased from 5 to 83% and the incidence of SSI significantly decreased from 6.2 to 3.4% ($p < 0.001$). The improvement in quality of care was observed even with incomplete compliance of the checklist.²³⁶ In another study performed in hospitals with a high standard of care in the Netherlands, performing the surgical patient safety system check list, which includes pre-, intra-, and postoperative elements, also reduced the incidence of SSI (from 3.8% to 2.7%, $p = 0.006$) as well as other major postoperative complications. Compliance was associated with greater improvements in quality of care.²³³

In a prospective study, it was observed that many evidence-based measures for SSI reduction (prophylactic antibiotic timing, maintaining normothermia during surgery, appropriate urinary tract catheterization, and hand hygiene) were not applied adequately for arthroplasty procedures and the situation was even worse for fracture surgeries.²³⁷ There is no evidence regarding the influence of a mandatory checklist on appropriate application of its components. However, there are prospective studies demonstrating that implementing mandatory checklists resulted in decrease in the incidence of central line associated bloodstream infections in intensive care unit patients.^{238, 239}

References:

1. Lidwell OM, Lowbury EJ, Whyte W, Blowers R, Stanley SJ, Lowe D. Airborne contamination of wounds in joint replacement operations: the relationship to sepsis rates. *J Hosp Infect.* 1983;4(2):111-131.
2. McPherson EJ, Peters CL. Chapter 20 Musculoskeletal Infection. *Orthopedic Knowledge Update* 10; 2011:239-258.
3. Whyte W, Hodgson R, Tinkler J. The importance of airborne bacterial contamination of wounds. *J Hosp Infect.* 1982;3(2):123-135.
4. Edmiston CE, Jr., Seabrook GR, Cambria RA, et al. Molecular epidemiology of microbial contamination in the operating room environment: Is there a risk for infection? *Surgery.* 2005;138(4):573-579; discussion 579-582.
5. Taylor GJ, Bannister GC, Leeming JP. Wound disinfection with ultraviolet radiation. *J Hosp Infect.* 1995;30(2):85-93.

6. Seal DV, Clark RP. Electronic particle counting for evaluating the quality of air in operating theatres: a potential basis for standards? *J Appl Bacteriol.* 1990;68(3):225-230.
7. Stocks GW, Self SD, Thompson B, Adame XA, O'Connor DP. Predicting bacterial populations based on airborne particulates: a study performed in nonlaminar flow operating rooms during joint arthroplasty surgery. *Am J Infect Control.* 2010;38(3):199-204.
8. Friberg B, Friberg S, Burman LG. Correlation between surface and air counts of particles carrying aerobic bacteria in operating rooms with turbulent ventilation: an experimental study. *J Hosp Infect.* 1999;42(1):61-68.
9. Charnley J. Postoperative infection after total hip replacement with special reference to air contamination in the operating room. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1972;87:167-187.
10. Lidwell OM, Lowbury EJ, Whyte W, Blowers R, Stanley SJ, Lowe D. Effect of ultraclean air in operating rooms on deep sepsis in the joint after total hip or knee replacement: a randomised study. *Br Med J (Clin Res Ed).* 1982;285(6334):10-14.
11. Breier AC, Brandt C, Sohr D, Geffers C, Gastmeier P. Laminar airflow ceiling size: no impact on infection rates following hip and knee prosthesis. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* 2011;32(11):1097-1102.
12. Gastmeier P, Breier AC, Brandt C. Influence of laminar airflow on prosthetic joint infections: a systematic review. *J Hosp Infect.* 2012;81(2):73-78.
13. Hooper GJ, Rothwell AG, Frampton C, Wyatt MC. Does the use of laminar flow and space suits reduce early deep infection after total hip and knee replacement?: the ten-year results of the New Zealand Joint Registry. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2011;93(1):85-90.
14. Miner AL, Losina E, Katz JN, Fossel AH, Platt R. Deep infection after total knee replacement: impact of laminar airflow systems and body exhaust suits in the modern operating room. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* 2007;28(2):222-226.
15. Andersson BM, Lidgren L, Schalen C, Steen A. Contamination of irrigation solutions in an operating theatre. *Infect Control.* 1984;5(7):339-341.
16. Brandt C, Hott U, Sohr D, Daschner F, Gastmeier P, Ruden H. Operating room ventilation with laminar airflow shows no protective effect on the surgical site infection rate in orthopedic and abdominal surgery. *Ann Surg.* 2008;248(5):695-700.
17. Ritter MA, Eitzen H, French ML, Hart JB. The operating room environment as affected by people and the surgical face mask. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1975(111):147-150.
18. Salvati EA, Robinson RP, Zeno SM, Koslin BL, Brause BD, Wilson PD, Jr. Infection rates after 3175 total hip and total knee replacements performed with and without a horizontal unidirectional filtered air-flow system. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1982;64(4):525-535.
19. Taylor GJ, Bannister GC. Infection and interposition between ultraclean air source and wound. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1993;75(3):503-504.
20. Quraishi ZA, Blais FX, Sottile WS, Adler LM. Movement of personnel and wound contamination. *AORN J.* 1983;38(1):146-147, 150-146.
21. Panahi P, Stroh M, Casper DS, Parvizi J, Austin MS. Operating room traffic is a major concern during total joint arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2012;470(10):2690-2694.
22. Lynch RJ, Englesbe MJ, Sturm L, et al. Measurement of foot traffic in the operating room: implications for infection control. *Am J Med Qual.* 2009;24(1):45-52.
23. Davis N, Curry A, Gambhir AK, et al. Intraoperative bacterial contamination in operations for joint replacement. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1999;81(5):886-889.
24. Hussein JR, Villar RN, Gray AJ, Farrington M. Use of light handles in the laminar flow operating theatre--is it a cause of bacterial concern? *Ann R Coll Surg Engl.* 2001;83(5):353-354.
25. Berg M, Bergman BR, Hoborn J. Ultraviolet radiation compared to an ultra-clean air enclosure. Comparison of air bacteria counts in operating rooms. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1991;73(5):811-815.
26. Carlsson AS, Nilsson B, Walder MH, Osterberg K. Ultraviolet radiation and air contamination during total hip replacement. *J Hosp Infect.* 1986;7(2):176-184.

27. Lowell JD, Kundsinn RB, Schwartz CM, Pozin D. Ultraviolet radiation and reduction of deep wound infection following hip and knee arthroplasty. *Ann N Y Acad Sci.* 1980;353:285-293.
28. Mangram AJ, Horan TC, Pearson ML, Silver LC, Jarvis WR. Guideline for Prevention of Surgical Site Infection, 1999. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) Hospital Infection Control Practices Advisory Committee. *Am J Infect Control.* 1999;27(2):97-132; quiz 133-134; discussion 196.
29. Moggio M, Goldner JL, McCollum DE, Beissinger SF. Wound infections in patients undergoing total hip arthroplasty. Ultraviolet light for the control of airborne bacteria. *Arch Surg.* 1979;114(7):815-823.
30. Ritter MA, Olberding EM, Malinzak RA. Ultraviolet lighting during orthopaedic surgery and the rate of infection. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2007;89(9):1935-1940.
31. Belkin NL. The surgical mask has its first performance standard--a century after it was introduced. *Bull Am Coll Surg.* 2009;94(12):22-25.
32. Lipp A, Edwards P. Disposable surgical face masks: a systematic review. *Can Oper Room Nurs J.* 2005;23(3):20-21, 24-25, 33-28.
33. Romney MG. Surgical face masks in the operating theatre: re-examining the evidence. *J Hosp Infect.* 2001;47(4):251-256.
34. Sellden E. Is routine use of a face mask necessary in the operating room? *Anesthesiology.* 2010;113(6):1447.
35. Webster J, Croger S, Lister C, Doidge M, Terry MJ, Jones I. Use of face masks by non-scrubbed operating room staff: a randomized controlled trial. *ANZ J Surg.* 2010;80(3):169-173.
36. Berger SA, Kramer M, Nagar H, Finkelstein A, Frimmerman A, Miller HI. Effect of surgical mask position on bacterial contamination of the operative field. *J Hosp Infect.* 1993;23(1):51-54.
37. Chamberlain GV, Houang E. Trial of the use of masks in the gynaecological operating theatre. *Ann R Coll Surg Engl.* 1984;66(6):432-433.
38. Laslett LJ, Sabin A. Wearing of caps and masks not necessary during cardiac catheterization. *Cathet Cardiovasc Diagn.* 1989;17(3):158-160.
39. Mitchell NJ, Hunt S. Surgical face masks in modern operating rooms--a costly and unnecessary ritual? *J Hosp Infect.* 1991;18(3):239-242.
40. Orr NW, Bailey S. Masks in surgery. *J Hosp Infect.* 1992;20(1):57.
41. Tunevall TG. Postoperative wound infections and surgical face masks: a controlled study. *World J Surg.* 1991;15(3):383-387; discussion 387-388.
42. Tunevall TG, Jorbeck H. Influence of wearing masks on the density of airborne bacteria in the vicinity of the surgical wound. *Eur J Surg.* 1992;158(5):263-266.
43. Brady RR, Chitnis S, Stewart RW, Graham C, Yalamarathi S, Morris K. NHS connecting for health: healthcare professionals, mobile technology, and infection control. *Telemed J E Health.* 2012;18(4):289-291.
44. Jeske HC, Tiefenthaler W, Hohlrieder M, Hinterberger G, Benzer A. Bacterial contamination of anaesthetists' hands by personal mobile phone and fixed phone use in the operating theatre. *Anaesthesia.* 2007;62(9):904-906.
45. Lee YJ, Yoo CG, Lee CT, et al. Contamination rates between smart cell phones and non-smart cell phones of healthcare workers. *J Hosp Med.* 2013;8(3):144-147.
46. Sadat-Ali M, Al-Omran AK, Azam Q, et al. Bacterial flora on cell phones of health care providers in a teaching institution. *Am J Infect Control.* 2010;38(5):404-405.
47. Singh A, Purohit B. Mobile phones in hospital settings: a serious threat to infection. *Occup Health Saf.* 2012;81(3):42-44.
48. Ulger F, Esen S, Dilek A, Yanik K, Gunaydin M, Leblebicioglu H. Are we aware how contaminated our mobile phones with nosocomial pathogens? *Ann Clin Microbiol Antimicrob.* 2009;8:7.

49. Ustun C, Cihangiroglu M. Health care workers' mobile phones: a potential cause of microbial cross-contamination between hospitals and community. *J Occup Environ Hyg.* 2012;9(9):538-542.
50. Singh D, Kaur H, Gardner WG, Treen LB. Bacterial contamination of hospital pagers. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* 2002;23(5):274-276.
51. Hassoun A, Vellozzi EM, Smith MA. Colonization of personal digital assistants carried by healthcare professionals. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* 2004;25(11):1000-1001.
52. Carroll K, Dowsey M, Choong P, Peel T. Risk factors for superficial wound complications in hip and knee arthroplasty. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* Mar 7 2013.
53. Cordero-Ampuero J, de Dios M. What are the risk factors for infection in hemiarthroplasties and total hip arthroplasties? *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2010;468(12):3268-3277.
54. Huotari K, Agthe N, Lyytikainen O. Validation of surgical site infection surveillance in orthopedic procedures. *Am J Infect Control.* 2007;35(4):216-221.
55. Masgala A, Chronopoulos E, Nikolopoulos G, et al. Risk factors affecting the incidence of infection after orthopaedic surgery: the role of chemoprophylaxis. *Cent Eur J Public Health.* 2012;20(4):252-256.
56. Namba RS, Inacio MC, Paxton EW. Risk factors associated with deep surgical site infections after primary total knee arthroplasty: an analysis of 56,216 knees. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2013;95(9):775-782.
57. Pedersen AB, Svendsen JE, Johnsen SP, Riis A, Overgaard S. Risk factors for revision due to infection after primary total hip arthroplasty. A population-based study of 80,756 primary procedures in the Danish Hip Arthroplasty Registry. *Acta Orthop.* 2010;81(5):542-547.
58. Peersman G, Laskin R, Davis J, Peterson MG, Richart T. Prolonged operative time correlates with increased infection rate after total knee arthroplasty. *HSS J.* 2006;2(1):70-72.
59. Pulido L, Ghanem E, Joshi A, Purtill JJ, Parvizi J. Periprosthetic joint infection: the incidence, timing, and predisposing factors. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2008;466(7):1710-1715.
60. Ridgeway S, Wilson J, Charlet A, Kafatos G, Pearson A, Coello R. Infection of the surgical site after arthroplasty of the hip. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2005;87(6):844-850.
61. Skramm I, Saltyte Benth J, Bukholm G. Decreasing time trend in SSI incidence for orthopaedic procedures: surveillance matters! *J Hosp Infect.* 2012;82(4):243-247.
62. Smabrekke A, Espehaug B, Havelin LI, Furnes O. Operating time and survival of primary total hip replacements: an analysis of 31,745 primary cemented and uncemented total hip replacements from local hospitals reported to the Norwegian Arthroplasty Register 1987-2001. *Acta Orthop Scand.* 2004;75(5):524-532.
63. Urquhart DM, Hanna FS, Brennan SL, et al. Incidence and risk factors for deep surgical site infection after primary total hip arthroplasty: a systematic review. *J Arthroplasty.* 2010;25(8):1216-1222 e1211-1213.
64. van Kasteren ME, Mannien J, Ott A, Kullberg BJ, de Boer AS, Gyssens IC. Antibiotic prophylaxis and the risk of surgical site infections following total hip arthroplasty: timely administration is the most important factor. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2007;44(7):921-927.
65. Willis-Owen CA, Konyves A, Martin DK. Factors affecting the incidence of infection in hip and knee replacement: an analysis of 5277 cases. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2010;92(8):1128-1133.
66. Culver DH, Horan TC, Gaynes RP, et al. Surgical wound infection rates by wound class, operative procedure, and patient risk index. National Nosocomial Infections Surveillance System. *Am J Med.* 1991;91(3B):152S-157S.
67. Wymenga AB, van Horn JR, Theeuwes A, Muijtjens HL, Slooff TJ. Perioperative factors associated with septic arthritis after arthroplasty. Prospective multicenter study of 362 knee and 2,651 hip operations. *Acta Orthop Scand.* 1992;63(6):665-671.

68. de Boer AS, Geubbels EL, Wille J, Mintjes-de Groot AJ. Risk assessment for surgical site infections following total hip and total knee prostheses. *J Chemother.* 2001;13 Spec No 1(1):42-47.
69. Jaffer AK, Barsoum WK, Krebs V, Hurbanek JG, Morra N, Brotman DJ. Duration of anesthesia and venous thromboembolism after hip and knee arthroplasty. *Mayo Clin Proc.* 2005;80(6):732-738.
70. Strum DP, Sampson AR, May JH, Vargas LG. Surgeon and type of anesthesia predict variability in surgical procedure times. *Anesthesiology.* 2000;92(5):1454-1466.
71. Kramer A, Schwebke I, Kampf G. How long do nosocomial pathogens persist on inanimate surfaces? A systematic review. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2006;6:130.
72. Abolghasemian M, Sternheim A, Shakib A, Safir OA, Backstein D. Is arthroplasty immediately after an infected case a risk factor for infection? *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2013;471(7):2253-2258.
73. Namdari S, Voleti PB, Baldwin KD, Lee GC. Primary total joint arthroplasty performed in operating rooms following cases of known infection. *Orthopedics.* 2011;34(9):e541-545.
74. Kurz A, Sessler DI, Lenhardt R. Perioperative normothermia to reduce the incidence of surgical-wound infection and shorten hospitalization. Study of Wound Infection and Temperature Group. *N Engl J Med.* 1996;334(19):1209-1215.
75. Melling AC, Ali B, Scott EM, Leaper DJ. Effects of preoperative warming on the incidence of wound infection after clean surgery: a randomised controlled trial. *Lancet.* 2001;358(9285):876-880.
76. McGovern PD, Albrecht M, Belani KG, et al. Forced-air warming and ultra-clean ventilation do not mix: an investigation of theatre ventilation, patient warming and joint replacement infection in orthopaedics. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2011;93(11):1537-1544.
77. Legg AJ, Cannon T, Hamer AJ. Do forced air patient-warming devices disrupt unidirectional downward airflow? *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2012;94(2):254-256.
78. Sessler DI, Olmsted RN, Kuelpmann R. Forced-air warming does not worsen air quality in laminar flow operating rooms. *Anesth Analg.* 2011;113(6):1416-1421.
79. Memarzadeh F. Active warming systems to maintain perioperative normothermia in hip replacement surgery. *J Hosp Infect.* 2010;75(4):332-333.
80. Moretti B, Larocca AM, Napoli C, et al. Active warming systems to maintain perioperative normothermia in hip replacement surgery: a therapeutic aid or a vector of infection? *J Hosp Infect.* 2009;73(1):58-63.
81. Tumia N, Ashcroft GP. Convection warmers--a possible source of contamination in laminar airflow operating theatres? *J Hosp Infect.* 2002;52(3):171-174.
82. Sharp RJ, Chesworth T, Fern ED. Do warming blankets increase bacterial counts in the operating field in a laminar-flow theatre? *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2002;84(4):486-488.
83. Zink RS, Iazzo PA. Convective warming therapy does not increase the risk of wound contamination in the operating room. *Anesth Analg.* 1993;76(1):50-53.
84. Albrecht M, Gauthier RL, Belani K, Litchy M, Leaper D. Forced-air warming blowers: An evaluation of filtration adequacy and airborne contamination emissions in the operating room. *Am J Infect Control.* 2011;39(4):321-328.
85. World Health Organization. Clean care is safer care. <http://who.int/gpsc/5may/background/5moments/en>. Accessed July 30, 2013.
86. Pittet D, Allegranzi B, Sax H, et al. Evidence-based model for hand transmission during patient care and the role of improved practices. *Lancet Infect Dis.* 2006;6(10):641-652.
87. Chou DT, Achan P, Ramachandran M. The World Health Organization '5 moments of hand hygiene': the scientific foundation. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2012;94(4):441-445.
88. Larson EL, Hughes CA, Pyrek JD, Sparks SM, Cagatay EU, Bartkus JM. Changes in bacterial flora associated with skin damage on hands of health care personnel. *Am J Infect Control.* 1998;26(5):513-521.

89. Noble WC. Dispersal of skin microorganisms. *Br J Dermatol.* 1975;93(4):477-485.
90. Bonten MJ, Hayden MK, Nathan C, et al. Epidemiology of colonisation of patients and environment with vancomycin-resistant enterococci. *Lancet.* 1996;348(9042):1615-1619.
91. Boyce JM, Potter-Bynoe G, Chenevert C, King T. Environmental contamination due to methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*: possible infection control implications. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* 1997;18(9):622-627.
92. Hayden MK, Blom DW, Lyle EA, Moore CG, Weinstein RA. Risk of hand or glove contamination after contact with patients colonized with vancomycin-resistant enterococcus or the colonized patients' environment. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* 2008;29(2):149-154.
93. Bhalla A, Pultz NJ, Gries DM, et al. Acquisition of nosocomial pathogens on hands after contact with environmental surfaces near hospitalized patients. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* 2004;25(2):164-167.
94. Boyce JM, Opal SM, Chow JW, et al. Outbreak of multidrug-resistant *Enterococcus faecium* with transferable vanB class vancomycin resistance. *J Clin Microbiol.* 1994;32(5):1148-1153.
95. McFarland LV, Mulligan ME, Kwok RY, Stamm WE. Nosocomial acquisition of *Clostridium difficile* infection. *N Engl J Med.* 1989;320(4):204-210.
96. Hilburn J, Hammond BS, Fendler EJ, Groziak PA. Use of alcohol hand sanitizer as an infection control strategy in an acute care facility. *Am J Infect Control.* 2003;31(2):109-116.
97. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 2007 Guideline for isolation precautions: preventing transmission of infectious agents in healthcare settings. http://www.cdc.gov/hicpac/2007ip/2007ip_table4.html. Accessed July 30, 2013.
98. Lucet JC, Rigaud MP, Mentre F, et al. Hand contamination before and after different hand hygiene techniques: a randomized clinical trial. *J Hosp Infect.* 2002;50(4):276-280.
99. McBryde ES, Bradley LC, Whitby M, McElwain DL. An investigation of contact transmission of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *J Hosp Infect.* 2004;58(2):104-108.
100. Carter AH, Casper DS, Parvizi J, Austin MS. A prospective analysis of glove perforation in primary and revision total hip and total knee arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 2012;27(7):1271-1275.
101. Demircay E, Unay K, Bilgili MG, Alataca G. Glove perforation in hip and knee arthroplasty. *J Orthop Sci.* 2010;15(6):790-794.
102. Hester RA, Nelson CL, Harrison S. Control of contamination of the operative team in total joint arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 1992;7(3):267-269.
103. Sebold EJ, Jordan LR. Intraoperative glove perforation. A comparative analysis. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1993(297):242-244.
104. Sutton PM, Greene T, Howell FR. The protective effect of a cut-resistant glove liner. A prospective, randomised trial. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1998;80(3):411-413.
105. Al-Maiyah M, Bajwa A, Mackenney P, et al. Glove perforation and contamination in primary total hip arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2005;87(4):556-559.
106. Kaya I, Ugras A, Sungur I, Yilmaz M, Korkmaz M, Cetinus E. Glove perforation time and frequency in total hip arthroplasty procedures. *Acta Orthop Traumatol Turc.* 2012;46(1):57-60.
107. Dawson-Bowling S, Smith J, Butt D, Cottam H, Umasankar S, Armitage A. Should outer surgical gloves be changed intraoperatively before orthopaedic prosthesis implantation? *J Hosp Infect.* 2011;78(2):156-157.
108. Beldame J, Lagrave B, Lievain L, Lefebvre B, Frebourg N, Dujardin F. Surgical glove bacterial contamination and perforation during total hip arthroplasty implantation: when gloves should be changed. *Orthop Traumatol Surg Res.* 2012;98(4):432-440.
109. Dalstrom DJ, Venkatarayappa I, Manternach AL, Palcic MS, Heyse BA, Prayson MJ. Time-dependent contamination of opened sterile operating-room trays. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2008;90(5):1022-1025.

110. Brown AR, Taylor GJ, Gregg PJ. Air contamination during skin preparation and draping in joint replacement surgery. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1996;78(1):92-94.
111. Chosky SA, Modha D, Taylor GJ. Optimisation of ultraclean air. The role of instrument preparation. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1996;78(5):835-837.
112. Recommended practices for maintaining a sterile field. *AORN J.* 2006;83(2):402-404, 407-410, 413-406.
113. Fairclough JA, Mackie IG, Mintowt-Czyz W, Phillips GE. The contaminated skin-knife. A surgical myth. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1983;65(2):210.
114. Grabe N, Falstie-Jensen S, Fredberg U, Schroder H, Sorensen I. The contaminated skin-knife--fact or fiction. *J Hosp Infect.* 1985;6(3):252-256.
115. Ritter MA, French ML, Eitzen HE. Bacterial contamination of the surgical knife. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1975(108):158-160.
116. Schindler OS, Spencer RF, Smith MD. Should we use a separate knife for the skin? *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2006;88(3):382-385.
117. Givissis P, Karataglis D, Antonarakos P, Symeonidis PD, Christodoulou A. Suction during orthopaedic surgery. How safe is the suction tip? *Acta Orthop Belg.* 2008;74(4):531-533.
118. Greenough CG. An investigation into contamination of operative suction. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1986;68(1):151-153.
119. Insull PJ, Hudson J. Suction tip: a potential source of infection in clean orthopaedic procedures. *ANZ J Surg.* 2012;82(3):185-186.
120. Meals RA, Knoke L. The surgical suction top--a contaminated instrument. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1978;60(3):409-410.
121. Mulcahy DM, McCormack D, McElwain JP. Intraoperative suction catheter tip contamination. *J R Coll Surg Edinb.* 1994;39(6):371-373.
122. Robinson AH, Drew S, Anderson J, Bentley G, Ridgway GL. Suction tip contamination in the ultraclean-air operating theatre. *Ann R Coll Surg Engl.* 1993;75(4):254-256.
123. Strange-Vognsen HH, Klareskov B. Bacteriologic contamination of suction tips during hip arthroplasty. *Acta Orthop Scand.* 1988;59(4):410-411.
124. Baird RA, Nickel FR, Thrupp LD, Rucker S, Hawkins B. Splash basin contamination in orthopaedic surgery. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1984(187):129-133.
125. Anto B, McCabe J, Kelly S, Morris S, Rynn L, Corbett-Feeney G. Splash basin bacterial contamination during elective arthroplasty. *J Infect.* 2006;52(3):231-232.
126. Glait SA, Schwarzkopf R, Gould S, Bosco J, Slover J. Is repetitive intraoperative splash basin use a source of bacterial contamination in total joint replacement? *Orthopedics.* 2011;34(9):e546-549.
127. Mont MA, Johnson AJ, Issa K, et al. Single-Use Instrumentation, Cutting Blocks, and Trials Decrease Contamination during Total Knee Arthroplasty: A Prospective Comparison of Navigated and Nonnavigated Cases. *J Knee Surg.* 2013;26(4):285-290.
128. Barrack RL, Ruh EL, Williams BM, Ford AD, Foreman K, Nunley RM. Patient specific cutting blocks are currently of no proven value. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2012;94(11 Suppl A):95-99.
129. Gilliam DL, Nelson CL. Comparison of a one-step iodophor skin preparation versus traditional preparation in total joint surgery. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1990(250):258-260.
130. Jacobson C, Osmon DR, Hanssen A, et al. Prevention of wound contamination using DuraPrep solution plus loban 2 drapes. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2005;439:32-37.
131. Johnston DH, Fairclough JA, Brown EM, Morris R. Rate of bacterial recolonization of the skin after preparation: four methods compared. *Br J Surg.* 1987;74(1):64.
132. Kuhme T, Isaksson B, Dahlin LG. Wound contamination in cardiac surgery. A systematic quantitative and qualitative study of the bacterial growth in sternal wounds in cardiac surgery patients. *APMIS.* 2007;115(9):1001-1007.

133. Lewis DA, Leaper DJ, Speller DC. Prevention of bacterial colonization of wounds at operation: comparison of iodine-impregnated ('Ioban') drapes with conventional methods. *J Hosp Infect.* 1984;5(4):431-437.
134. Bady S, Wongworawat MD. Effectiveness of antimicrobial incise drapes versus cyanoacrylate barrier preparations for surgical sites. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2009;467(7):1674-1677.
135. Falk-Brynhildsen K, Friberg O, Soderquist B, Nilsson UG. Bacterial colonization of the skin following aseptic preoperative preparation and impact of the use of plastic adhesive drapes. *Biol Res Nurs.* 2013;15(2):242-248.
136. French ML, Eitzen HE, Ritter MA. The plastic surgical adhesive drape: an evaluation of its efficacy as a microbial barrier. *Ann Surg.* 1976;184(1):46-50.
137. Chiu KY, Lau SK, Fung B, Ng KH, Chow SP. Plastic adhesive drapes and wound infection after hip fracture surgery. *Aust N Z J Surg.* 1993;63(10):798-801.
138. Dewan PA, Van Rij AM, Robinson RG, Skeggs GB, Fergus M. The use of an iodophor-impregnated plastic incise drape in abdominal surgery--a controlled clinical trial. *Aust N Z J Surg.* 1987;57(11):859-863.
139. Fairclough JA, Johnson D, Mackie I. The prevention of wound contamination by skin organisms by the pre-operative application of an iodophor impregnated plastic adhesive drape. *J Int Med Res.* 1986;14(2):105-109.
140. Webster J, Alghamdi A. Use of plastic adhesive drapes during surgery for preventing surgical site infection. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2013;1:CD006353.
141. Grove GL, Eyberg CI. Comparison of two preoperative skin antiseptic preparations and resultant surgical incise drape adhesion to skin in healthy volunteers. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2012;94(13):1187-1192.
142. Alexander JW, Aerni S, Plettner JP. Development of a safe and effective one-minute preoperative skin preparation. *Arch Surg.* 1985;120(12):1357-1361.
143. Erdmann S, Hertl M, Merk HF. Allergic contact dermatitis from povidone-iodine. *Contact Dermatitis.* 1999;40(6):331-332.
144. Zokaie S, White IR, McFadden JD. Allergic contact dermatitis caused by iodophor-impregnated surgical incise drape. *Contact Dermatitis.* 2011;65(5):309.
145. Gheorghe A, Calvert M, Pinkney TD, et al. Systematic review of the clinical effectiveness of wound-edge protection devices in reducing surgical site infection in patients undergoing open abdominal surgery. *Ann Surg.* 2012;255(6):1017-1029.
146. Edwards JP, Ho AL, Tee MC, Dixon E, Ball CG. Wound protectors reduce surgical site infection: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Ann Surg.* 2012;256(1):53-59.
147. Mihaljevic AL, Michalski CW, Erkan M, et al. Standard abdominal wound edge protection with surgical dressings vs coverage with a sterile circular polyethylene drape for prevention of surgical site infections (BaFO): study protocol for a randomized controlled trial. *Trials.* 2012;13:57.
148. Pinkney TD, Bartlett DC, Hawkins W, et al. Reduction of surgical site infection using a novel intervention (ROSSINI): study protocol for a randomised controlled trial. *Trials.* 2011;12:217.
149. Blom AW, Gozzard C, Heal J, Bowker K, Estela CM. Bacterial strike-through of reusable surgical drapes: the effect of different wetting agents. *J Hosp Infect.* 2002;52(1):52-55.
150. Laufman H, Siegal JD, Edberg SC. Moist bacterial strike-through of surgical materials: confirmatory tests. *Ann Surg.* 1979;189(1):68-74.
151. Blom A, Estela C, Bowker K, MacGowan A, Hardy JR. The passage of bacteria through surgical drapes. *Ann R Coll Surg Engl.* 2000;82(6):405-407.
152. Ha'eri GB, Wiley AM. Wound contamination through drapes and gowns: a study using tracer particles. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1981(154):181-184.

153. Mackintosh CA, Lidwell OM. The evaluation of fabrics in relation to their use as protective garments in nursing and surgery. III. Wet penetration and contact transfer of particles through clothing. *J Hyg (Lond)*. 1980;85(3):393-403.
154. Blom AW, Barnett A, Ajitsaria P, Noel A, Estela CM. Resistance of disposable drapes to bacterial penetration. *J Orthop Surg (Hong Kong)*. 2007;15(3):267-269.
155. Belchambers J, Harris JM, Cullinan P, Gaya H, Pepper JR. A prospective study of wound infection in coronary artery surgery. *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg*. 1999;15(1):45-50.
156. Garibaldi RA, Maglio S, Lerer T, Becker D, Lyons R. Comparison of nonwoven and woven gown and drape fabric to prevent intraoperative wound contamination and postoperative infection. *Am J Surg*. 1986;152(5):505-509.
157. Anglen JO, Gainor BJ, Simpson WA, Christensen G. The use of detergent irrigation for musculoskeletal wounds. *Int Orthop*. 2003;27(1):40-46.
158. Niki Y, Matsumoto H, Otani T, Tomatsu T, Toyama Y. How much sterile saline should be used for efficient lavage during total knee arthroplasty? Effects of pulse lavage irrigation on removal of bone and cement debris. *J Arthroplasty*. 2007;22(1):95-99.
159. Bhandari M, Schemitsch EH, Adili A, Lachowski RJ, Shaughnessy SG. High and low pressure pulsatile lavage of contaminated tibial fractures: an in vitro study of bacterial adherence and bone damage. *J Orthop Trauma*. 1999;13(8):526-533.
160. Brown LL, Shelton HT, Bornside GH, Cohn I, Jr. Evaluation of wound irrigation by pulsatile jet and conventional methods. *Ann Surg*. 1978;187(2):170-173.
161. Gross A, Cutright DE, Bhaskar SN. Effectiveness of pulsating water jet lavage in treatment of contaminated crushed wounds. *Am J Surg*. 1972;124(3):373-377.
162. Kalteis T, Lehn N, Schroder HJ, et al. Contaminant seeding in bone by different irrigation methods: an experimental study. *J Orthop Trauma*. 2005;19(9):591-596.
163. Moussa FW, Gainor BJ, Anglen JO, Christensen G, Simpson WA. Disinfecting agents for removing adherent bacteria from orthopaedic hardware. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1996(329):255-262.
164. Rodeheaver GT, Pettry D, Thacker JG, Edgerton MT, Edlich RF. Wound cleansing by high pressure irrigation. *Surg Gynecol Obstet*. 1975;141(3):357-362.
165. Bratzler DW, Dellinger EP, Olsen KM, et al. Clinical practice guidelines for antimicrobial prophylaxis in surgery. *Am J Health Syst Pharm*. 2013;70(3):195-283.
166. Cervantes-Sanchez CR, Gutierrez-Vega R, Vazquez-Carpizo JA, Clark P, Athie-Gutierrez C. Syringe pressure irrigation of subdermic tissue after appendectomy to decrease the incidence of postoperative wound infection. *World J Surg*. 2000;24(1):38-41; discussion 41-32.
167. Eklund AE, Tunevall TG. Prevention of postoperative wound infection after appendectomy by local application of tinidazole: a double-blind study. *World J Surg*. 1987;11(2):263-266.
168. Hassinger SM, Harding G, Wongworawat MD. High-pressure pulsatile lavage propagates bacteria into soft tissue. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2005;439:27-31.
169. Ackland DC, Yap V, Ackland ML, Williams JF, Hardidge A, de Steiger R. Pulse-lavage brushing followed by hydrogen peroxide-gauze packing for bone-bed preparation in cemented total hip arthroplasty: a bovine model. *J Orthop Surg (Hong Kong)*. 2009;17(3):296-300.
170. Clarius M, Seeger JB, Jaeger S, Mohr G, Bitsch RG. The importance of pulsed lavage on interface temperature and ligament tension force in cemented unicompartmental knee arthroplasty. *Clin Biomech (Bristol, Avon)*. 2012;27(4):372-376.
171. Kalteis T, Pforringer D, Herold T, Handel M, Renkawitz T, Plitz W. An experimental comparison of different devices for pulsatile high-pressure lavage and their relevance to cement intrusion into cancellous bone. *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg*. 2007;127(10):873-877.
172. Maistrelli GL, Antonelli L, Fornasier V, Mahomed N. Cement penetration with pulsed lavage versus syringe irrigation in total knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1995(312):261-265.

173. Miskovsky C, Whiteside LA, White SE. The cemented unicompartmental knee arthroplasty. An in vitro comparison of three cement techniques. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1992(284):215-220.
174. Seeger JB, Jaeger S, Bitsch RG, Mohr G, Rohner E, Clarius M. The effect of bone lavage on femoral cement penetration and interface temperature during Oxford unicompartmental knee arthroplasty with cement. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2013;95(1):48-53.
175. Clarius M, Hauck C, Seeger JB, James A, Murray DW, Aldinger PR. Pulsed lavage reduces the incidence of radiolucent lines under the tibial tray of Oxford unicompartmental knee arthroplasty: pulsed lavage versus syringe lavage. *Int Orthop.* 2009;33(6):1585-1590.
176. Polzin B, Ellis T, Dirschl DR. Effects of varying pulsatile lavage pressure on cancellous bone structure and fracture healing. *J Orthop Trauma.* 2006;20(4):261-266.
177. Dirschl DR, Duff GP, Dahners LE, Edin M, Rahn BA, Miclau T. High pressure pulsatile lavage irrigation of intraarticular fractures: effects on fracture healing. *J Orthop Trauma.* 1998;12(7):460-463.
178. Draeger RW, Dahners LE. Traumatic wound debridement: a comparison of irrigation methods. *J Orthop Trauma.* 2006;20(2):83-88.
179. Bhandari M, Adili A, Lachowski RJ. High pressure pulsatile lavage of contaminated human tibiae: an in vitro study. *J Orthop Trauma.* 1998;12(7):479-484.
180. Svoboda SJ, Bice TG, Gooden HA, Brooks DE, Thomas DB, Wenke JC. Comparison of bulb syringe and pulsed lavage irrigation with use of a bioluminescent musculoskeletal wound model. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2006;88(10):2167-2174.
181. Hargrove R, Ridgeway S, Russell R, Norris M, Packham I, Levy B. Does pulse lavage reduce hip hemiarthroplasty infection rates? *J Hosp Infect.* 2006;62(4):446-449.
182. Munoz-Mahamud E, Garcia S, Bori G, et al. Comparison of a low-pressure and a high-pressure pulsatile lavage during debridement for orthopaedic implant infection. *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg.* 2011;131(9):1233-1238.
183. Howell JM, Dhindsa HS, Stair TO, Edwards BA. Effect of scrubbing and irrigation on staphylococcal and streptococcal counts in contaminated lacerations. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 1993;37(12):2754-2755.
184. McHugh SM, Collins CJ, Corrigan MA, Hill AD, Humphreys H. The role of topical antibiotics used as prophylaxis in surgical site infection prevention. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2011;66(4):693-701.
185. Farnell MB, Worthington-Self S, Mucha P, Jr., Ilstrup DM, McIlrath DC. Closure of abdominal incisions with subcutaneous catheters. A prospective randomized trial. *Arch Surg.* 1986;121(6):641-648.
186. Greig J, Morran C, Gunn R, Mason B, Sleigh D, McArdle C. Wound sepsis after colorectal surgery: the effect of cefotetan lavage. *Chemioterapia.* 1987;6(2 Suppl):595-596.
187. Rambo WM. Irrigation of the peritoneal cavity with cephalothin. *Am J Surg.* 1972;123(2):192-195.
188. Schein M, Gecelter G, Freinkel W, Gerding H, Becker PJ. Peritoneal lavage in abdominal sepsis. A controlled clinical study. *Arch Surg.* 1990;125(9):1132-1135.
189. Sherman JO, Luck SR, Borger JA. Irrigation of the peritoneal cavity for appendicitis in children: a double-blind study. *J Pediatr Surg.* 1976;11(3):371-374.
190. Conroy BP, Anglen JO, Simpson WA, et al. Comparison of castile soap, benzalkonium chloride, and bacitracin as irrigation solutions for complex contaminated orthopaedic wounds. *J Orthop Trauma.* 1999;13(5):332-337.
191. Anglen J, Apostoles PS, Christensen G, Gainor B, Lane J. Removal of surface bacteria by irrigation. *J Orthop Res.* 1996;14(2):251-254.
192. Anglen JO, Apostoles S, Christensen G, Gainor B. The efficacy of various irrigation solutions in removing slime-producing *Staphylococcus*. *J Orthop Trauma.* 1994;8(5):390-396.

193. Anglen JO. Comparison of soap and antibiotic solutions for irrigation of lower-limb open fracture wounds. A prospective, randomized study. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2005;87(7):1415-1422.
194. Sindelar WF, Mason GR. Irrigation of subcutaneous tissue with povidone-iodine solution for prevention of surgical wound infections. *Surg Gynecol Obstet.* 1979;148(2):227-231.
195. Brown NM, Cipriano CA, Moric M, Sporer SM, Della Valle CJ. Dilute betadine lavage before closure for the prevention of acute postoperative deep periprosthetic joint infection. *J Arthroplasty.* 2012;27(1):27-30.
196. Cheng MT, Chang MC, Wang ST, Yu WK, Liu CL, Chen TH. Efficacy of dilute betadine solution irrigation in the prevention of postoperative infection of spinal surgery. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976).* 2005;30(15):1689-1693.
197. Chundamala J, Wright JG. The efficacy and risks of using povidone-iodine irrigation to prevent surgical site infection: an evidence-based review. *Can J Surg.* 2007;50(6):473-481.
198. Kataoka M, Tsumura H, Kaku N, Torisu T. Toxic effects of povidone-iodine on synovial cell and articular cartilage. *Clin Rheumatol.* 2006;25(5):632-638.
199. Schaumburger J, Beckmann J, Springorum HR, et al. [Toxicity of antiseptics on chondrocytes in vitro]. *Z Orthop Unfall.* 2010;148(1):39-43.
200. Kaysinger KK, Nicholson NC, Ramp WK, Kellam JF. Toxic effects of wound irrigation solutions on cultured tibiae and osteoblasts. *J Orthop Trauma.* 1995;9(4):303-311.
201. Goldenheim PD. An appraisal of povidone-iodine and wound healing. *Postgrad Med J.* 1993;69 Suppl 3:S97-105.
202. Berkelman RL, Lewin S, Allen JR, et al. Pseudobacteremia attributed to contamination of povidone-iodine with *Pseudomonas cepacia*. *Ann Intern Med.* 1981;95(1):32-36.
203. Panlilio AL, Beck-Sague CM, Siegel JD, et al. Infections and pseudoinfections due to povidone-iodine solution contaminated with *Pseudomonas cepacia*. *Clin Infect Dis.* 1992;14(5):1078-1083.
204. Howells RJ, Salmon JM, McCullough KG. The effect of irrigating solutions on the strength of the cement-bone interface. *Aust N Z J Surg.* 1992;62(3):215-218.
205. Dimick JB, Lipsett PA, Kostuik JP. Spine update: antimicrobial prophylaxis in spine surgery: basic principles and recent advances. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976).* 2000;25(19):2544-2548.
206. Lipsky BA, Hoey C. Topical antimicrobial therapy for treating chronic wounds. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2009;49(10):1541-1549.
207. Antevil JL, Muldoon MP, Battaglia M, Green R. Intraoperative anaphylactic shock associated with bacitracin irrigation during revision total knee arthroplasty. A case report. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2003;85-A(2):339-342.
208. Dirschl DR, Wilson FC. Topical antibiotic irrigation in the prophylaxis of operative wound infections in orthopedic surgery. *Orthop Clin North Am.* 1991;22(3):419-426.
209. Gelman ML, Frazier CH, Chandler HP. Acute renal failure after total hip replacement. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1979;61(5):657-660.
210. Savitz SI, Savitz MH, Goldstein HB, Mouracade CT, Malangone S. Topical irrigation with polymyxin and bacitracin for spinal surgery. *Surg Neurol.* 1998;50(3):208-212.
211. Petty W, Spanier S, Shuster JJ. Prevention of infection after total joint replacement. Experiments with a canine model. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1988;70(4):536-539.
212. Everts PA, Devilee RJ, Brown Mahoney C, et al. Platelet gel and fibrin sealant reduce allogeneic blood transfusions in total knee arthroplasty. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand.* 2006;50(5):593-599.
213. Levy O, Martinowitz U, Oran A, Tauber C, Horoszowski H. The use of fibrin tissue adhesive to reduce blood loss and the need for blood transfusion after total knee arthroplasty. A prospective, randomized, multicenter study. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1999;81(11):1580-1588.

214. Wang GJ, Hungerford DS, Savory CG, et al. Use of fibrin sealant to reduce bloody drainage and hemoglobin loss after total knee arthroplasty: a brief note on a randomized prospective trial. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2001;83-A(10):1503-1505.
215. Wang GJ, Goldthwaite CA, Jr., Burks S, Crawford R, Spotnitz WD. Fibrin sealant reduces perioperative blood loss in total hip replacement. *J Long Term Eff Med Implants.* 2003;13(5):399-411.
216. Lassen MR, Solgaard S, Kjersgaard AG, et al. A pilot study of the effects of Vivostat patient-derived fibrin sealant in reducing blood loss in primary hip arthroplasty. *Clin Appl Thromb Hemost.* 2006;12(3):352-357.
217. Mawatari M, Higo T, Tsutsumi Y, Shigematsu M, Hotokebuchi T. Effectiveness of autologous fibrin tissue adhesive in reducing postoperative blood loss during total hip arthroplasty: a prospective randomised study of 100 cases. *J Orthop Surg (Hong Kong).* 2006;14(2):117-121.
218. Molloy DO, Archbold HA, Ogonda L, McConway J, Wilson RK, Beverland DE. Comparison of topical fibrin spray and tranexamic acid on blood loss after total knee replacement: a prospective, randomised controlled trial. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2007;89(3):306-309.
219. Carless PA, Henry DA, Anthony DM. Fibrin sealant use for minimising peri-operative allogeneic blood transfusion. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2003(2):CD004171.
220. Berghoff WJ, Pietrzak WS, Rhodes RD. Platelet-rich plasma application during closure following total knee arthroplasty. *Orthopedics.* 2006;29(7):590-598.
221. Gardner MJ, Demetrakopoulos D, Klepchick PR, Mooar PA. The efficacy of autologous platelet gel in pain control and blood loss in total knee arthroplasty. An analysis of the haemoglobin, narcotic requirement and range of motion. *Int Orthop.* 2007;31(3):309-313.
222. Everts PA, Devilee RJ, Oosterbos CJ, et al. Autologous platelet gel and fibrin sealant enhance the efficacy of total knee arthroplasty: improved range of motion, decreased length of stay and a reduced incidence of arthrofibrosis. *Knee Surg Sports Traumatol Arthrosc.* 2007;15(7):888-894.
223. Carson JL, Altman DG, Duff A, et al. Risk of bacterial infection associated with allogeneic blood transfusion among patients undergoing hip fracture repair. *Transfusion.* 1999;39(7):694-700.
224. Lemos MJ, Healy WL. Blood transfusion in orthopaedic operations. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1996;78(8):1260-1270.
225. Rosencher N, Kerckamp HE, Macheras G, et al. Orthopedic Surgery Transfusion Hemoglobin European Overview (OSTHEO) study: blood management in elective knee and hip arthroplasty in Europe. *Transfusion.* 2003;43(4):459-469.
226. Taylor RW, Manganaro L, O'Brien J, Trottier SJ, Parkar N, Veremakis C. Impact of allogenic packed red blood cell transfusion on nosocomial infection rates in the critically ill patient. *Crit Care Med.* 2002;30(10):2249-2254.
227. Eggers MD, Fang L, Lionberger DR. A comparison of wound closure techniques for total knee arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 2011;26(8):1251-1258 e1251-1254.
228. Khan RJ, Fick D, Yao F, et al. A comparison of three methods of wound closure following arthroplasty: a prospective, randomised, controlled trial. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2006;88(2):238-242.
229. Livesey C, Wylde V, Descamps S, et al. Skin closure after total hip replacement: a randomised controlled trial of skin adhesive versus surgical staples. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2009;91(6):725-729.
230. Coulthard P, Esposito M, Worthington HV, van der Elst M, van Waes OJ, Darcey J. Tissue adhesives for closure of surgical incisions. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2010(5):CD004287.

231. Smith TO, Sexton D, Mann C, Donell S. Sutures versus staples for skin closure in orthopaedic surgery: meta-analysis. *BMJ*. 2010;340:c1199.
232. Lingard L, Regehr G, Orser B, et al. Evaluation of a preoperative checklist and team briefing among surgeons, nurses, and anesthesiologists to reduce failures in communication. *Arch Surg*. 2008;143(1):12-17; discussion 18.
233. de Vries EN, Prins HA, Crolla RM, et al. Effect of a comprehensive surgical safety system on patient outcomes. *N Engl J Med*. 2010;363(20):1928-1937.
234. Lingard L, Regehr G, Cartmill C, et al. Evaluation of a preoperative team briefing: a new communication routine results in improved clinical practice. *BMJ Qual Saf*. 2011;20(6):475-482.
235. Rosenberg AD, Wambold D, Kraemer L, et al. Ensuring appropriate timing of antimicrobial prophylaxis. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2008;90(2):226-232.
236. Haynes AB, Weiser TG, Berry WR, et al. A surgical safety checklist to reduce morbidity and mortality in a global population. *N Engl J Med*. 2009;360(5):491-499.
237. Andersson AE, Bergh I, Karlsson J, Eriksson BI, Nilsson K. The application of evidence-based measures to reduce surgical site infections during orthopedic surgery - report of a single-center experience in Sweden. *Patient Saf Surg*. 2012;6(1):11.
238. Burden AR, Torjman MC, Dy GE, et al. Prevention of central venous catheter-related bloodstream infections: is it time to add simulation training to the prevention bundle? *J Clin Anesth*. 2012;24(7):555-560.
239. Schulman J, Stricof R, Stevens TP, et al. Statewide NICU central-line-associated bloodstream infection rates decline after bundles and checklists. *Pediatrics*. 2011;127(3):436-444.

Workgroup 5: Blood Conservation

Liaison:

Mohammad R Rasouli MD

Leaders:

Luiz Sérgio Marcelino Gomes MD, PhD (International), Brian Parsley MD (US)

Delegates:

Wael Barsoum MD, Hari Bezwada MD, James Cashman MD, Julio Garcia MD, William Hamilton MD, Eric Hume MD, Rajesh Malhotra MD, Stavros Memtsoudis MD, PhD, Alvin Ong MD, Fabio Orozco MD, Douglas Padgett MD, Ricardo Reina MD, Marco Teloken MD, Emmanuel Thienpont MD, Jonathan H Waters MD

Question 1: Is blood transfusion associated with an increased risk of surgical site infection (SSI)/periprosthetic joint infection (PJI)?

Consensus: Yes. Allogeneic blood transfusions is associated with an increased risk of SSI/PJI . The role of autologous transfusion in the risk of SSI/PJI remains inconclusive.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 91%, Disagree: 5%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Based on the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) guideline, perioperative allogeneic blood transfusion in arthroplasty increases the risk of SSI/PJI. The association between autologous blood transfusion and the risk of SSI/PJI is less clear.

According to high-quality evidence from two randomized controlled trials (RCTs) and 4 observational studies, there is an increased risk of SSI with any blood transfusion (allogeneic, autologous, and autologous plus allogeneic blood transfusion data combined) as compared to no transfusion. This is further supported by both a meta-analysis of 6 studies (n=8,493) [odds ratio (OR): 1.56; 95% confidence interval (CI): 1.18–2.06; p=0.002] and a meta-analysis (n=7,484) of 4 observational studies (OR 1.59; 95% CI: 1.15–2.18; p=0.004).¹

Data from a meta-analysis (n=970) of 2 RCTs in hip arthroplasty suggests that autologous blood transfusion is not associated with an increased risk of SSI when compared to no blood transfusion (OR: 1.15, 95% CI: 0.43–3.13; p=0.78).¹ **Question 1: Is blood transfusion associated with an increased risk of surgical site infection (SSI)/periprosthetic joint infection (PJI)?**

Consensus: Yes. Allogeneic blood transfusions is associated with an increased risk of SSI/PJI . The role of autologous transfusion in the risk of SSI/PJI remains inconclusive.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 91%, Disagree: 5%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Based on the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) guideline, perioperative allogeneic blood transfusion in arthroplasty increases the risk of SSI/PJI. The association between autologous blood transfusion and the risk of SSI/PJI is less clear.

According to high-quality evidence from two randomized controlled trials (RCTs) and 4 observational studies, there is an increased risk of SSI with any blood transfusion (allogeneic, autologous, and autologous plus allogeneic blood transfusion data combined) as compared to no transfusion. This is further supported by both a meta-analysis of 6 studies (n=8,493) [odds ratio (OR): 1.56; 95% confidence interval (CI): 1.18–2.06; p=0.002] and a meta-analysis (n=7,484) of 4 observational studies (OR 1.59; 95% CI: 1.15–2.18; p=0.004).¹

Data from a meta-analysis (n=970) of 2 RCTs in hip arthroplasty suggests that autologous blood transfusion is not associated with an increased risk of SSI when compared to no blood transfusion (OR: 1.15, 95% CI: 0.43–3.13; p=0.78).¹

Low-quality evidence from a meta-analysis (n=5,737) of 4 observational studies indicates that allogeneic blood transfusion is associated with an increased risk of SSI (non-adjusted OR: 1.46, 95% CI: 1.09-1.95, p=0.01).¹

Evidence from a meta-analysis (n=2,592) of three observational studies shows that transfusion with allogeneic blood increases the risk of SSI as compared to transfusion with autologous blood (OR: 4.57, 95% CI: 2.39–8.73, p<0.0001).¹ The study by Innerhofer et al² demonstrated a clear increased risk for allogeneic blood over autogenous blood (high overall infection risk in this study). White cell depletion does not appear to affect the infection rate with autologous blood in hip surgery.³

Evidence from one RCT and two observational studies indicates no increased risk of SSI in patients who receive both autologous and allogeneic blood transfusions).¹

Question 2: What are the predictors of the need for allogeneic blood transfusion in patients undergoing surgery for TJA?

Consensus: A lower preoperative hemoglobin level is the strongest predictor for the potential need for allogeneic transfusion after TJA. The use of general anesthesia, higher Charlson comorbidity index, female gender, and longer duration of surgery are predictors of the potential need for allogeneic blood transfusion in patients undergoing total joint arthroplasty (TJA).

Delegate Vote: Agree: 90%, Disagree: 4%, Abstain: 6% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: The above-mentioned factors have been described as predictors of allogeneic blood transfusion in patients undergoing primary TJA. However, in these studies various “transfusion triggers” have been utilized, with a lower transfusion rate seen when a lower predefined Hgb level is used (currently 7-8 g/dL). Currently the most “optimal” hemoglobin threshold for transfusion remains unknown. The only prospective randomized controlled trial in orthopaedics is the FOCUS trial,⁴ which found no outcome differences with transfusing above or below 8 gm/dL. The results of this trial were similar to those found in the TRICC trial.⁵ There are also many studies emphasizing the effect of operative time on perioperative blood loss and transfusion rate.⁶⁻¹⁷

In a single-institute study of 11,373 TJAs, including 4,769 total knee arthroplasties (TKAs) and 6,604 total hip arthroplasties (THAs), multivariate analysis indicated that male gender (263.59 mL and 233.60 mL in hips and knees), Charlson comorbidity index of >3 (293.99 mL and 167.96 mL in hips and knees respectively), and preoperative autologous blood donation (593.51 mL in hips and 592.30 in knees) increase the amount of blood loss.¹⁸ Regional anesthesia compared to general anesthesia reduced the amount of blood loss. Amount of blood loss in both THA (OR: 1.43, 95% CI: 1.40-1.46) and TKA (OR: 1.47, 95% CI: 1.42-1.51) and Charlson comorbidity index-only in TKA patients (OR: 3.2, 95% CI: 1.99-5.15) increased risk of allogeneic blood transfusion. Preoperative autologous blood donation (OR: 0.01, 95% CI: 0.01-0.02 in hips and 0.02, 95% CI: 0.01-0.03 in knees) decreased the risk of allogeneic blood transfusion.

In a study by Faris et al.¹⁹ the predictive power of 7 preoperative variables (hemoglobin concentration, age, erythropoietin level, ferritin concentration, serum iron, total iron-binding capacity, and predicted blood volume) on the risk of transfusion in orthopaedic patients was tested in 276 surgical cases. The authors found that baseline hemoglobin concentration and predicted blood volume were significant predictors of transfusion risk. They also found an inverse correlation between hemoglobin concentration and transfusion risk. Placebo-treated patients with hemoglobin > 10 to ≤ 13 g/dL had an approximately two times greater risk of transfusion than patients with hemoglobin > 13 g/dL.

The study by Prazoo et al.²⁰ also confirmed that the preoperative hemoglobin level was a strong predictor of need for blood transfusion following TJA. They assessed the association between preoperative autologous blood donation and risk of transfusion in 600 TJA patients including 312 THAs and 288 TKAs. The authors suggested that a pre-operative autologous donation may

not be necessary. Their data also suggested that the use of a cell salvage system may be effective in reducing the blood transfusion rate.

The study by Hamaji et al. indicated that pre-operative fluid loading can reduce the transfusion requirement and possibly infection rate; however, it was a small study with a high infection rate.²¹ Colloid may be preferable over crystalloid²² and neither method has a significant effect on clotting *in vitro*.²³

Question 3A: What is the role of the type of anesthesia in minimizing blood loss and allogeneic blood transfusion during arthroplasty surgery for PJI?

Consensus: Compared to general anesthesia, neuraxial anesthesia reduces the amount of blood loss during TKA or THA.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 77%, Disagree: 11%, Abstain: 12% (Strong Consensus)

Question 3B: Is there evidence against neuraxial blockade in PJI cases (due to probable risk of spreading infection)?

Consensus: No. The decision to use neuraxial versus general anesthesia in patients with PJI lies with the anesthesia team and needs to take into account the numerous benefits of neuraxial anesthesia versus the potential for development of infectious central nervous system complications (arachnoiditis, meningitis, and abscess) with the use of anesthesia.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 83%, Disagree: 6%, Abstain: 11% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Several systematic reviews and meta-analyses²⁴⁻²⁸ compared neuraxial with general anesthesia regarding the amount of blood loss and blood transfusion during TJA. All these reviews support the role of neuraxial anesthesia in reducing amount of blood loss and transfusion requirements.

A meta-analysis by Hu et al.²⁵ of 21 randomized controlled trials (RCTs) published from 1966 to April 2008 was performed to study the relationship between type of anesthesia and transfusion requirement. Pooled results from these trials showed that neuraxial anesthesia reduces the operating time (OR: -0.19; 95% CI: -0.33 to -0.05) and transfusion requirement (OR 0.45; 95% CI: 0.22 to 0.94) compared with general anesthesia. Furthermore, a systematic review of 18 studies published from January 1990 to October 2008 involving 1,239 THA patients showed that blood loss may be reduced in patients receiving neuraxial anesthesia compared to general anesthesia.²⁶ Another systematic review of articles published up until 2004 showed that neuraxial anesthesia reduced the number of transfused THA patients ($p=0.0009$).²⁴ The authors concluded that neuraxial blocks have a clear and definite effect on surgical blood loss and result in a reduction in the number of transfused patients. Also, a meta-analysis of 10 clinical trials whose results were published up until August 2005, including 330 THA patients under general anesthesia and 348 patients under neuraxial block, indicated that neuraxial block decreases total operative time by 7.1 min/case (95% CI: 2.3-11.9 min) and intraoperative blood loss by 275 mL/case (95% CI: 180-371 mL).²⁸ Another study by Stundner et al.²⁹ demonstrated that neuraxial anesthesia versus general anesthesia significantly reduced overall complications, including the transfusion requirement. Lastly, using a large database, Memtsoudis et al.³⁰ demonstrated that the need for blood transfusion was reduced with neuraxial versus general anesthesia.

On the contrary, a systematic review of 28 studies published from January 1990 to October 2008 involving 1,538 TKA patients failed to find any evidence supporting a lower amount of blood loss or blood transfusion for patients receiving regional compared to general anesthesia.²⁷

A meta-analysis of 17 RCTs about various orthopaedic surgeries including TJA indicated that induced hypotension can reduce blood loss by approximately 287 mL of [95% CI: -447, -127] during the orthopaedic surgeries.³¹ Moreover, a statistically significant reduction in the transfusion rate was also observed in the same cohort (-667 mL of blood transfused; 95% CI: -963, -370). No statistically significant differences were found regarding operative time and improve surgical condition.

There is ample evidence to suggest that regional anesthesia can be performed safely if antibiotic treatment of the infection has started prior to the placement of the regional block.³² It appears that serious central nervous system infections such as arachnoiditis, meningitis, and abscess are rare after neuroaxial anesthesia. Thus, an individualized decision must be made for

performing neuroaxial block in cases with infection. The anesthetic alternatives, advantages of neuroaxial block, and risk of central nervous system infection, which theoretically may develop in the case of bacteremia, should be taken into account in making this decision. There is a paucity of literature that studies the risk of epidural abscess in patients undergoing surgery for PJI under regional anesthesia. In a recent study, Gritsenko et al.³³ suggested that the risk of the central nervous system after neuraxial block during the removal of infected hip/knee implants is very small and that neuraxial anesthetics be used more liberally in this setting if there are no systemic signs of infection.. They also recommended that no epidural catheters remain in place after the procedure. It appears that multiple neuroaxial blocks within a short time period may be a risk factor for development of epidural abscess in patients with underlying PJI.

If neuroaxial anesthesia is employed in patients undergoing treatment for PJI, every effort should be made to remove the epidural catheter soon after surgery. If a central nervous system infection occurs, prompt diagnosis and treatment of infection must be performed to avoid neurologic sequelae.

The study by Chang et al.³⁴ found that the infection risk was 2.2 times lower with spinal anesthesia versus general anesthesia.

Question 4A: What is the role for adjuvant technologies including cell salvage systems, reinfusion drains, bipolar sealers, and hemodilution for minimizing blood loss during surgery for PJI?

Consensus: There is no defined benefit for the use of cell salvage systems, reinfusion drains, bipolar sealers, and hemodilution for management of PJI.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 85%, Disagree: 8%, Abstain: 7% (Strong Consensus)

Question 4B: What is the role for adjuvant technologies including cell salvage systems, reinfusion drains, bipolar sealers, and hemodilution for minimizing blood loss during TJA?

Consensus: There is no defined benefit for the use of cell salvage systems, reinfusion drains, bipolar sealers, and hemodilution during primary, unilateral TJA.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 80%, Disagree: 11%, Abstain: 9% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: The role of cell salvage in reducing transfusion rates is unclear, however, it appears that cell salvage can be used in infected cases. Leukocyte depletion filters can be used to filter any salvaged blood. These filters are effective at removing white blood cell counts (WBCs) and bacterial loads up to 10^4 CFU/mL. Any residual bacteria would be treated by perioperative antibiotics in the same way as any bacteremia that occurs during the surgery.³⁵ The use of bipolar sealers has been associated with mixed results in primary TJA. In a double-blind RCT, 71 and 69 THA patients were assigned to either a bipolar sealer or a control arm group (conventional electrocautery), respectively.³⁶ The authors did not find any significant differences between the two groups regarding either the amount of blood loss or transfusion rate. Based on these findings, the authors discontinued the use of bipolar sealer for THA patients. In another prospective RCT of 105 patients undergoing primary THA, Zeh et al.³⁷ found that there was no statistically significant difference between total intraoperative and postoperative blood loss between the bipolar sealer and conventional electrocautery group.

On the contrary, a case-matched study showed that use of bipolar sealer may be effective in reducing the amount of blood loss and hemoglobin drop in patients undergoing revision THA for infection.³⁸ Hemodilution is not used routinely in orthopaedic surgeries; however, some authors described In a case-matched study of 76 consecutive revision THAs for infection, a bipolar sealing group was compared with conventional electrocautery.³⁸ The results of this study showed that total blood loss, intraoperative blood loss, and perioperative hemoglobin drop were significantly less in the bipolar sealer group. Furthermore, in a prospective, blinded, randomized study, 50 primary THA were assigned to two groups: bipolar sealer and standard electrocautery.³⁹ The results of this study revealed that the total blood loss in the bipolar sealer group decreased by 40% and the transfusion rate was reduced by 73%. There was a significant reduction in intra- and postoperative blood loss. Similarly, Marulanda et al.⁴⁰ showed that the bipolar sealer can reduce the amount of blood loss in TKA.

Question 5A: Does the use of a drain(s) influence the incidence of SSI/PJI?

Consensus: No. There is no evidence to demonstrate that the use of closed drains increases the risk of SSI/PJI following TJA.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 88%, Disagree: 8%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Question 5B: When should drain(s) be removed?

Consensus: There is no conclusive evidence for the optimal timing of drain removal.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 68%, Disagree: 22%, Abstain: 10% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Based on a systematic review and a meta-analysis,^{41, 42} the use of a drain following TJA increases the transfusion rate but there is no increased risk for developing SSI. Studies have indicated that about 90% of postoperative bleeding is collected by the drain within the first 24 postoperative hours. By considering the probable increase in the risk of bacterial colonization due to the drain after 24 hours,⁴³ it is recommended that drains be removed within 24 hours after routine elective arthroplasty. In select circumstances, the treating surgeon may decide to retain the drain in the operated joint for a longer period of time.

In a Cochrane systematic review, all randomized or quasi-RCTs comparing the use of closed suction drainage systems with no drainage systems for all types of elective and emergency orthopaedic surgery were evaluated.⁴¹ Thirty-six studies involving 5,464 participants with 5,697 surgical wounds were included. Various types of orthopaedic surgeries, including THA and TKA, were evaluated in this systematic review. Pooling the results of these trials indicated no statistically significant difference in the incidence of wound infection, hematoma, dehiscence, or re-operations between patients in whom a drain was inserted and those without a drain. Blood transfusion was required more frequently in those with drains. The need for reinforcement of wound dressings and the occurrence of bruising were more common in the group without

drains. Thus, the Cochrane study thus concluded that there is insufficient evidence to support the routine use of closed suction drainage in orthopaedic surgery.

In a meta-analysis by Parker et al.⁴² 18 studies on elective THA and TKA including 3,495 patients with 3,689 wounds were evaluated. The results of this systematic review indicated that closed suction drainage increases the transfusion requirements after elective THA and TKA and has no major benefits.

Question 6A: What is the role for tranexamic acid (TA) for minimizing blood loss during surgery for treatment of PJI?

Consensus: Administration of both intravenous and topical TA reduces the amount of blood loss and allogeneic blood transfusion in TJA.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 82%, Disagree: 5%, Abstain: 13% (Strong Consensus)

Question 6B: Does administration of topical TA have an advantage over intravenous administration?

Consensus: Topical TA does not have any obvious advantage over intravenous administration of the drug and both are safe. However, topical TA may be used in certain group of patients in whom IV TA is considered to be inappropriate.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 76%, Disagree: 4%, Abstain: 20% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Based on 7 available systematic reviews and meta-analyses,⁴⁴⁻⁵⁰ administration of TA reduces the amount of blood loss and blood transfusion in THA and TKA patients. It can be concluded that administration of TA is safe and effective in reducing the amount of blood loss and allogeneic blood transfusion in revision TJA, including surgeries for treatment of PJI. There has been no study to demonstrate that use of either topical or intravenous TA results in a higher

incidence of thromboembolic episodes. In fact the Clinical Randomisation of an Antifibrinolytic in Significant Haemorrhage trial (CRASH) found that TA may be protective against thrombotic complications.⁵¹⁻⁵³

A systematic review and meta-analysis by Alshryda et al.⁴⁴ evaluated 19 placebo-controlled RCTs. Eighteen of these studied the intravenous administration of TA, one study evaluated oral administration,⁵⁴ another examined topical application of TA,⁵⁵ and one compared TA with normovolemic hemodilution.⁵⁶ Three RCTs evaluated the effect of high doses (>4 grams) of TA^{54, 57, 58} and others evaluated the effect of low-dose TA.⁵⁹⁻⁶⁵ The systematic review and meta-analysis found that TA causes a significant reduction in the rate of blood transfusion (risk ratio (RR): 2.56, 95% CI: 2.1 to 3.1, $p < 0.001$; heterogeneity $I^2 = 75\%$) and total blood loss by a mean of 591 ml (95% CI: 536 to 647, $p < 0.001$; $I^2 = 78\%$). A subgroup analysis of high-dose TA indicated a reduction in blood transfusion (RR 5.33; 95% CI: 2.44 to 11.65, $p < 0.001$; $I^2 = 0\%$). This systematic review and meta-analysis did not find any evidence that supported an increase in the risk of either deep-vein thrombosis or pulmonary embolism following administration of TA in TKA patients.

A systematic review and meta-analysis by Sukeik et al.⁴⁹ evaluated the effect of administration of TA in THA patients. Eleven RCTs⁶⁶⁻⁷⁶ were included in the meta-analysis. The authors showed that use of TA reduces intraoperative blood loss by a mean of 104 ml (95% CI: -164 to -44, $p = 0.0006$, $I^2 = 0\%$), postoperative blood loss by a mean of 172 ml (95% CI: -263 to -81, $p = 0.0002$, $I^2 = 63\%$), and total blood loss by a mean of 289 ml (95% CI: -440 to -138, $p < 0.0002$, $I^2 = 54\%$). TA resulted in a significant reduction in the allogeneic blood transfusion rate (risk difference: -0.20, 95% CI: -0.29 to -0.11, $p < 0.00001$, $I^2 = 15\%$). No significant differences were observed in the rate of deep vein thrombosis, pulmonary embolism, infection rates, or other complications among the study groups.

Administration of TA is effective to further reduce the amount of perioperative blood loss following TKA. In an RCT of 151 patients, Lin et al.⁷⁷ randomly assigned patients who underwent unilateral TKA to one of 3 groups: 1) a placebo group (50 patients); 2) a one-dose TA group (52 patients), who received one injection of TA (10 mg/kg) intra-operatively on deflation of the tourniquet; and 3) a two-dose TA group (49 patients), who received two injections of TA (10 mg/kg) given pre-operatively and intra-operatively. They demonstrated that one intra-operative dose of TA was as effective as two doses for blood conservation during TKA.

In a study by Aguilera et al.⁷⁸ the effect of TA in reducing blood loss and blood transfusion in revision TKA was evaluated. In this study, patients who received TA had a significantly lower amount of blood loss ($p=0.015$); however, the rate of transfusion was not statistically lower in the TA group ($p=0.057$). No adverse events were observed in the studied patients.

In an RCT of 98 adult patients undergoing THA or TKA, Oremus et al.⁷⁹ showed that adding TA to a restrictive transfusion protocol in patients undergoing TJA makes the use of a postoperative blood salvage system unnecessary.

Question 7: What is the role for other agents such as platelet-rich plasma (PRP), fibrin glue for minimizing blood loss?

Consensus: The routine use of PRP is not recommended. There is some evidence that fibrin products may reduce blood loss.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 91%, Disagree: 1%, Abstain: 8% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There are several RCTs supporting the efficacy of fibrin products in reducing the amount of blood loss and transfusion requirements in TJA patients. However, the results of studies on PRP are mixed and it is difficult to draw a definite conclusion.

In the study by Diiorio et al.⁸⁰ 134 TKA patients who received PRP were retrospectively evaluated. The authors failed to show a statistically significant difference regarding the amount of blood loss between patients who received PRP and those who did not.

In a retrospective study of 98 unilateral TKAs (61 received platelet gel intraoperatively), Gardner et al.⁸¹ found that patients who received platelet gel had less difference in preoperative and postoperative hemoglobin levels on day 3 (2.7 vs 3.2 g/dl; $p=0.026$), which was considered as an indicator of blood loss.

In a retrospective study, Berghoff et al.⁸² found that administration of platelet-rich and platelet-poor plasma during wound closure is associated with a better hemoglobin profile and a lower rate of transfusion.

In an RCT, 66 THA patients were randomized to 1 of 3 of the following groups 1) a 10 mg/kg bolus of TA before operation; 2) 10 mL of fibrin spray during the operation, or 3) a control (neither TA nor fibrin spray administered).⁸³ The authors suggested that topical fibrin spray and intravenous TA both reduce the amount of blood loss significantly compared to the controls. There was no statistically significant difference between the fibrin spray and TA groups regarding the amount of blood loss.

In an RCT of 100 THA, patients were assigned to the study group (receiving autologous fibrin tissue adhesive) or control (no fibrin tissue adhesive) group.⁸⁴ The results of this RCT showed a significantly lower amount of blood loss in the fibrin tissue adhesive at 580±240 ml compared to the controls at 810±341 ml.

In an RCT, 81 patients who underwent THA were assigned to receive standard of care plus fibrin sealant (10 mL total) or standard of care without fibrin sealant. In the fibrin sealant group, the amount of blood loss decreased significantly by 23.5%.⁸¹

The results of two RCTs showed that the administration of fibrin products is associated with reduced blood drainage from the wound and blood loss as well as blood transfusion in TKA patients.⁸⁵⁻⁸⁷

Question 8: What is the role for blood salvage (intraoperative and postoperative) during the second stage of two-stage exchange arthroplasty for treatment of PJI?

Consensus: The role of blood salvage (intraoperative and postoperative) during the second stage exchange arthroplasty is inconclusive. Blood salvage should be utilized with caution.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 80%, Disagree: 11%, Abstain: 9% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: The efficacy of a cell salvage system has been shown in orthopaedic surgeries.⁸⁸ Although there is no strong evidence regarding the contraindication of cell salvage in PJI cases, traditionally the presence of infection is considered as a contraindication for use of this type of system.⁸⁹ However, some authors have suggested that cell salvage can be used in infected cases. Leukocyte depletion filters can be used to filter any salvaged blood. These filters are

effective at removing WBC counts and bacterial loads up to 10^4 CFU/mL. Any residual bacteria would be treated by perioperative antibiotics in the same way they would for any bacteremia that occurs during the surgery.³⁵

In a Cochrane systematic review, RCTs in which adult patients undergoing elective surgeries were randomized to either a cell salvage group or a control group (no intervention), were evaluated.⁸⁸ The results of this systematic review indicated that in orthopaedic procedures the relative risk of exposure to red blood cell transfusion in patients receiving cell salvage systems drops to 0.46 (95% CI: 0.37 to 0.57) and the use of cell salvage systems was not associated with any adverse events.

Question 9: What is the role of administration of erythropoietin, hematinics, or other agents between the two stages of exchange arthroplasty for the treatment of PJI?

Consensus: Treatment of preoperative anemia with iron, with or without erythropoietin, will reduce the risk of transfusion in patients undergoing TJA.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 78%, Disagree: 9%, Abstain: 13% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There is evidence to suggest that treatment of preoperative anemia with iron, with or without erythropoietin, will reduce the risk of transfusion in patients undergoing TJA.¹⁰¹ However, some authors suggest that for patients undergoing TJA, anemia should be investigated rather than treated empirically as the risk of gastrointestinal malignancy and/or gastrointestinal bleeding is present.

A systematic review by Spahn⁹⁰ indicated that treatment of preoperative anemia with iron, with or without erythropoietin, will reduce the risk of transfusion in patients undergoing TJA.

A double-blind, multicenter RCT compared two regimens of Epoetin- α in reducing the need for allogeneic blood transfusion in patients undergoing THA. Patients were assigned to receive 4 weekly doses of Epoetin- α , 40,000 units (high-dose; n=44) or 20,000 units (low-dose; n=79), or placebo (n=78), starting 4 weeks before surgery. Oral iron supplementation (450 mg/d) for 42 or more days before surgery was administered in all cases. The results of this RCT revealed that

both regimens were effective in reducing the need for allogeneic blood transfusion. Patients who received a high-dose regimen had the lowest rate of transfusion.⁹¹

In two studies by Delasotta et al.^{92, 93} the authors showed that in mildly anemic patients who undergo revision TKA or THA, administration of Epoetin- α decreases the rate of transfusion.

Question 10: Are self-contained suction devices a source of contamination?

Consensus: There is evidence indicating that the tip of surgical suction drains can be a source of contamination.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 70%, Disagree: 9%, Abstain: 21% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: A few studies indicate that microorganisms can be obtained from a considerable number of cultures from the tip of surgical suction. However, there is no evidence indicating that there is a correlation between the tip of suction contamination and subsequent SSI/PJI.

Robinson et al.⁹⁴ assessed the colonization of the suction tip in an ultraclean-air operating theater in 39 patients and found evidence of bacterial contamination in 41% of them. Similarly, Strange-Vognsen and Klareskov obtained positive cultures from 12 out of 22 suction tips used in THA.⁹⁵

Question 11: What is the role of preoperative autologous blood donation between the two stages of exchange arthroplasty for PJI?

Consensus: There is no role for autologous blood donation between the two stages of exchange arthroplasty for PJI.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 83%, Disagree: 7%, Abstain: 10% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: To the best of our knowledge, there is no single study about the role of autologous blood donation between the two stages of exchange arthroplasty. However, due to the theoretical risk of spreading infection, blood banks refuse to accept blood donation from patients with infection or those suspected of having an infection.

References:

1. Healthcare Infection Control Practice Advisory Committee. CDC and HICPAC Draft Guideline for Prevention of Surgical Site Infection, Arthroplasty Section; Pending.
2. Innerhofer P, Klingler A, Klimmer C, Fries D, Nussbaumer W. Risk for postoperative infection after transfusion of white blood cell-filtered allogeneic or autologous blood components in orthopedic patients undergoing primary arthroplasty. *Transfusion*. 2005;45(1):103-110.
3. Frietsch T, Karger R, Scholer M, et al. Leukodepletion of autologous whole blood has no impact on perioperative infection rate and length of hospital stay. *Transfusion*. 2008;48(10):2133-2142.
4. Carson JL, Terrin ML, Noveck H, et al. Liberal or restrictive transfusion in high-risk patients after hip surgery. *N Engl J Med*. 2011;365(26):2453-2462.
5. Hebert PC, Wells G, Blajchman MA, et al. A multicenter, randomized, controlled clinical trial of transfusion requirements in critical care. *Transfusion Requirements in Critical Care Investigators, Canadian Critical Care Trials Group. N Engl J Med*. 1999;340(6):409-417.
6. Basora M, Pereira A, Soriano A, et al. Allogeneic blood transfusion does not increase the risk of wound infection in total knee arthroplasty. *Vox Sang*. 2010;98(2):124-129.
7. Brandt C, Hansen S, Sohr D, Daschner F, Ruden H, Gastmeier P. Finding a method for optimizing risk adjustment when comparing surgical-site infection rates. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol*. 2004;25(4):313-318.
8. Byrne AM, Morris S, McCarthy T, Quinlan W, O'Byrne J M. Outcome following deep wound contamination in cemented arthroplasty. *Int Orthop*. 2007;31(1):27-31.
9. Dale H, Hallan G, Espehaug B, Havelin LI, Engesaeter LB. Increasing risk of revision due to deep infection after hip arthroplasty. *Acta Orthop*. 2009;80(6):639-645.
10. Gastmeier P, Sohr D, Brandt C, Eckmanns T, Behnke M, Ruden H. Reduction of orthopaedic wound infections in 21 hospitals. *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg*. 2005;125(8):526-530.
11. Jansen E, Varonen M, Huhtala H, et al. Incidence of prosthetic joint infections after primary knee arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty*. 2010;25(1):87-92.
12. Mraovic B, Suh D, Jacovides C, Parvizi J. Perioperative hyperglycemia and postoperative infection after lower limb arthroplasty. *J Diabetes Sci Technol*. 2011;5(2):412-418.
13. Ong KL, Kurtz SM, Lau E, Bozic KJ, Berry DJ, Parvizi J. Prosthetic joint infection risk after total hip arthroplasty in the Medicare population. *J Arthroplasty*. 2009;24(6 Suppl):105-109.
14. Peersman G, Laskin R, Davis J, Peterson M. Infection in total knee replacement: a retrospective review of 6489 total knee replacements. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2001(392):15-23.
15. Procter LD, Davenport DL, Bernard AC, Zwischenberger JB. General surgical operative duration is associated with increased risk-adjusted infectious complication rates and length of hospital stay. *J Am Coll Surg*. 2010;210(1):60-65 e61-62.
16. Pulido L, Ghanem E, Joshi A, Purtill JJ, Parvizi J. Periprosthetic joint infection: the incidence, timing, and predisposing factors. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2008;466(7):1710-1715.
17. Willis-Owen CA, Konyves A, Martin DK. Factors affecting the incidence of infection in hip and knee replacement: an analysis of 5277 cases. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 2010;92(8):1128-1133.

18. Park JH, Rasouli MR, Mortazavi SMJ, Tokarski AT, Maltenfort MG, ., Parvizi J. Predictors of perioperative blood loss in total joint arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2013;in Press.
19. Faris PM, Spence RK, Larholt KM, Sampson AR, Frei D. The predictive power of baseline hemoglobin for transfusion risk in surgery patients. *Orthopedics.* 1999;22(1 Suppl):s135-140.
20. Perazzo P, Viganò M, De Girolamo L, et al. Blood management and transfusion strategies in 600 patients undergoing total joint arthroplasty: an analysis of pre-operative autologous blood donation. *Blood Transfus.* 2013;11(7):370-376.
21. Hamaji A, Hajjar L, Caiero M, et al. Volume replacement therapy during hip arthroplasty using hydroxyethyl starch (130/0.4) compared to lactated Ringer decreases allogeneic blood transfusion and postoperative infection. *Rev Bras Anesthesiol.* 2013;63(1):27-35.
22. Xie R, Wang L, Bao H. Crystalloid and colloid preload for maintaining cardiac output in elderly patients undergoing total hip replacement under spinal anesthesia. *J Biomed Res.* 2013;25(3):185-190.
23. Casutt M, Kristoffy A, Schuepfer G, Spahn DR, Konrad C. Effects on coagulation of balanced (130/0.42) and non-balanced (130/0.4) hydroxyethyl starch or gelatin compared with balanced Ringer's solution: an in vitro study using two different viscoelastic coagulation tests ROTEM™ and SONOCLOT™. *Br J Anaesth.* 2010;105(3):273-281.
24. Guay J. The effect of neuraxial blocks on surgical blood loss and blood transfusion requirements: a meta-analysis. *J Clin Anesth.* 2006;18(2):124-128.
25. Hu S, Zhang ZY, Hua YQ, Li J, Cai ZD. A comparison of regional and general anaesthesia for total replacement of the hip or knee: a meta-analysis. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2009;91(7):935-942.
26. Macfarlane AJ, Prasad GA, Chan VW, Brull R. Does regional anaesthesia improve outcome after total hip arthroplasty? A systematic review. *Br J Anaesth.* 2009;103(3):335-345.
27. Macfarlane AJ, Prasad GA, Chan VW, Brull R. Does regional anaesthesia improve outcome after total knee arthroplasty? *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2009;467(9):2379-2402.
28. Mauermann WJ, Shilling AM, Zuo Z. A comparison of neuraxial block versus general anaesthesia for elective total hip replacement: a meta-analysis. *Anesth Analg.* 2006;103(4):1018-1025.
29. Stundner O, Chiu YL, Sun X, et al. Comparative perioperative outcomes associated with neuraxial versus general anaesthesia for simultaneous bilateral total knee arthroplasty. *Reg Anesth Pain Med.* 2012;37(6):638-644.
30. Memtsoudis SG, Sun X, Chiu YL, et al. Perioperative comparative effectiveness of anesthetic technique in orthopedic patients. *Anesthesiology.* 2013;118(5):1046-1058.
31. Paul JE, Ling E, Lalonde C, Thabane L. Deliberate hypotension in orthopedic surgery reduces blood loss and transfusion requirements: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Can J Anaesth.* 2007;54(10):799-810.
32. Wedel DJ, Horlocker TT. Regional anaesthesia in the febrile or infected patient. *Reg Anesth Pain Med.* 2006;31(4):324-333.
33. Gritsenko K, Marcello D, Liguori GA, Jules-Elysee K, Memtsoudis SG. Meningitis or epidural abscesses after neuraxial block for removal of infected hip or knee prostheses. *Br J Anaesth.* 2012;108(3):485-490.
34. Chang CC, Lin HC, Lin HW. Anaesthetic management and surgical site infections in total hip or knee replacement: a population-based study. *Anesthesiology.* 2010;113(2):279-284.
35. Waters JH, Tuohy MJ, Hobson DF, Procop G. Bacterial reduction by cell salvage washing and leukocyte depletion filtration. *Anesthesiology.* 2003;99(3):652-655.
36. Barsoum WK, Klika AK, Murray TG, Higuera C, Lee HH, Krebs VE. Prospective randomized evaluation of the need for blood transfusion during primary total hip arthroplasty with use of a bipolar sealer. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2011;93(6):513-518.

37. Zeh A, Messer J, Davis J, Vasarhelyi A, Wohlrab D. The Aquamantys system--an alternative to reduce blood loss in primary total hip arthroplasty? *J Arthroplasty*. 2010;25(7):1072-1077.
38. Clement RC, Kamath AF, Derman PB, Garino JP, Lee GC. Bipolar sealing in revision total hip arthroplasty for infection: efficacy and cost analysis. *J Arthroplasty*. 2012;27(7):1376-1381.
39. Marulanda GA, Ulrich SD, Seyler TM, Delanois RE, Mont MA. Reductions in blood loss with a bipolar sealer in total hip arthroplasty. *Expert Rev Med Devices*. 2008;5(2):125-131.
40. Marulanda GA, Krebs VE, Bierbaum BE, et al. Hemostasis using a bipolar sealer in primary unilateral total knee arthroplasty. *Am J Orthop (Belle Mead NJ)*. 2009;38(12):E179-183.
41. Parker MJ, Livingstone V, Clifton R, McKee A. Closed suction surgical wound drainage after orthopaedic surgery. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2007(3):CD001825.
42. Parker MJ, Roberts CP, Hay D. Closed suction drainage for hip and knee arthroplasty. A meta-analysis. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2004;86-A(6):1146-1152.
43. Zamora-Navas P, Collado-Torres F, de la Torre-Solis F. Closed suction drainage after knee arthroplasty. A prospective study of the effectiveness of the operation and of bacterial contamination. *Acta Orthop Belg*. 1999;65(1):44-47.
44. Alshryda S, Sarda P, Sukeik M, Nargol A, Blenkinsopp J, Mason JM. Tranexamic acid in total knee replacement: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 2011;93(12):1577-1585.
45. Kagoma YK, Crowther MA, Douketis J, Bhandari M, Eikelboom J, Lim W. Use of antifibrinolytic therapy to reduce transfusion in patients undergoing orthopedic surgery: a systematic review of randomized trials. *Thromb Res*. 2009;123(5):687-696.
46. Roberts I, Perel P, Prieto-Merino D, et al. Effect of tranexamic acid on mortality in patients with traumatic bleeding: prespecified analysis of data from randomised controlled trial. *BMJ*. 2012;345:e5839.
47. Roberts I, Shakur H, Afolabi A, et al. The importance of early treatment with tranexamic acid in bleeding trauma patients: an exploratory analysis of the CRASH-2 randomised controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2011;377(9771):1096-1101, 1101 e1091-1092.
48. Shakur H, Roberts I, Bautista R, et al. Effects of tranexamic acid on death, vascular occlusive events, and blood transfusion in trauma patients with significant haemorrhage (CRASH-2): a randomised, placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2010;376(9734):23-32.
49. Sukeik M, Alshryda S, Haddad FS, Mason JM. Systematic review and meta-analysis of the use of tranexamic acid in total hip replacement. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 2011;93(1):39-46.
50. Zhang H, Chen J, Chen F, Que W. The effect of tranexamic acid on blood loss and use of blood products in total knee arthroplasty: a meta-analysis. *Knee Surg Sports Traumatol Arthrosc*. 2012;20(9):1742-1752.
51. Tan J, Chen H, Liu Q, Chen C, Huang W. A meta-analysis of the effectiveness and safety of using tranexamic acid in primary unilateral total knee arthroplasty. *J Surg Res*. Apr 25 2013.
52. Zhou XD, Tao LJ, Li J, Wu LD. Do we really need tranexamic acid in total hip arthroplasty? A meta-analysis of nineteen randomized controlled trials. *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg*. 2013;133(7):1017-1027.
53. Zufferey P, Merquiol F, Laporte S, et al. Do antifibrinolytics reduce allogeneic blood transfusion in orthopedic surgery? *Anesthesiology*. 2006;105(5):1034-1046.
54. Zohar E, Ellis M, Ifrach N, Stern A, Sapir O, Fredman B. The postoperative blood-sparing efficacy of oral versus intravenous tranexamic acid after total knee replacement. *Anesth Analg*. 2004;99(6):1679-1683, table of contents.
55. Wong J, Abrishami A, El Beheiry H, et al. Topical application of tranexamic acid reduces postoperative blood loss in total knee arthroplasty: a randomized, controlled trial. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2010;92(15):2503-2513.

56. Zohar E, Fredman B, Ellis M, Luban I, Stern A, Jedeikin R. A comparative study of the postoperative allogeneic blood-sparing effect of tranexamic acid versus acute normovolemic hemodilution after total knee replacement. *Anesth Analg.* 1999;89(6):1382-1387.
57. Ellis MH, Fredman B, Zohar E, Ifrach N, Jedeikin R. The effect of tourniquet application, tranexamic acid, and desmopressin on the procoagulant and fibrinolytic systems during total knee replacement. *J Clin Anesth.* 2001;13(7):509-513.
58. Jansen AJ, Andreica S, Claeys M, D'Haese J, Camu F, Jochmans K. Use of tranexamic acid for an effective blood conservation strategy after total knee arthroplasty. *Br J Anaesth.* 1999;83(4):596-601.
59. Alvarez JC, Santiveri FX, Ramos I, Vela E, Puig L, Escolano F. Tranexamic acid reduces blood transfusion in total knee arthroplasty even when a blood conservation program is applied. *Transfusion.* 2008;48(3):519-525.
60. Benoni G, Fredin H. Fibrinolytic inhibition with tranexamic acid reduces blood loss and blood transfusion after knee arthroplasty: a prospective, randomised, double-blind study of 86 patients. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1996;78(3):434-440.
61. Camarasa MA, Olle G, Serra-Prat M, et al. Efficacy of aminocaproic, tranexamic acids in the control of bleeding during total knee replacement: a randomized clinical trial. *Br J Anaesth.* 2006;96(5):576-582.
62. Engel JM, Hohaus T, Ruwoldt R, Menges T, Jurgensen I, Hempelmann G. Regional hemostatic status and blood requirements after total knee arthroplasty with and without tranexamic acid or aprotinin. *Anesth Analg.* 2001;92(3):775-780.
63. Hiippala S, Strid L, Wennerstrand M, et al. Tranexamic acid (Cyklokapron) reduces perioperative blood loss associated with total knee arthroplasty. *Br J Anaesth.* 1995;74(5):534-537.
64. Hiippala ST, Strid LJ, Wennerstrand MI, et al. Tranexamic acid radically decreases blood loss and transfusions associated with total knee arthroplasty. *Anesth Analg.* 1997;84(4):839-844.
65. Molloy DO, Archbold HA, Ogonda L, McConway J, Wilson RK, Beverland DE. Comparison of topical fibrin spray and tranexamic acid on blood loss after total knee replacement: a prospective, randomised controlled trial. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2007;89(3):306-309.
66. Benoni G, Fredin H, Knebel R, Nilsson P. Blood conservation with tranexamic acid in total hip arthroplasty: a randomized, double-blind study in 40 primary operations. *Acta Orthop Scand.* 2001;72(5):442-448.
67. Benoni G, Lethagen S, Nilsson P, Fredin H. Tranexamic acid, given at the end of the operation, does not reduce postoperative blood loss in hip arthroplasty. *Acta Orthop Scand.* 2000;71(3):250-254.
68. Claeys MA, Vermeersch N, Haentjens P. Reduction of blood loss with tranexamic acid in primary total hip replacement surgery. *Acta Chir Belg.* 2007;107(4):397-401.
69. Ekback G, Axelsson K, Rytberg L, et al. Tranexamic acid reduces blood loss in total hip replacement surgery. *Anesth Analg.* 2000;91(5):1124-1130.
70. Garneti N, Field J. Bone bleeding during total hip arthroplasty after administration of tranexamic acid. *J Arthroplasty.* 2004;19(4):488-492.
71. Husted H, Blond L, Sonne-Holm S, Holm G, Jacobsen TW, Gebuhr P. Tranexamic acid reduces blood loss and blood transfusions in primary total hip arthroplasty: a prospective randomized double-blind study in 40 patients. *Acta Orthop Scand.* 2003;74(6):665-669.
72. Ido K, Neo M, Asada Y, et al. Reduction of blood loss using tranexamic acid in total knee and hip arthroplasties. *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg.* 2000;120(9):518-520.
73. Johansson T, Pettersson LG, Lisander B. Tranexamic acid in total hip arthroplasty saves blood and money: a randomized, double-blind study in 100 patients. *Acta Orthop.* 2005;76(3):314-319.

74. Lemay E, Guay J, Cote C, Roy A. Tranexamic acid reduces the need for allogenic red blood cell transfusions in patients undergoing total hip replacement. *Can J Anaesth*. 2004;51(1):31-37.
75. Niskanen RO, Korkala OL. Tranexamic acid reduces blood loss in cemented hip arthroplasty: a randomized, double-blind study of 39 patients with osteoarthritis. *Acta Orthop*. 2005;76(6):829-832.
76. Yamasaki S, Masuhara K, Fuji T. Tranexamic acid reduces blood loss after cementless total hip arthroplasty-prospective randomized study in 40 cases. *Int Orthop*. 2004;28(2):69-73.
77. Lin PC, Hsu CH, Huang CC, Chen WS, Wang JW. The blood-saving effect of tranexamic acid in minimally invasive total knee replacement: is an additional pre-operative injection effective? *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 2012;94(7):932-936.
78. Aguilera X, Videla S, Almenara M, Fernandez JA, Gich I, Celaya F. Effectiveness of tranexamic acid in revision total knee arthroplasty. *Acta Orthop Belg*. 2012;78(1):68-74.
79. Oremus K, Sostaric S, Trkulja V, Haspl M. Influence of tranexamic acid on postoperative autologous blood retransfusion in primary total hip and knee arthroplasty: a randomized controlled trial. *Transfusion*. Apr 25 2013.
80. Diiorio TM, Burkholder JD, Good RP, Parvizi J, Sharkey PF. Platelet-rich plasma does not reduce blood loss or pain or improve range of motion after TKA. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2012;470(1):138-143.
81. Gardner MJ, Demetrakopoulos D, Klepchick PR, Moorar PA. The efficacy of autologous platelet gel in pain control and blood loss in total knee arthroplasty. An analysis of the haemoglobin, narcotic requirement and range of motion. *Int Orthop*. 2007;31(3):309-313.
82. Berghoff WJ, Pietrzak WS, Rhodes RD. Platelet-rich plasma application during closure following total knee arthroplasty. *Orthopedics*. 2006;29(7):590-598.
83. McConnell JS, Shewale S, Munro NA, Shah K, Deakin AH, Kinninmonth AW. Reduction of blood loss in primary hip arthroplasty with tranexamic acid or fibrin spray. *Acta Orthop*. 2011;82(6):660-663.
84. Mawatari M, Higo T, Tsutsumi Y, Shigematsu M, Hotokebuchi T. Effectiveness of autologous fibrin tissue adhesive in reducing postoperative blood loss during total hip arthroplasty: a prospective randomised study of 100 cases. *J Orthop Surg (Hong Kong)*. 2006;14(2):117-121.
85. Levy O, Martinowitz U, Oran A, Tauber C, Horoszowski H. The use of fibrin tissue adhesive to reduce blood loss and the need for blood transfusion after total knee arthroplasty. A prospective, randomized, multicenter study. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 1999;81(11):1580-1588.
86. Wang GJ, Goldthwaite CA, Jr., Burks S, Crawford R, Spotnitz WD. Fibrin sealant reduces perioperative blood loss in total hip replacement. *J Long Term Eff Med Implants*. 2003;13(5):399-411.
87. Wang GJ, Hungerford DS, Savory CG, et al. Use of fibrin sealant to reduce bloody drainage and hemoglobin loss after total knee arthroplasty: a brief note on a randomized prospective trial. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2001;83-A(10):1503-1505.
88. Carless PA, Henry DA, Moxey AJ, O'Connell D, Brown T, Fergusson DA. Cell salvage for minimising perioperative allogeneic blood transfusion. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2010(4):CD001888.
89. Waters JH. Indications and contraindications of cell salvage. *Transfusion*. 2004;44(12 Suppl):40S-44S.
90. Spahn DR. Anemia and patient blood management in hip and knee surgery: a systematic review of the literature. *Anesthesiology*. 2010;113(2):482-495.
91. Feagan BG, Wong CJ, Kirkley A, et al. Erythropoietin with iron supplementation to prevent allogeneic blood transfusion in total hip joint arthroplasty. A randomized, controlled trial. *Ann Intern Med*. 2000;133(11):845-854.

92. Delasotta LA, Rangavajjula A, Frank ML, Blair J, Orozco F, Ong A. The Use of Preoperative Epoetin-alpha in Revision Hip Arthroplasty. *Open Orthop J.* 2012;6:179-183.
93. Delasotta LA, Rangavajjula AV, Frank ML, Blair JL, Orozco FR, Ong AC. The Use of Epoetin-alpha in Revision Knee Arthroplasty. *Adv Orthop.* 2012;2012:595027.
94. Robinson AH, Drew S, Anderson J, Bentley G, Ridgway GL. Suction tip contamination in the ultraclean-air operating theatre. *Ann R Coll Surg Engl.* 1993;75(4):254-256.
95. Strange-Vognsen HH, Klareskov B. Bacteriologic contamination of suction tips during hip arthroplasty. *Acta Orthop Scand.* 1988;59(4):410-411.

Workgroup 6: Prosthesis Selection

Liaison:

Claudio Diaz-Ledezma MD

Leaders:

Javad Parvizi MD, FRCS (US), Yixin Zhou MD (International)

Delegates:

Valentin Antoci MD, Paul Ducheyne PhD, Andrew Freiberg MD, Gustavo Garcia Rangel MD, Seung Beom Han MD, Noreen Hickok PhD, Carlos Higuera MD, Constantinos Ketonis MD, Feza Korkusuz MD, Jacek Kruczynski MD, Francisco Macule MD, Jacek Markuszewski MD, Oliver Marín-Peña MD, Dinesh Nathwani MD, Phillip Noble PhD, Kevin Ong PhD, Nelson Ono MD, Mohammad Sadegh Parvizi PhD, Zachary Post MD, Salvador Rivero-Boschert MD, Thomas Schaer VMD, Irving Shapiro DDS, PhD

Question 1: Does the type of prosthesis influence the incidence of surgical site infection (SSI) or periprosthetic joint infection (PJI)?

Consensus: The type of prosthesis (cemented versus uncemented) or coating with hydroxyapatite does not influence the incidence of SSI or PJI.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 92%, Disagree: 4%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Based on the available literature there is no difference in the incidence of SSI or PJI following the use of cemented (without antibiotics) versus uncemented arthroplasty components. Some registry data support the finding that in total hip arthroplasty (THA) the risk of revision due to infection is equivalent between uncemented and cemented arthroplasty with antibiotic-loaded cement, but higher for cemented arthroplasty without antibiotic cement.

Cemented versus uncemented THA: Although various randomized controlled trials (RCTs) and systematic reviews comparing the survival of cemented versus uncemented components for THA were found,^{1,2} none had PJI as the primary endpoint.

Excluding hybrid configurations from the analysis, the Swedish hip arthroplasty registry (SHAR) showed that in 145,339 patients who underwent 170,413 THAs between 1992 and 2007 the rate of deep infection was 0.5%. The main indication for THA was primary osteoarthritis (OA), but cases of fractures, inflammatory arthropathy, and others accounted for 24%. Uncemented THA did not present a higher risk of revision due to infection compared to cemented THA (risk ratio (RR)=0.9, confidence interval (CI): 0.6–1.3). Although a differential analysis comparing antibiotic-laden cement versus cement alone is not presented, the authors stated that in the SHAR, more than 90% of the cases used antibiotic-laden cement. The authors concluded that “it appears that the risk of revision due to infection should be about equal if uncemented fixation is compared with cemented fixation, provided that the cement is antibiotic-laden.”³

Data from the Norwegian registry showed that in over 97,344 primary THAs performed in 79,820 patients from 1987 to 2007, the 5-year survival was 99.46% when revision due to deep infection was considered as the endpoint.⁴ The RR for the first revision due to infection was lower in the group of patients receiving a prosthesis fixed with antibiotic-laden cement. When

compared to antibiotic-laden cemented fixation, uncemented fixation had a higher risk of revision due to infection (RR: 1.4, CI: 1.0–1.8, $p=0.03$). The use of cement without antibiotics also had a higher RR when compared to antibiotic-laden cemented fixation (RR: 1.9, CI: 1.5–2.3, $p<0.001$). The higher risk of PJI presented by cement without antibiotics was described in a previous study from the same registry led by Engesaeter et al.,⁵ who found that the risk of revision due to infection was the same for uncemented and for cemented arthroplasties with antibiotic-loaded cement, but higher for cemented arthroplasties without antibiotic cement.

A prospective study from 3 Norwegian health registries comprising the period 2005 to 2009⁶ evaluated the rate of SSI and revisions due to infections in THA. The rate of SSI was 3% (167/5,540) and was not influenced by the type of fixation (cemented, uncemented, or hybrid). The rate of revision due to infection was 0.8% (236/31,086) and was influenced by the type of fixation. Compared to cemented hips, uncemented hips had a higher adjusted risk of revision due to infection (RR: 1.5, CI: 1.0–2.2, $p=0.03$). The rate of revision due to infection presented by hybrid fixation was not different when compared to cemented fixation (RR: 1.1, CI: 0.7–1.6, $p=0.7$).

In a study demonstrating the increasing risk of PJI conducted by the Nordic Arthroplasty Register Association (Denmark, Finland, Norway, and Sweden), the use of cement without antibiotics and hybrid configurations were found to be risk factors for infection.⁷

Arthroplasty due to hip fractures: A Cochrane review from 2010 compared cemented and uncemented hemiarthroplasties for proximal femur fractures in adults. With regards to the rate of superficial wound infection, the review found no differences between the groups (test for overall effect: $Z=0.16$, $p=0.88$). With respect to deep infections, again no differences among the studied groups were found (test for overall effect: $Z=0.46$, $p=0.64$).⁸

A recently published RCT comparing 80 cemented hemiarthroplasties and 80 uncemented hemiarthroplasties for displaced femoral neck fractures in the elderly found that the rate of infections was similar in both groups: 5% (CI: 2.0–12.2) in the cemented group versus 6.3% (CI: 2.7–13.8) in the uncemented group.⁹ Unfortunately, the use of antibiotic-laden cement was not clarified by the authors.

Arthroplasty due to osteonecrosis: A recent case series from a single surgeon did not find a difference in the rate of infections between cemented and uncemented stems employed in the

treatment of end-stage OA secondary to osteonecrosis of the femoral head. It is important to disclose that cemented stems were used in the context of a hybrid construct.¹⁰

Revision arthroplasty: In the setting of revision arthroplasty, a study from the Swedish registry compared the survival between an uncemented stem and a cemented stem. No difference in the rate of failure due to infection was observed.¹¹

Cemented versus uncemented total knee arthroplasty (TKA): Although various RCTs and systematic reviews comparing the survival of cemented versus uncemented components for TKA were found, none presented with PJI as the primary endpoint.

A recent review from the Cochrane group comparing the performance of cemented versus uncemented components in TKAs did not include a formal comparison regarding SSI/PJI as a relevant outcome.¹²

A recently published RCT evaluated the performance of cemented and uncemented knees in the same patient (bilateral TKA in 50 patients). No difference was found in terms of the infection rate.¹³

An RCT compared the performance of cemented TKA (277 replacements) versus non-cemented press-fit condylar implants (224 replacements) in a 10-year survival analysis. A greater number of cemented implants (5 cemented, 1 cementless) were revised for infection. Using revision for infection as the endpoint, the 10-year survival rates were 98.1% (95% CI 94.1-99.4) in the cemented group and 99.5% (95% CI 95.3-99.9) in the cementless group. The difference was not statistically significant (hazard ratio 4.31, 95% CI 0.50-37.14, $p=0.18$).¹⁴ The analysis at 15 years showed that in the cemented group components were revised for infection in 7 patients (2.5%). In the cementless group, components were revised for infection in 4 patients (1.8%), showing no significant difference.¹⁵

Role of hydroxyapatite (HA): A Cochrane review studied hemiarthroplasty versus HA-coated hemiarthroplasty for proximal femur bone fractures in adults. No difference in the rate of superficial or deep infections was found.⁸

An RCT compared HA-coated tibial implants with cemented tibial fixation in primary TKA. No difference in the rate of infection was found (3 cases of cellulitis/41 cemented TKA versus 3 cases of cellulitis/40 HA-coated TKA).¹⁶

An RCT compared HA-coated (29 knees) with cemented (28 knees) tibial components. Two infections were found in the group of HA knees versus none in the cemented group, with no statistical difference.¹⁷

Question 2A: Does antibiotic-impregnated cement reduce the incidence of PJI following elective primary total joint arthroplasty (TJA)?

Consensus: Yes. Antibiotic-impregnated polymethylmethacrylate cement (ABX-PMMA) reduces the incidence of PJI following TJA and should be used in patients at high risk for PJI following elective arthroplasty.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 90%, Disagree: 9%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Question 2B: Does antibiotic-impregnated cement reduce the incidence of PJI following elective revision joint arthroplasty?

Consensus: Yes. Antibiotic should be added to cement in all patients undergoing cemented or hybrid fixation as part of revision arthroplasty.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 88%, Disagree: 9%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There is evidence that the addition of antibiotics to PMMA cement leads to a reduction in the incidence of PJI and all-time failure of the prostheses after elective arthroplasty.¹⁸⁻²¹ A number of studies have shown that the addition of antibiotic powder to cement, particularly during revision arthroplasty, leads to a dramatic reduction in the incidence of later failure due to infection.^{21, 22} Thus, we feel it is justified to state that antibiotics (dose and type are at the discretion of the surgeon) should be added to cement during revision arthroplasty, particularly revision performed for infection.

The use of ABX-PMMA during primary arthroplasty is not as clear-cut. The main concerns and unresolved issues that are related to the routine use of ABX-PMMA cement during primary arthroplasty are: a) the type and dose of antibiotic; b) cost; c) possible emergence of resistant organisms; d) mechanical weakening of the PMMA cement and possible increase in subsequent failure of the prosthesis, and e) off-label use.

Type and dose of antibiotics: It is difficult to determine from the literature which antibiotic and what dose should be added to cement and if there is a difference between various cement formulations with regard to their ability to prevent infection. What is known is that there is a clear difference in the elution profile of antibiotics from PMMA cement that is affected by the type of antibiotic, dose of antibiotic, and the type of PMMA. High viscosity cements containing MA-MMA copolymers, such as Cobalt G-HV, Palacos R+G, Refobacin, and SmartSet GHV, have been shown to have better antibiotic elution profiles than other PMMA formulations.²³⁻²⁸

What remains unknown at the present time is whether the use of antibiotic-impregnated cement products during elective primary arthroplasty is cost effective.²⁹ One of the reasons for the lack of conclusive findings regarding the economic aspect of this practice relates to the inability to determine the exact cost of treatment of PJI. All available costs for treatment of PJI are estimates and vary widely. However, one known fact is that the cost of treatment of PJI caused by methicillin-resistant organisms is drastically higher.³⁰ Thus, in geographic areas of the world where the incidence of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* PJI is high, the cost of routine use of antibiotic-impregnated cement may be justified. Due to the cost,²⁹ we feel that the routine use of ABX-PMMA during elective primary arthroplasty should be limited to patients at high risk of PJI (such as those with diabetes or immunosuppressive conditions).

The concern that remains is whether hand-mixing of antibiotic to cement (at the low-dose quantity) can lead to a significant reduction in the mechanical properties of cement and subsequent failure of the prostheses.^{31, 32} Because of the latter issue, we recommend that either pre-mixed ABX-PMMA should be used (if the cost can be justified) or if hand-mixing of cement is being considered, the dose of antibiotic added to cement should remain around 1-1.5g per 40g pack of cement.

Different antibiotics can be mixed with PMMA, such as gentamicin, tobramycin, cefuroxime,¹⁸ vancomycin, piperacillin/tazobactam,³³ and clindamycin.³⁴ Potentially, other antibiotics can be added to PMMA, including cefazolin, ciprofloxacin, gatifloxacin, levofloxacin, linezolid, and rifampin.³⁵ A recent publication by Han et al.³⁶ showed that bone cement polymerization was

delayed to a mean of 122.5 minutes when rifampin was added to the matrix. The authors conclude that rifampin is unsuitable for antibiotic loaded bone cement.

An animal model compared different combinations: cefazolin (Ancef; 4.5g/40g cement powder), ciprofloxacin (Cipro; 6g/40g powder), clindamycin (Cleocin; 6g/40 g powder), ticarcillin (Ticar; 12g/40g powder), tobramycin (Nebcin; 9.8g/40g powder), and vancomycin (Vancocin; 4g/40g powder).³⁷ Clindamycin, vancomycin, and tobramycin demonstrated the best elution into bone and granulation tissue.

In addition, the Australian Orthopaedic Association's National Joint Replacement Registry has shown that THA done with ABX cement resulted in a lower rate of failure secondary to infection and aseptic reasons.³⁸

Question 3: Does the type of bearing surface in THA influence the incidence of SSI/PJI?

Consensus: Observational data suggest that metal-on-metal bearing may be associated with a higher risk of PJI.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 78%, Disagree: 15%, Abstain: 7% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Different studies evaluated the performance of different bearing surfaces in THA. Milošev et al.³⁹ compared the 10-year survivorship of hip prostheses with use of conventional polyethylene, metal-on-metal, or ceramic-on-ceramic bearings and found no differences in the rate of PJI. Nikolaou et al.⁴⁰ in a RCT compared cobalt–chrome on ultra-high-molecular-weight polyethylene, cobalt–chrome on highly cross-linked polyethylene, or a ceramic-on-ceramic bearing. Again, no differences in terms of PJI were found. Using Medicare data, Bozic et al.⁴¹ found that metal-on-metal bearings were associated with a higher risk of PJI (hazard ratio: 3.03; CI: 1.02-9.09) when compared with ceramic-on-ceramic bearings (0.59% versus 0.32%, respectively). In a more recent study from the same group,⁴² this observation was confirmed. After adjusting for patient and hospital factors, metal-on-metal bearings were associated with

higher risk of PJI ($p=0.001$) than metal-on-polyethylene and higher risk of PJI ($p=0.014$) than ceramic-on-ceramic bearings.

Question 4: Does the size of prosthesis (volume of foreign material) influence the incidence of SSI following TJA?

Consensus: Yes. The incidence of infection is higher following the use of mega-prostheses.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 85%, Disagree: 11%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Although it is known that the incidence of infection following the use of megaprostheses for reconstruction (both for neoplastic and non-neoplastic conditions) is higher than for routine arthroplasty,⁴³ there is no clear evidence that this relates to the size or volume of the prosthesis used. Patients receiving megaprostheses are placed at a higher risk of infection due to the extent of soft tissue dissection, larger amounts of blood loss, subsequent need for transfusion, underlying diagnosis of cancer for some patients, immunocompromised status, older age (for patients with non-neoplastic failure), and poor local condition of the soft tissues.⁴⁴ There is no focused study that has evaluated the influence of the size and volume of the prosthesis in the incidence of PJI.

Question 5: Is there a difference between various types of cement with regard to the incidence of SSI/PJI after TJA?

Consensus: There is no clear difference in the incidence of SSI/PJI following joint arthroplasty when different PMMA cement formulations are used.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 92%, Disagree: 3%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Although there are some *in vitro* studies comparing the elution profiles of different commercial brands of PMMA,^{24, 28, 45} we found no clinical studies supporting that the use of one or another PMMA formulation is superior in terms of incidence of PJI.

Question 6: Is there a difference between various types of cement with regard to antibiotic elution?

Consensus: There is a clear difference in the elution profile of antibiotics from PMMA cement that is determined by the type of cement, type, and dose of antibiotic.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 96%, Disagree: 0%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There are a number of studies that have evaluated the elution of antibiotics from PMMA cement. The majority of these studies are *in vitro* studies and do not capture the clinical setting. High viscosity cements containing MA-MMA copolymers, such as Cobalt G-HV, Palacos R+G, Refobacin, and SmartSet GHV have been shown to have higher cumulative delivery of antibiotic than other PMMA formulations.^{23-28, 45}

Meyer et al. compared the antibiotic elution of Cemex Genta (1.0g gentamicin), Cobalt G-HV (0.5g gentamicin), Palacos R+G (0.5g gentamicin), Simplex P (1.0g tobramycin), SmartSet GMV (1.0g gentamicin), and VersaBond AB (1.0g gentamicin). Cobalt G-HV and Palacos R+G produced similar 5-day cumulative antimicrobial activity under both vacuum and atmospheric mixing regimes. These two cements produced cumulative antimicrobial activities that were statistically greater than all of other cements tested when vacuum-mixed and all of the cements except Cemex Genta when mixed under atmospheric conditions, despite containing only half of the antibiotic dose found in the other cements.²⁵

Squire et al. compared the antibiotic efficacy of Cemex Genta (1.0g gentamicin), Cobalt G-HV (0.5g gentamicin), Palacos R+G (0.5g gentamicin), Simplex P (1.0g tobramycin), SmartSet GMV (1.0g gentamicin), SmartSet GHV (1.0g gentamicin), and VersaBond AB (1.0g gentamicin). Generally, the low- and medium-viscosity cements showed the highest antimicrobial efficacy after one day, but on days 2 to 7, higher viscosity cements demonstrated

greater bacterial growth inhibition. No significant differences between Palacos R+G, Cobalt G-HV, and SmartSet GHV were noted at any of the time points. Again, Palacos R+G and Cobalt G-HV performance in this study was achieved with only half of the antibiotic dose found in the other cement formulations.²⁷

These two studies^{25, 27} suggest that antibiotic elution and activity from Palacos and Cobalt HV bone cement formulations is very similar (no statistically significant differences noted for any comparisons in the two studies) and that their elution characteristics are generally superior those of other PMMA bone cements.

Dall et al. compared the gentamicin elution of Palacos R+G to Refobacin Bone Cement R.²³ No statistically significant differences for the gentamicin elution were noted at 1 hour or at 72 hours. Neut et al. also compared the gentamicin release and antibacterial efficacy of Palacos R+G to Refobacin Bone Cement R.²⁶ There were no statistically significant differences between Refobacin Bone Cement R and Palacos R+G for bulk gentamicin release or antimicrobial efficacy of the gentamicin elution.

The cement-specific mechanisms governing the elution of antibiotic are not perfectly clear, but it is known that the hydrophilicity of different types of acrylic polymers vary, with MMA-MA copolymers being more hydrophilic than pure PMMA, and PMMA being more hydrophilic than MMA-styrene copolymers.⁴⁶ Cements comprised of more hydrophilic polymers will exchange water more readily with their environment and release water soluble antibiotics more freely. Cement viscosity and resulting cement mass morphology (eg porosity profile) may also influence antibiotic elution.²⁵

Question 7: Is there a difference in the incidence of SSI/PJI with the use of different uncemented prostheses?

Consensus: The incidence of SSI/PJI may be lower with the use of porous metal (tantalum) implants during revision arthroplasty compared to titanium.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 44%, Disagree: 33%, Abstain: 23% (No Consensus)

Justification: There is no study that demonstrates with certainty that there may be a clear difference in the incidence of SSI/PJI following primary TJA using different uncemented components. There is evidence in the literature⁴⁷⁻⁵¹ in addition to a recent unpublished study showing the incidence of infection to be lower with the use of tantalum prostheses (Tokarski et al., publication pending). The latter was particularly true when tantalum components were used in revisions performed for the treatment of infection. Thus, the incidence of recurrence or reinfection following reimplantation surgery for PJI was much lower in patients receiving tantalum compared to titanium.

The scientific rationale for this observation may relate to the higher osseointegration potential of tantalum compared to titanium implants. The "race to the surface" may be accomplished earlier and better when porous implants are used during challenging reconstructive surgeries, particularly those performed for infection. An additional factor that has been proposed as a possible protective factor for PJI with tantalum may relate to the three-dimensional structure and pore size of tantalum prosthesis, which prohibits bacterial growth and the formation of biofilm.

Question 8: Is there a role for the use of antibiotic powder (such as vancomycin) in the wound during TJA?

Consensus: No. There is no literature to suggest that the use of vancomycin powder poured into the wound or placed in the vicinity of an implant reduces the incidence of PJI. A few studies have shown that the use of vancomycin powder reduces the incidence of SSI following non-arthroplasty procedures. Future studies are needed.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 91%, Disagree: 5%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There are no studies that have evaluated the role of adding vancomycin powder to the incision during TJA. There are a number of studies that showed a reduced incidence of SSI following spine procedures when vancomycin powder was placed in the incision.^{50, 52, 53} There is a clear need for a randomized, prospective study to evaluate this issue.

Question 9: Is there a difference in the incidence of SSI/PJI with the use of metal augments compared to allograft to reconstruct bone deficiency in the setting of infection?

Consensus: There is no difference in the incidence of SSI/PJI following the use of metal augments or allograft bone for reconstruction of bone defects.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 80%, Disagree: 7%, Abstain: 13% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There is no study in the orthopaedic literature that has evaluated this particular issue. Although one may be tempted to assume that the use of bone allograft, especially when combined with antibiotics, should lead to a lower incidence of infection, there is no clear evidence for such an assumption. We believe that the incidence of infection following complex revisions with extensive bone loss that necessitates the use of metal augment and/or bone graft is naturally higher than primary or simple revision arthroplasty. However, the increase in these patients cannot be attributed to the use of augment or bone graft.

Question 10: Is there a role for modification of the prosthesis surface that may minimize PJI?

Consensus: There is a real need for surface modifications of implants that can help reduce bacterial colonization and subsequent SSI/PJI.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 76%, Disagree: 15%, Abstain: 9% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Modification of the prosthesis surface to reduce bacterial colonization and subsequent infection appears to be promising in the field of TJA. At the present, a variety of surface modification employing antibiotics,⁵⁴⁻⁵⁷ silver,^{58, 59} copper,^{60, 61} and others^{62, 63} have proved to be successful in preclinical models. One experience with the use of copper in a spacer in the clinical setting appears favorable.⁶⁴ Further investigations are required to make

stronger conclusions regarding the applicability, biosafety, and cost-effectiveness of these technologies. In emerging clinical studies the use of implants coated with silver or iodine-supported titanium implants used during reconstruction of joints in immunocompromised patients has led to a substantial reduction in the incidence of SSI/PJI (see question 18, Workgroup 8).

Question 11: Are there any novel developments for the prevention of SSI/PJI?

Consensus: The orthopaedic community needs to explore the potential for surface modifications of the prosthesis in an effort to reduce the incidence of SSI/PJI.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 84%, Disagree: 10%, Abstain: 6% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: PJI has emerged as one of the most important issues in the field of TJA and will continue to grow over the coming decades. Utilizing developed risk indices to stratify and medically optimize patients, modifying implants to incorporate antimicrobial and anti-biofilm properties, and developing clinically applicable vaccines and biofilm inhibiting enzymes will address current struggles in preventing PJI. The success of future treatment strategies will hinge on refining the indications and techniques of current surgical procedures as well as the rational use of biofilm-disrupting technologies and photodynamic therapy. Finally, the field of metabolomics, though still relatively in its infancy, likely holds the key to a novel diagnostic and treatment approach to infection and a more profound understanding of the pathophysiology of PJI in the human body.⁶⁵

New Methods for the detection and prevention of orthopedic biofilm infections.

The limited activity of conventional antimicrobials against biofilm centered device infections requires new strategies for 1) detection of biofilm on indwelling implants 2) treatment options of infected implants and 3) conferring protection onto implants against *a priori* bacterial colonization and resulting biofilm formation. Ehrlich and colleagues argued that the detection of biofilm infections is negatively impacted by the fact that biofilm cultures fail to recover and grow

under current culture protocols.⁶⁶ This compromises clinical decision making due to the lack of a causative pathogen aiding in the selection of an efficacious antimicrobial regimen.⁶⁷ The consensus to improved diagnoses and biofilm detection is being addressed by workgroup 7. Novel engineering approaches to the control of orthopedic biofilm infections have been discussed by Ehrlich et al whereas microelectromechanical-systems-based biosensors monitor bacterial biofilm dynamics such as quorum sensing with the goal to release a drug payload that will effectively eradicate both biofilm and planktonic bacteria.⁶⁶ While the development and validation process for smart “sensing” implants is still in the bench top phase other strategies addressing implant surface modifications have advanced through rigorous preclinical testing with some awaiting or entering early human clinical trials. These technologies are largely based on either releasing a timed payload of an antimicrobial to achieve high local tissue concentrations from a carrier coating such as a hydrogel, sol-gel, or other thin layer coating methodologies.⁶⁸ Variable release kinetics associated with drug eluting technologies often times heighten the concerns for bacterial resistance, an area that continues to draw attention both from a clinical and regulatory perspective. Other surface derivatization strategies achieve a deadly topography killing bacteria on contact such as covalent tethering of antimicrobial peptides or the binding of charged molecules to the substrate surface.^{56, 69} While some of these covalently attached coatings aim to confer long-term protection to the implant, the longevity of these bactericidal coatings has not been established beyond short-term efficacy in an *in vivo* setting. The field of biomimetics is rapidly gaining mainstream interest in many engineering and material science disciplines. Hierarchical structures with dimensions of features ranging from the macroscale to the nanoscale are extremely common in nature to provide intriguing properties of interest. This field allows one to emulate biology or nature to develop nanomaterials, nanodevices, and processes which could provide desirable surface topographies in the battle against bacterial colonization of implants. The growing literature reports about a large number of objects including aquatic animals, insects, plants and bacteria with surface properties of commercial interest.⁷⁰ Although there are many appealing technologies addressing biofilm mitigation for implant associated infections, considerable challenges remain. Challenges along the pivotal path of translation include successful development of concepts for the transfer of lab-type processes to mass production (i.e. surface synthesis) in a cost-effective manner, designing refined preclinical *in vivo* studies to address pertinent regulatory metrics for both safety and efficacy (i.e. local and systemic effects of chronic antimicrobial exposure, efficacy in the context of polymicrobial exposure, etc.).

As our understanding of biofilm physiology, immune modulation, and systemic and local host interactions increases, so will our repertoire of anti-biofilm strategies. With continued interdisciplinary collaborative efforts between clinicians, academia and the industry new and effective interventions will follow. A critical cornerstone in the equation of successful periprosthetic infection control is a constructive educational dialogue with the various regulatory bodies. This effort is paramount to support the successful translation of innovative technologies from bench to bedside.

References:

1. Corten K, Bourne RB, Charron KD, Au K, Rorabeck CH. What works best, a cemented or cementless primary total hip arthroplasty?: minimum 17-year followup of a randomized controlled trial. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2011;469(1):209-217.
2. Morshed S, Bozic KJ, Ries MD, Malchau H, Colford JM, Jr. Comparison of cemented and uncemented fixation in total hip replacement: a meta-analysis. *Acta Orthop.* 2007;78(3):315-326.
3. Hailer NP, Garellick G, Karrholm J. Uncemented and cemented primary total hip arthroplasty in the Swedish Hip Arthroplasty Register. *Acta Orthop.* 2010;81(1):34-41.
4. Dale H, Hallan G, Espehaug B, Havelin LI, Engesaeter LB. Increasing risk of revision due to deep infection after hip arthroplasty. *Acta Orthop.* 2009;80(6):639-645.
5. Engesaeter LB, Espehaug B, Lie SA, Furnes O, Havelin LI. Does cement increase the risk of infection in primary total hip arthroplasty? Revision rates in 56,275 cemented and uncemented primary THAs followed for 0-16 years in the Norwegian Arthroplasty Register. *Acta Orthop.* 2006;77(3):351-358.
6. Dale H, Skramm I, Lower HL, et al. Infection after primary hip arthroplasty: a comparison of 3 Norwegian health registers. *Acta Orthop.* 2011;82(6):646-654.
7. Dale H, Fenstad AM, Hallan G, et al. Increasing risk of prosthetic joint infection after total hip arthroplasty. *Acta Orthop.* 2011;83(5):449-458.
8. Parker MJ, Gurusamy KS, Azegami S. Arthroplasties (with and without bone cement) for proximal femoral fractures in adults. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2010(6):CD001706.
9. Taylor F, Wright M, Zhu M. Hemiarthroplasty of the hip with and without cement: a randomized clinical trial. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2012;94(7):577-583.
10. Kim YH, Kim JS, Park JW, Joo JH. Contemporary total hip arthroplasty with and without cement in patients with osteonecrosis of the femoral head: a concise follow-up, at an average of seventeen years, of a previous report. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2011;93(19):1806-1810.
11. Weiss RJ, Stark A, Karrholm J. A modular cementless stem vs. cemented long-stem prostheses in revision surgery of the hip: a population-based study from the Swedish Hip Arthroplasty Register. *Acta Orthop.* 2011;82(2):136-142.
12. Nakama GY, Peccin MS, Almeida GJ, Lira Neto Ode A, Queiroz AA, Navarro RD. Cemented, cementless or hybrid fixation options in total knee arthroplasty for osteoarthritis and other non-traumatic diseases. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2012;10:CD006193.
13. Park JW, Kim YH. Simultaneous cemented and cementless total knee replacement in the same patients: a prospective comparison of long-term outcomes using an identical design of NexGen prosthesis. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2011;93(11):1479-1486.

14. Khaw FM, Kirk LM, Morris RW, Gregg PJ. A randomised, controlled trial of cemented versus cementless press-fit condylar total knee replacement. Ten-year survival analysis. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2002;84(5):658-666.
15. Baker PN, Khaw FM, Kirk LM, Esler CN, Gregg PJ. A randomised controlled trial of cemented versus cementless press-fit condylar total knee replacement: 15-year survival analysis. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2007;89(12):1608-1614.
16. Beaupre LA, al-Yamani M, Huckell JR, Johnston DW. Hydroxyapatite-coated tibial implants compared with cemented tibial fixation in primary total knee arthroplasty. A randomized trial of outcomes at five years. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2007;89(10):2204-2211.
17. Nilsson KG, Karrholm J, Carlsson L, Dalen T. Hydroxyapatite coating versus cemented fixation of the tibial component in total knee arthroplasty: prospective randomized comparison of hydroxyapatite-coated and cemented tibial components with 5-year follow-up using radiostereometry. *J Arthroplasty.* 1999;14(1):9-20.
18. Chiu FY, Chen CM, Lin CF, Lo WH. Cefuroxime-impregnated cement in primary total knee arthroplasty: a prospective, randomized study of three hundred and forty knees. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2002;84-A(5):759-762.
19. Chiu FY, Lin CF, Chen CM, Lo WH, Chaung TY. Cefuroxime-impregnated cement at primary total knee arthroplasty in diabetes mellitus. A prospective, randomised study. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2001;83(5):691-695.
20. Espehaug B, Engesaeter LB, Vollset SE, Havelin LI, Langeland N. Antibiotic prophylaxis in total hip arthroplasty. Review of 10,905 primary cemented total hip replacements reported to the Norwegian arthroplasty register, 1987 to 1995. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1997;79(4):590-595.
21. Parvizi J, Saleh KJ, Ragland PS, Pour AE, Mont MA. Efficacy of antibiotic-impregnated cement in total hip replacement. *Acta Orthop.* 2008;79(3):335-341.
22. Chiu FY, Lin CF. Antibiotic-impregnated cement in revision total knee arthroplasty. A prospective cohort study of one hundred and eighty-three knees. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2009;91(3):628-633.
23. Dall GF, Simpson PM, Breusch SJ. In vitro comparison of Refobacin-Palacos R with Refobacin Bone Cement and Palacos R + G. *Acta Orthop.* 2007;78(3):404-411.
24. Greene N, Holtom PD, Warren CA, et al. In vitro elution of tobramycin and vancomycin polymethylmethacrylate beads and spacers from Simplex and Palacos. *Am J Orthop (Belle Mead NJ).* 1998;27(3):201-205.
25. Meyer J, Piller G, Spiegel CA, Hetzel S, Squire M. Vacuum-mixing significantly changes antibiotic elution characteristics of commercially available antibiotic-impregnated bone cements. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2011;93(22):2049-2056.
26. Neut D, Kluin OS, Thompson J, van der Mei HC, Busscher HJ. Gentamicin release from commercially-available gentamicin-loaded PMMA bone cements in a prosthesis-related interfacial gap model and their antibacterial efficacy. *BMC Musculoskelet Disord.* 2011;11:258.
27. Squire MW, Ludwig BJ, Thompson JR, Jagodzinski J, Hall D, Andes D. Premixed antibiotic bone cement: an in vitro comparison of antimicrobial efficacy. *J Arthroplasty.* 2008;23(6 Suppl 1):110-114.
28. Stevens CM, Tetsworth KD, Calhoun JH, Mader JT. An articulated antibiotic spacer used for infected total knee arthroplasty: a comparative in vitro elution study of Simplex and Palacos bone cements. *J Orthop Res.* 2005;23(1):27-33.
29. Cummins JS, Tomek IM, Kantor SR, Furnes O, Engesaeter LB, Finlayson SR. Cost-effectiveness of antibiotic-impregnated bone cement used in primary total hip arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2009;91(3):634-641.
30. Parvizi J, Pawasarat IM, Azzam KA, Joshi A, Hansen EN, Bozic KJ. Periprosthetic joint infection: the economic impact of methicillin-resistant infections. *J Arthroplasty.* 2010;25(6 Suppl):103-107.

31. McLaren AC, Nugent M, Economopoulos K, Kaul H, Vernon BL, McLemore R. Hand-mixed and premixed antibiotic-loaded bone cement have similar homogeneity. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2009;467(7):1693-1698.
32. Miller R, McLaren A, Leon C, McLemore R. Mixing method affects elution and strength of high-dose ALBC: a pilot study. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2012;470(10):2677-2683.
33. Song EK, Seon JK, Jeong MS. Delayed-type hypersensitivity reaction to piperacillin/tazobactam in a patient with an infected total knee replacement. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2010;92(11):1596-1599.
34. Fink B, Vogt S, Reinsch M, Buchner H. Sufficient release of antibiotic by a spacer 6 weeks after implantation in two-stage revision of infected hip prostheses. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2011;469(11):3141-3147.
35. Anguita-Alonso P, Rouse MS, Piper KE, Jacofsky DJ, Osmon DR, Patel R. Comparative study of antimicrobial release kinetics from polymethylmethacrylate. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2006;445:239-244.
36. Han CD, Oh T, Cho SN, Yang JH, Park KK. Isoniazid could be used for antibiotic-loaded bone cement for musculoskeletal tuberculosis: an in vitro study. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2013;471(7):2400-2406.
37. Adams K, Couch L, Cierny G, Calhoun J, Mader JT. In vitro and in vivo evaluation of antibiotic diffusion from antibiotic-impregnated polymethylmethacrylate beads. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1992(278):244-252.
38. Australian Orthopedic Association National Joint Replacement Registry. <https://aoanjrr.dmac.adelaide.edu.au/en/annual-reports-2012>. Accessed July 14, 2013.
39. Milosev I, Kovac S, Trebse R, Levasic V, Pisot V. Comparison of ten-year survivorship of hip prostheses with use of conventional polyethylene, metal-on-metal, or ceramic-on-ceramic bearings. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2012;94(19):1756-1763.
40. Nikolaou VS, Edwards MR, Bogoch E, Schemitsch EH, Waddell JP. A prospective randomised controlled trial comparing three alternative bearing surfaces in primary total hip replacement. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2012;94(4):459-465.
41. Bozic KJ, Ong K, Lau E, et al. Risk of complication and revision total hip arthroplasty among Medicare patients with different bearing surfaces. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2010;468(9):2357-2362.
42. Bozic KJ, Lau EC, Ong KL, Vail TP, Rubash HE, Berry DJ. Comparative effectiveness of metal-on-metal and metal-on-polyethylene bearings in Medicare total hip arthroplasty patients. *J Arthroplasty.* 2012;27(8 Suppl):37-40.
43. Pilge H, Gradl G, von Eisenhart-Rothe R, Gollwitzer H. Incidence and outcome after infection of megaprotheses. *Hip Int.* 2012;22 Suppl 8:S83-90.
44. Harges J, Gebert C, Schwappach A, et al. Characteristics and outcome of infections associated with tumor endoprotheses. *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg.* 2006;126(5):289-296.
45. Moojen DJ, Hentenaar B, Charles Vogely H, Verbout AJ, Castelein RM, Dhert WJ. In vitro release of antibiotics from commercial PMMA beads and articulating hip spacers. *J Arthroplasty.* 2008;23(8):1152-1156.
46. Spierlings PT. Properties of bone cement: testing and performance of bone cements. In: Breusch S, Malchau H, eds. *The Well-Cemented Total Hip Arthroplasty: Theory and Practice.* Heidelberg: Springer Medizin Verlag Heidelberg; 2005:67-78.
47. Del Gaizo DJ, Kancherla V, Sporer SM, Paprosky WG. Tantalum augments for Paprosky IIIA defects remain stable at midterm followup. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2012;470(2):395-401.
48. Howard JL, Kudera J, Lewallen DG, Hanssen AD. Early results of the use of tantalum femoral cones for revision total knee arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2011;93(5):478-484.
49. Lachiewicz PF, Bolognesi MP, Henderson RA, Soileau ES, Vail TP. Can tantalum cones provide fixation in complex revision knee arthroplasty? *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2012;470(1):199-204.

50. Sweet FA, Roh M, Sliva C. Intrawound application of vancomycin for prophylaxis in instrumented thoracolumbar fusions: efficacy, drug levels, and patient outcomes. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976)*. 2011;36(24):2084-2088.
51. Villanueva-Martinez M, De la Torre-Escudero B, Rojo-Manaute JM, Rios-Luna A, Chana-Rodriguez F. Tantalum cones in revision total knee arthroplasty. A promising short-term result with 29 cones in 21 patients. *J Arthroplasty*. 2013;28(6):988-993.
52. Molinari RW, Khera OA, Molinari WJ, 3rd. Prophylactic intraoperative powdered vancomycin and postoperative deep spinal wound infection: 1,512 consecutive surgical cases over a 6-year period. *Eur Spine J*. 2012;21 Suppl 4:S476-482.
53. O'Neill KR, Smith JG, Abtahi AM, et al. Reduced surgical site infections in patients undergoing posterior spinal stabilization of traumatic injuries using vancomycin powder. *Spine J*. 2011;11(7):641-646.
54. Antoci V, Jr., Adams CS, Hickok NJ, Shapiro IM, Parvizi J. Vancomycin bound to Ti rods reduces periprosthetic infection: preliminary study. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2007;461:88-95.
55. Parvizi J, Wickstrom E, Zeiger AR, et al. Frank Stinchfield Award. Titanium surface with biologic activity against infection. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2004(429):33-38.
56. Stewart S, Barr S, Engiles J, et al. Vancomycin-modified implant surface inhibits biofilm formation and supports bone-healing in an infected osteotomy model in sheep: a proof-of-concept study. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2012;94(15):1406-1415.
57. Adams CS, Antoci V, Jr., Harrison G, et al. Controlled release of vancomycin from thin sol-gel films on implant surfaces successfully controls osteomyelitis. *J Orthop Res*. 2009;27(6):701-709.
58. Fiedler J, Kolitsch A, Kleffner B, Henke D, Stenger S, Brenner RE. Copper and silver ion implantation of aluminium oxide-blasted titanium surfaces: proliferative response of osteoblasts and antibacterial effects. *Int J Artif Organs*. 2011;34(9):882-888.
59. Kose N, Otuzbir A, Peksen C, Kiremitci A, Dogan A. A Silver Ion-doped Calcium Phosphate-based Ceramic Nanopowder-coated Prosthesis Increased Infection Resistance. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2013;471(8):2532-2539.
60. Chai H, Guo L, Wang X, et al. Antibacterial effect of 317L stainless steel contained copper in prevention of implant-related infection in vitro and in vivo. *J Mater Sci Mater Med*. 2011;22(11):2525-2535.
61. Heidenau F, Mittelmeier W, Detsch R, et al. A novel antibacterial titania coating: metal ion toxicity and in vitro surface colonization. *J Mater Sci Mater Med*. 2005;16(10):883-888.
62. Haenle M, Fritsche A, Zietz C, et al. An extended spectrum bactericidal titanium dioxide (TiO₂) coating for metallic implants: in vitro effectiveness against MRSA and mechanical properties. *J Mater Sci Mater Med*. 2011;22(2):381-387.
63. Schaer TP, Stewart S, Hsu BB, Klivanov AM. Hydrophobic polycationic coatings that inhibit biofilms and support bone healing during infection. *Biomaterials*. 2012;33(5):1245-1254.
64. Ellenrieder M, Haenle M, Lenz R, Bader R, Mittelmeier W. Titanium-copper-nitride coated spacers for two-stage revision of infected total hip endoprostheses. *GMS Krankenhhyg Interdiszip*. 2011;6(1):Doc16.
65. Hansen EN, Zmistowski B, Parvizi J. Periprosthetic joint infection: what is on the horizon? *Int J Artif Organs*. 2012;35(10):935-950.
66. Ehrlich GD, Stoodley P, Kathju S, et al. Engineering approaches for the detection and control of orthopaedic biofilm infections. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2005(437):59-66.
67. Uhari M, Hietala J, Tuokko H. Risk of acute otitis media in relation to the viral etiology of infections in children. *Clin Infect Dis*. 1995;20(3):521-524.
68. Radin S, Ducheyne P. Controlled release of vancomycin from thin sol-gel films on titanium alloy fracture plate material. *Biomaterials*. 2007;28(9):1721-1729.

69. Wong SY, Moskowitz JS, Veselinovic J, et al. Dual functional polyelectrolyte multilayer coatings for implants: permanent microbicidal base with controlled release of therapeutic agents. *J Am Chem Soc.* 2012;132(50):17840-17848.
70. Reddy ST, Chung KK, McDaniel CJ, Darouiche RO, Landman J, Brennan AB. Micropatterned surfaces for reducing the risk of catheter-associated urinary tract infection: an in vitro study on the effect of sharklet micropatterned surfaces to inhibit bacterial colonization and migration of uropathogenic *Escherichia coli*. *J Endourol.* 2012;25(9):1547-1552.

Workgroup 7: Diagnosis of Periprosthetic Joint Infection

Liaison:

Benjamin Zmistowski BS

Leaders:

Craig Della Valle MD (US), Thomas W Bauer MD (US), Konstantinos N. Malizos MD, PhD (International)

Delegates:

Abbas Alavi MD, Hani Bedair MD, Robert E Booth MD, Peter Choong MD, Carl Deirmengian MD, Garth D Ehrlich PhD, Anil Gambir MD, Ronald Huang MD, Yair Kissin MD, Hideo Kobayashi MD, Naomi Kobayashi MD, Veit Krenn MD, Drago Lorenzo MD, SB Marston MD, Geert Meermans MD, Javier Perez MD, JJ Ploegmakers MD, Aaron Rosenberg MD, C Simpendorfer MD, Peter Thomas MD, Stephan Tohtz MD, Jorge A Villafuerte MD, Peter Wahl MD, Frank-Christiaan Wagenaar MD, Eivind Witso MD

Question 1A: What is the definition of periprosthetic joint infection (PJI)?

Consensus: PJI is defined as:

- * Two positive periprosthetic cultures with phenotypically identical organisms, or
- * A sinus tract communicating with the joint, or
- * Having three of the following minor criteria:
 - Elevated serum C-reactive protein (CRP) AND erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR)
 - Elevated synovial fluid white blood cell (WBC) count OR ++change on leukocyte esterase test strip
 - Elevated synovial fluid polymorphonuclear neutrophil percentage (PMN%)
 - Positive histological analysis of periprosthetic tissue
 - A single positive culture

Delegate Vote: Agree: 85%, Disagree: 13%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Question 1B: What are some considerations for the definition of periprosthetic joint infection (PJI)?

Consensus:

Clinically, PJI may be present without meeting these criteria, specifically in the case of less virulent organisms (eg *P. acnes*). Synovial leukocyte esterase can be performed as a rapid office or intraoperative point of care test using urinalysis strips. In the case of a bloody aspiration, centrifugation has been shown to preserve the accuracy of the colorimetric test for leukocyte esterase

Delegate Vote: Agree: 76%, Disagree: 14%, Abstain: 10% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: This is an adaptation of the Musculoskeletal Infection Society's (MSIS) definition of PJI.¹ A sinus tract communicating with the prosthetic joint or two positive cultures with phenotypically identical organisms can be considered pathognomonic for PJI and therefore either of these items alone defines it.

The minor criteria are traditional tests utilized in the work-up of PJI that have a proven, reproducible accuracy in diagnosis yet are not independently pathognomonic for joint infection.

Serum ESR and CRP are known sensitive markers of PJI with relatively poor specificity and can be influenced by other infectious and non-infectious inflammatory diseases, including extra-articular infection.²⁻⁶ The combination of an elevated ESR and CRP with traditional thresholds has been shown to be a more accurate predictor of PJI than isolated elevations of the ESR or CRP alone.^{4, 5, 7}

Synovial fluid WBC count and PMN% are well established as markers of PJI.^{3, 8-12} They are accurate predictors of PJI that can occasionally be elevated in an aseptic joint pain.

Despite significant variability between institutions, multiple authors—including those of a rigorous meta-analysis¹³—have shown the utility of histologic analysis of periprosthetic tissue to diagnose PJI.¹³⁻²⁰ Although the appropriate thresholds for diagnosing PJI in histologic analysis is controversial, a maximum tissue concentration between 5 and 10 PMN/HPF in each of 5 or more HPF seems to carry the best diagnostic performance. The criterion of a total of 23 PMNs in 10 HPF¹⁷ is thought to lead to the same final diagnosis as the criteria listed above in most cases. Neutrophils entrapped in superficial fibrin are not predictive of infection, and submitting samples obtained by sharp dissection instead of cautery will help limit false positive diagnoses due to thermal artifacts.

Recent analyses have shown that application of synovial fluid to a simple urine test strip and attention to leukocyte esterase results can be an accurate marker of PJI (sensitivity=81%-93% specificity=87%-100%) with instantaneous results.^{21, 22} One study found that one third of synovial aspirates were unable to be tested with colorimetric reagent strips.²² However, recent work suggests that centrifugation of the synovial sample at 6600 revolutions per minute for 2-3 minutes will help separate out the red blood cells and allowing for colorimetric testing to be performed accurately.²³

A single positive culture, while suggestive of PJI, can represent a false positive²⁴⁻²⁶ and is therefore a minor criterion and must be weighed in light of other diagnostic tests.

Gram stain^{24, 27-32} and serum white blood cell count and differential^{12, 33, 34} have been

shown to be poor markers of PJI and have therefore not been included in this definition.

Intra-articular purulence, a former minor criterion of the MSIS¹, has often been considered pathognomonic for PJI. However, purulence has also recently been found in cases of adverse local tissue reaction to metal-on-metal hip implants and corrosion reactions associated with a modular metal-on-metal junction.³⁵⁻³⁷ Furthermore, determining the presence of purulence is subjective. As a consequence purulence has now been removed as a minor criterion from definition of PJI.

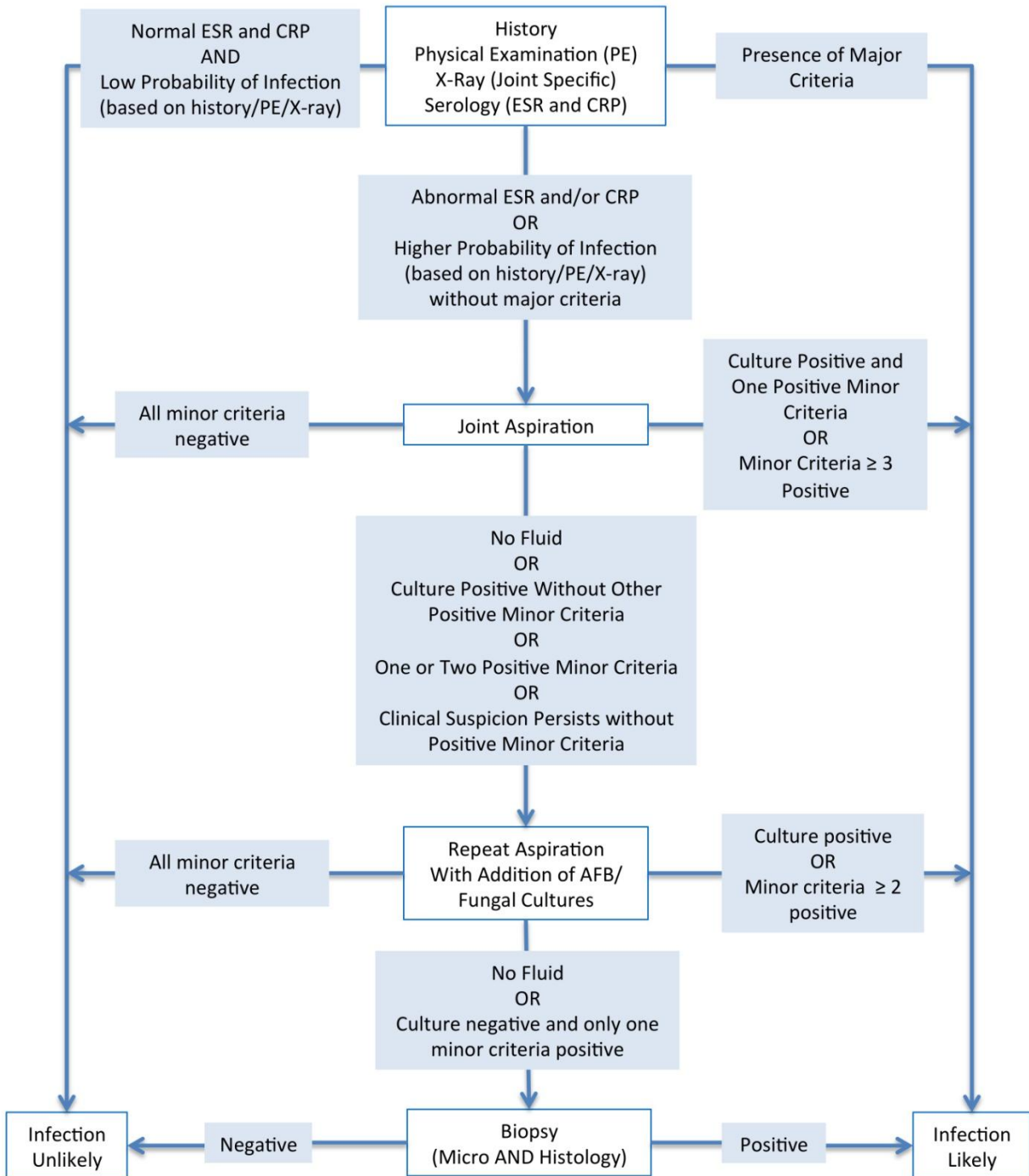
Question 2: Do you agree with the American Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons's (AAOS) algorithm for diagnosis of PJI?

Consensus: The following is an adaptation of the AAOS's algorithm for the diagnosis of PJI. This algorithm should be applied to patients who present with a painful or failed arthroplasty.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 91%, Disagree: 0%, Abstain: 9% (Strong Consensus)

Major Criteria:
 • Sinus tract communicating with the joint

Minor Criteria:
 • Culture
 • Leukocyte Esterase
 • Synovial White Blood Cell Count
 • Synovial Neutrophil Percentage



Considerations:

Clinical judgment should not be outweighed by use of the diagnostic algorithm or any one individual test. A preoperative aseptic diagnosis using this algorithm should not eliminate suspicion for PJI. Patients should be considered to have a higher probability of infection if they have a history of persistent pain or stiffness and any of the following:

- Recent bacteremia,
- Multiple surgeries on the same joint,
- History of periprosthetic joint infection,
- Comorbidities predisposing patients to an immunocompromised state, e.g. diabetes mellitus, inflammatory arthropathy, or malnourishment,
- Factors that increase risk of skin barrier penetration, eg: intravenous drug use, poor wound conditions, psoriasis, chronic venous stasis, or skin ulceration,
- Superficial surgical site infection related to the joint.

Physical exam findings suggestive of PJI:

- Wound dehiscence, or
- Joint warmth, redness, or swelling

Plain radiographic signs suggestive of PJI:

- Signs of loosening of previously well-fixed components (particularly loosening seen within the first 5 years postoperatively),
- Osteolysis or bone resorption around the prosthetic components should not be considered to be related to wear of the bearing surface, particularly if seen at less than 5 years post-operatively,
- Subperiosteal elevation, or
- Transcortical sinus tracts.

It is important to note that plain radiographs are generally normal in the setting of PJI.

Justification:

In data analysis performed by this workgroup's members, the use of serology screening followed by joint aspiration with fluid cell count analysis has an estimated accuracy of 90% for diagnosing PJI in the preoperative setting when compared to the definition of PJI provided

above. A separate multi-criteria decision analysis by workgroup members exhibited that ESR and CRP screening with subsequent joint aspiration is the most cost-effective method for diagnosing PJI³⁸

This algorithm is an adaptation of the AAOS algorithm³⁹, incorporating the components of the definition provided above. As discussed above, these individual components are accurate markers of PJI.

Biopsy of the joint has an established accuracy in diagnosing PJI.⁴⁰⁻⁴⁶ Due to the invasive nature of this tool and the theoretical risk of contaminating a previously aseptic joint, pre-operative biopsy should be limited to those cases with a high probability of PJI with inconclusive aspirate results. Intraoperative frozen sections, however, may help distinguish infection from aseptic failure with less potential morbidity than pre-operative biopsy.

The presence of well-established risk factors for PJI should raise the suspicion of septic failure. Risk factors include those that increase pathogen exposure to the joint or impair the body's ability to eradicate pathogens.⁴⁷⁻⁵⁰

A sinus tract communicating with the joint is considered a pathognomonic physical examination finding for PJI. Other findings, such as wound dehiscence, joint tenderness, or joint swelling, are not specific for PJI, but should increase the suspicion.

Question 3A: What should the threshold be for ESR, serum CRP, PMN%, and WBC count for ACUTE PJI?

Consensus: The approximate cutoffs listed below apply to tests obtained less than 6 weeks from most recent surgery:

- No threshold for ESR could be determined as it is not useful in diagnosis of acute PJI.
- CRP > 100 mg/L (knee and hip),
- Synovial WBC count > 10,000 cells/ μ L, and
- Synovial PMN% > 90%.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 81%, Disagree: 12%, Abstain: 7% (Strong Consensus)

Question 3B: What should the threshold be for ESR, serum CRP, PMN%, and WBC count for CHRONIC PJI?

Consensus: The approximate cutoffs listed below apply to tests obtained more than 6 weeks from the most recent surgery:

- ESR > 30 mm/hr,
- CRP > 10 mg/L,
- Synovial WBC count > 3,000 cells per μ L, and
- Synovial PMN% > 80%.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 81%, Disagree: 14%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Question 3C: What should the threshold be for ESR, serum CRP, PMN%, and WBC count for PJI in inflammatory arthropathies?

Consensus: Based upon very limited evidence, we recommend no change from the above thresholds for ESR, serum CRP, PMN%, and WBC count for PJI diagnosis in patients who have underlying inflammatory arthropathies. However, further research is needed to confirm this statement.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 87%, Disagree: 9%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justifications:Serology: ESR and CRP are traditionally utilized as screening tests for the detection of PJI. As such, it is imperative that these tests have a high sensitivity, possibly compromising specificity.

These serology thresholds have been established and confirmed by a multitude of studies with limited variability. ESR and CRP have both been shown to be elevated in the acute postoperative time period (6 weeks) regardless of infection status. ESR has been shown to

have limited diagnostic utility in this setting.⁸ In the acute postoperative setting CRP has been shown in published and workgroup research to have accuracy in diagnosing PJI.⁸ The existing literature used 6 weeks as their definition of the acute postoperative time period. However, ESR and CRP are likely still elevated up to 90 days following surgery.

Limited evidence suggests that no difference exists in the thresholds of ESR, CRP, or synovial fluid WBC count and differential to diagnose PJI in patients with and without inflammatory arthropathies.³

Synovial fluid: These thresholds are based upon extensive data analysis from members of this workgroup. Evidence for synovial fluid thresholds to diagnose PJI varies significantly.^{7, 9-12, 51-53} It is believed that these variations are due to the different definitions of PJI utilized in these studies and variances in laboratory results.^{54, 55} The thresholds reported here were calculated with the aforementioned definition of PJI and similar laboratory techniques when available.

Evidence, both published and analyzed by this workgroup, has shown that synovial WBC count and PMN% remain highly valuable in the diagnosis of infection in the acute postoperative period, despite having a baseline elevation due to the insult of surgery.⁸ As discussed above, while these thresholds are likely still valid within 90 days, evidence is only available for the first 6 postoperative weeks.

Evidence has indicated that the presence of inflammatory arthropathies does not impact synovial WBC count and PMN% thresholds for the diagnosis of PJI.³

Early data suggests that the synovial fluid WBC count may be unreliable and prone to falsely positive results in the setting of a failed metal-on-metal bearing or corrosion reaction. These results should be considered carefully in this setting. A manual synovial fluid WBC count is recommended in this setting and if a differential cannot be performed on the sample, the results should be suspect.

Failed metal-on-metal bearings or corrosion reactions may result in a marked variability of the synovial fluid WBC count and differential.⁵⁶ Monocytes with phagocytosed metal particles seem to be interpreted as polymorphonuclear leukocytes (neutrophils) by some automated hematology instruments leading to false positive PMN interpretations. Therefore, synovial WBC analysis in patients with metal-on-metal bearings and corrosion reactions should be counted manually, especially when discordance between PMN% and WBC count elevation is noted.

Question 4: In analyzing synovial fluid cell count, what are important techniques to minimize variation?

Consensus: To accurately analyze synovial fluid cell count we recommend that (1) synovial fluid WBC count results be transformed using the synovial red blood cell (RBC), serum RBC, and serum WBC concentrations to adjust for traumatic aspirations and (2) in joints with metal-on-metal components a manual WBC analysis should be performed.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 92%, Disagree: 1%, Abstain: 7%.

Justification:

Numerous studies, despite having varying definitions of PJI, have identified similar thresholds for ESR and serum CRP in diagnosing PJI.^{3-5, 57, 58}

Reported variations between laboratories for synovial fluid analysis⁵⁵ may be the cause for heterogeneity in thresholds of synovial WBC count and PMN% to diagnose PJI, specifically in the hip versus knee versus shoulder.

Such differences may be accounted for in part by:

Traumatic aspirations.

Presence of metal-on-metal bearing surfaces or corrosion reactions.

These issues can be resolved:

Using a validated technique, the true level of synovial leukocytosis can be determined by adjusting for the synovial RBC, serum RBC, and serum WBC counts.⁵⁹

Metal-on-metal bearings and corrosion reactions may result in a significant variability of the synovial fluid WBC count and differential.⁵⁶ Therefore, synovial WBC analysis in patients with metal-on-metal bearings and corrosion reactions should be counted manually, especially when discordance between PMN% and WBC count elevation is noted.

Question 5: How long should routine cultures be kept?

Consensus: We recommend that routine cultures should be maintained between 5 and 14 days. In cases of suspected PJI with low virulence organisms or if preoperative cultures have failed to show bacterial growth and the clinical picture is consistent with PJI (suspected culture-negative PJI) the cultures should be maintained for 14 days or longer.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 93%, Disagree: 5%, Abstain: 2%.

Justification:

Evidence has shown that extending periprosthetic cultures to 2 weeks in attempts to diagnose PJI significantly increases the culture sensitivity while not increasing the risk of contaminants.⁶⁰⁻⁶³ While there is no evidence to determine the cost-effectiveness of 2-week versus 1-week cultures in presumed aseptic cases, the incidence of clinically significant positive results is not insignificant. Therefore, adequate culture duration for all potential pathogens is recommended in presumed aseptic cases.^{64, 65} It is also believed that the majority of common infecting organisms can be isolated within a few days of conventional cultures. There is no reason to extend the duration of culture in patients in whom the infecting organism has been isolated preoperatively. For patients with suspected PJI, culture negative cases, and patients who may be infected with low virulence organisms, the culture should be maintained for a prolonged period (14 days and perhaps longer).

Question 6A: Is there a role for routine acid-fast bacillus (AFB) and fungal testing in suspected PJI?

Consensus: In proven or suspected PJI, AFB and fungal cultures should be limited to those patients at risk for such infections or when other traditional pathogens have not been identified and clinical suspicion persists.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 92%, Disagree: 6%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Question 6B: Is there a role for routine acid-fast bacillus (AFB) and fungal testing in suspected aseptic failure?

Consensus: No. AFB and fungal cultures do not play a role in presumed aseptic cases (eg cases where a synovial fluid WBC count and differential performed preoperatively were not suggestive of infection).

Delegate Vote: Agree: 91%, Disagree: 7%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification:

Mycobacteria and fungi are rare causes of PJI.⁶⁶⁻⁶⁸ Therefore, even in cases of proven or

suspected PJI, costly and time-consuming investigation is likely not warranted in patients without risk or suspicion for atypical infections.

Evidence has shown that routine AFB and fungal testing in presumed aseptic cases does not yield clinically important findings, nor is it cost-effective.⁶⁹

Question 7A: How many intraoperative tissue samples should be sent for culture in suspected PJI cases and cases of suspected aseptic failure?

Consensus: In most revision procedures, more than three but not more than six distinct intraoperative tissue samples should be sent for aerobic and anaerobic culture.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 88%, Disagree: 10%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Question 7B: How should culture samples be obtained?

Consensus: Tissue or fluid samples from representative area should be taken, preferably from the interface, each sample taken with an unused instrument. We strongly recommend against swab cultures from wound or periarticular tissues.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 97%, Disagree: 2%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Question 7C: Should antibiotic be withheld prior to obtaining samples for culture in all cases?

Consensus: No. Perioperative prophylactic antibiotics should be withheld only in cases with a high suspicion for PJI in which an infecting organism has not been isolated.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 87%, Disagree: 12%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification:

Protocols for periprosthetic tissue collection have historically been established with a target of 5 samples.^{25, 63, 70}

In the only known quantitative analysis, it was found that sensitivity and specificity are maximized with 5 or 6 periprosthetic samples being collected.²⁴

It has been suggested that for less virulent organisms or in patients with recent antibiotic use, up to 10 periprosthetic samples should be routinely collected.⁷¹ However, it is believed that poor sensitivity due to recent antibiotic use or less virulent organisms can be overcome by other techniques (eg increased incubation time, molecular techniques, or explant sonication).^{63, 72-74} As such, culture specificity should not be compromised by taking more than 5 samples.

In an analysis of 117 revision cases (30 with PJI) with 3 periprosthetic tissue and 3 periprosthetic swab cultures, it was shown that swab cultures have a sensitivity (70% vs 93%) and specificity (89% vs 98%) inferior to tissue culture.⁷⁵ This is in support of an earlier study with similar findings with a less stringent definition of PJI.⁷⁶

Two prospective (one randomized) studies have demonstrated that prophylactic preoperative antibiotics do not impair the sensitivity of traditional intraoperative cultures.^{77, 78} As such, it is suggested that mandatory withholding of prophylactic antibiotics is not justified in cases in which a pathogen has already been identified. In cases in which PJI is diagnosed or suspected and a pathogen has yet to be identified, the use of prophylactic antibiotics is dependent upon clinical judgment.

Question 8: Is there a role for routine sonication of the prosthesis? If so, in which group of patients should this be done?

Consensus: NO. We do not recommend routine sonication of explants. Its use should be limited to cases of suspected or proven PJI (based upon presentation and other testing) in which preoperative aspiration does not yield positive culture and antibiotics have been administered within the previous 2 weeks.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 84%, Disagree: 9%, Abstain: 7% (Strong Consensus)

Justification:

Explant sonication during revision arthroplasty of the hip, knee, and shoulder has been

shown to increase the likelihood of isolating pathogens without increasing the rate of contaminants.^{73, 74, 79-83}

Sonication of explants is a time- and resource-intensive procedure that is likely not justified in presumed aseptic cases. Further, the equipment to perform sonication is not widely available.

In a large prospective analysis of 331 cases, the greatest advantage of explant sonication over standard tissue culture was appreciated when antibiotics were provided within 2 weeks of surgery.⁷⁴ Sonication likely has this advantage because the process removes biofilm from the explant allowing for sampling and culture. Planktonic bacteria typically captured by standard periprosthetic sampling are more susceptible to antibiotic therapy than sessile organisms.

Question 9: Is there a role for molecular techniques such as polymerase chain reaction (PCR) for diagnosis of PJI? If so, in which group of patients should this be done?

Consensus: Nucleic acid based testing is not currently a recommended routine diagnostic test for PJI. In cases with high clinical suspicion of infection but negative cultures or other diagnostic tests, molecular techniques with or without sonication may help identify the unknown pathogens or antibiotic sensitivity for targeting antimicrobial therapies.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 96%, Disagree: 3%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification:

PCR techniques have been shown to be significantly more sensitive than standard tissue culture for detecting pathogens.^{72, 79, 84-92} However, despite multiple modified techniques, the number of false-positive results precludes screening with the types of molecular techniques currently most commonly available. The specificity of PCR techniques has a wide reported range between 0%-100%.^{72, 86-89, 93}

An advantage of molecular techniques is that it can be used in the detection of organisms, even with recent antibiotic use.^{79, 93}

Improved detection is observed in PCR of sonication fluid from explants with and without standard tissue culture.^{79, 85, 90, 93, 94} This additive effect is likely observed due to the introduction of sessile bacteria into the tested sample.

While molecular techniques have shown some promise in identifying genes associated with antibiotic resistance.^{72, 81, 94} they do not yet match the clinical applicability of testing the antibiotic susceptibility of organisms grown in culture. The cost and availability of this technology limit its broad application and therefore is not considered a standard tool in the work-up of PJI.

Question 10: Is there a role for imaging modalities in the diagnosis of PJI?

Consensus: Plain radiographs should be performed in all cases of suspected PJI. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), computed tomography (CT), and nuclear imaging currently DO NOT have a direct role in the diagnosis of PJI but may be helpful in the identification of other causes of joint pain/failure.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 93%, Disagree: 7%, Abstain: 0% (Strong Consensus)

Justification:

Plain radiographs are not accurate markers of PJI.⁹⁵ Despite this, other etiologies of joint failure are well apparent on plain radiographs. Plain film may show subperiosteal bone growth, loosening, transcortical sinus tracts, or normal findings in the setting of PJI.

There is a paucity of data regarding the diagnostic value of MRI. However, the artifact caused by the presence of the prosthetic implant is well known and suggests that evaluation of the periprosthetic region for infection may not be possible.⁹⁶

One analysis is known to have investigated the diagnostic utility of CT imaging for periprosthetic hip infection.⁹⁷ That study reported that soft-tissue findings such as joint distention and periprosthetic fluid collections were accurate (94% and 89%, respectively) markers of PJI. However, these findings cannot be generalized to other joints and have not been confirmed in subsequent studies. Therefore, it is not currently recommended to utilize CT to evaluate for PJI when other imaging and non-invasive tests have proven efficacy.

There is substantial evidence regarding the effectiveness of nuclear imaging in diagnosing PJI.^{94, 98-108} While many different nuclear imaging techniques have been tested and proven for PJI diagnosis, the most accurate and cost-effective technique has yet to be

elucidated. Furthermore, with the high cost of performing and analyzing nuclear imaging, its role in the work-up for PJI should be limited. As such, there is rare utility for nuclear imaging with the multitude of more cost-effective measures. Furthermore, plans to return the patient to the operating room will allow for joint visualization, periprosthetic tissue culture, and possible explant sonication.

References:

1. 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(11):2992-2994.
2. Berbari E, Mabry T, Tsaras G, et al. Inflammatory blood laboratory levels as markers of prosthetic joint infection: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2010;92(11):2102-2109.
3. Cipriano CA, Brown NM, Michael AM, Moric M, Sporer SM, Della Valle CJ. Serum and synovial fluid analysis for diagnosing chronic periprosthetic infection in patients with inflammatory arthritis. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2012;94(7):594-600.
4. Ghanem E, Antoci V, Jr., Pulido L, Joshi A, Hozack W, Parvizi J. The use of receiver operating characteristics analysis in determining erythrocyte sedimentation rate and C-reactive protein levels in diagnosing periprosthetic infection prior to revision total hip arthroplasty. *Int J Infect Dis*. 2009;13(6):e444-449.
5. Greidanus NV, Masri BA, Garbuz DS, et al. Use of erythrocyte sedimentation rate and C-reactive protein level to diagnose infection before revision total knee arthroplasty. A prospective evaluation. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2007;89(7):1409-1416.
6. Olshaker JS, Jerrard DA. The erythrocyte sedimentation rate. *J Emerg Med*. 1997;15(6):869-874.
7. Schinsky MF, Della Valle CJ, Sporer SM, Paprosky WG. Perioperative testing for joint infection in patients undergoing revision total hip arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2008;90(9):1869-1875.
8. Bedair H, Ting N, Jacovides C, et al. The Mark Coventry Award: diagnosis of early postoperative TKA infection using synovial fluid analysis. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2011;469(1):34-40.
9. Dinneen A, Guyot A, Clements J, Bradley N. Synovial fluid white cell and differential count in the diagnosis or exclusion of prosthetic joint infection. *Bone Joint J*. 2013;95-B(4):554-557.
10. Mason JB, Fehring TK, Odum SM, Griffin WL, Nussman DS. The value of white blood cell counts before revision total knee arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty*. 2003;18(8):1038-1043.
11. Trampuz A, Hanssen AD, Osmon DR, Mandrekar J, Steckelberg JM, Patel R. Synovial fluid leukocyte count and differential for the diagnosis of prosthetic knee infection. *Am J Med*. 2004;117(8):556-562.
12. Zmistowski B, Restrepo C, Huang R, Hozack WJ, Parvizi J. Periprosthetic joint infection diagnosis: a complete understanding of white blood cell count and differential. *J Arthroplasty*. 2012;27(9):1589-1593.
13. Tsaras G, Maduka-Ezeh A, Inwards CY, et al. Utility of intraoperative frozen section histopathology in the diagnosis of periprosthetic joint infection: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2012;94(18):1700-1711.

14. Fehring TK, McAlister JA, Jr. Frozen histologic section as a guide to sepsis in revision joint arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1994(304):229-237.
15. Ko PS, Ip D, Chow KP, Cheung F, Lee OB, Lam JJ. The role of intraoperative frozen section in decision making in revision hip and knee arthroplasties in a local community hospital. *J Arthroplasty.* 2005;20(2):189-195.
16. Lonner JH, Desai P, Dicesare PE, Steiner G, Zuckerman JD. The reliability of analysis of intraoperative frozen sections for identifying active infection during revision hip or knee arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1996;78(10):1553-1558.
17. Morawietz L, Tiddens O, Mueller M, et al. Twenty-three neutrophil granulocytes in 10 high-power fields is the best histopathological threshold to differentiate between aseptic and septic endoprosthesis loosening. *Histopathology.* 2009;54(7):847-853.
18. Nunez LV, Buttaro MA, Morandi A, Pusso R, Piccaluga F. Frozen sections of samples taken intraoperatively for diagnosis of infection in revision hip surgery. *Acta Orthop.* 2007;78(2):226-230.
19. Stroh DA, Johnson AJ, Naziri Q, Mont MA. How do frozen and permanent histopathologic diagnoses compare for staged revision after periprosthetic hip infections? *J Arthroplasty.* 2012;27(9):1663-1668 e1661.
20. Krenn V, Morawietz L, Kienapfel H, et al. [Revised consensus classification. Histopathological classification of diseases associated with joint endoprostheses]. *Z Rheumatol.* 2013;72(4):383-392.
21. Parvizi J, Jacovides C, Antoci V, Ghanem E. Diagnosis of periprosthetic joint infection: the utility of a simple yet unappreciated enzyme. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2012;93(24):2242-2248.
22. Wetters NG, Berend KR, Lombardi AV, Morris MJ, Tucker TL, Della Valle CJ. Leukocyte esterase reagent strips for the rapid diagnosis of periprosthetic joint infection. *J Arthroplasty.* 2012;27(8 Suppl):8-11.
23. Aggarwal VK, Tischler E, Ghanem E, Parvizi J. Leukocyte esterase from synovial fluid aspirate: a technical note. *J Arthroplasty.* 2013;28(1):193-195.
24. Atkins BL, Athanasou N, Deeks JJ, et al. Prospective evaluation of criteria for microbiological diagnosis of prosthetic-joint infection at revision arthroplasty. The OSIRIS Collaborative Study Group. *J Clin Microbiol.* 1998;36(10):2932-2939.
25. Mikkelsen DB, Pedersen C, Hojbjerg T, Schonheyder HC. Culture of multiple peroperative biopsies and diagnosis of infected knee arthroplasties. *APMIS.* 2006;114(6):449-452.
26. Muller M, Morawietz L, Hasart O, Strube P, Perka C, Tohtz S. Diagnosis of periprosthetic infection following total hip arthroplasty--evaluation of the diagnostic values of pre- and intraoperative parameters and the associated strategy to preoperatively select patients with a high probability of joint infection. *J Orthop Surg Res.* 2008;3:31.
27. Ghanem E, Ketonis C, Restrepo C, Joshi A, Barrack R, Parvizi J. Periprosthetic infection: where do we stand with regard to Gram stain? *Acta Orthop.* 2009;80(1):37-40.
28. Johnson AJ, Zywiell MG, Stroh DA, Marker DR, Mont MA. Should gram stains have a role in diagnosing hip arthroplasty infections? *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2010;468(9):2387-2391.
29. Morgan PM, Sharkey P, Ghanem E, et al. The value of intraoperative Gram stain in revision total knee arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2009;91(9):2124-2129.
30. Oethinger M, Warner DK, Schindler SA, Kobayashi H, Bauer TW. Diagnosing periprosthetic infection: false-positive intraoperative Gram stains. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2011;469(4):954-960.
31. Spangehl MJ, Masterson E, Masri BA, O'Connell JX, Duncan CP. The role of intraoperative gram stain in the diagnosis of infection during revision total hip arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 1999;14(8):952-956.

32. Zywiell MG, Stroh DA, Johnson AJ, Marker DR, Mont MA. Gram stains have limited application in the diagnosis of infected total knee arthroplasty. *Int J Infect Dis.* 2011;15(10):e702-705.
33. Deirmengian GK, Zmistowski B, Jacovides C, O'Neil J, Parvizi J. Leukocytosis is common after total hip and knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2011;469(11):3031-3036.
34. Toossi N, Adeli B, Rasouli MR, Huang R, Parvizi J. Serum white blood cell count and differential do not have a role in the diagnosis of periprosthetic joint infection. *J Arthroplasty.* 2012;27(8 Suppl):51-54 e51.
35. Engh CA, Jr., Ho H, Engh CA. Metal-on-metal hip arthroplasty: does early clinical outcome justify the chance of an adverse local tissue reaction? *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2009;468(2):406-412.
36. Mikhael MM, Hanssen AD, Sierra RJ. Failure of metal-on-metal total hip arthroplasty mimicking hip infection. A report of two cases. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2009;91(2):443-446.
37. Molvik H, Hanna SA, de Roeck NJ. Failed metal-on-metal total hip arthroplasty presenting as painful groin mass with associated weight loss and night sweats. *Am J Orthop (Belle Mead NJ).* 2010;39(5):E46-49.
38. Diaz-Ledezma C, Lichstein PM, Dolan JH, Parvizi J. What is the best strategy to diagnose hip/ knee periprosthetic joint infections in Medicare patients seen in the ambulatory setting? . CORR.Publication Pending.
39. Della Valle C, Parvizi J, Bauer TW, et al. Diagnosis of periprosthetic joint infections of the hip and knee. *J Am Acad Orthop Surg.* 2010;18(12):760-770.
40. Fink B, Gebhard A, Fuerst M, Berger I, Schafer P. High diagnostic value of synovial biopsy in periprosthetic joint infection of the hip. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2013;471(3):956-964.
41. Fink B, Makowiak C, Fuerst M, Berger I, Schafer P, Frommelt L. The value of synovial biopsy, joint aspiration and C-reactive protein in the diagnosis of late peri-prosthetic infection of total knee replacements. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2008;90(7):874-878.
42. Fuerst M, Fink B, Ruther W. [The value of preoperative knee aspiration and arthroscopic biopsy in revision total knee arthroplasty]. *Z Orthop Ihre Grenzgeb.* 2005;143(1):36-41.
43. Malhotra R, Morgan DA. Role of core biopsy in diagnosing infection before revision hip arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 2004;19(1):78-87.
44. Meermans G, Haddad FS. Is there a role for tissue biopsy in the diagnosis of periprosthetic infection? *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2010;468(5):1410-1417.
45. Sadiq S, Wootton JR, Morris CA, Northmore-Ball MD. Application of core biopsy in revision arthroplasty for deep infection. *J Arthroplasty.* 2005;20(2):196-201.
46. Williams JL, Norman P, Stockley I. The value of hip aspiration versus tissue biopsy in diagnosing infection before exchange hip arthroplasty surgery. *J Arthroplasty.* 2004;19(5):582-586.
47. Berbari EF, Hanssen AD, Duffy MC, et al. Risk factors for prosthetic joint infection: case-control study. *Clin Infect Dis.* 1998;27(5):1247-1254.
48. Bozic KJ, Lau E, Kurtz S, Ong K, Berry DJ. Patient-related risk factors for postoperative mortality and periprosthetic joint infection in medicare patients undergoing TKA. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2012;470(1):130-137.
49. Bozic KJ, Lau E, Kurtz S, et al. Patient-related risk factors for periprosthetic joint infection and postoperative mortality following total hip arthroplasty in Medicare patients. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2012;94(9):794-800.
50. Pulido L, Ghanem E, Joshi A, Purtill JJ, Parvizi J. Periprosthetic joint infection: the incidence, timing, and predisposing factors. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2008;466(7):1710-1715.
51. Della Valle CJ, Sporer SM, Jacobs JJ, Berger RA, Rosenberg AG, Paprosky WG. Preoperative testing for sepsis before revision total knee arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 2007;22(6 Suppl 2):90-93.

52. Ghanem E, Parvizi J, Burnett RS, et al. Cell count and differential of aspirated fluid in the diagnosis of infection at the site of total knee arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2008;90(8):1637-1643.
53. Parvizi J, Ghanem E, Sharkey P, Aggarwal A, Burnett RS, Barrack RL. Diagnosis of infected total knee: findings of a multicenter database. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2008;466(11):2628-2633.
54. Parvizi J, Jacovides C, Zmistowski B, Jung KA. Definition of periprosthetic joint infection: is there a consensus? *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2011;469(11):3022-3030.
55. Schumacher HR, Jr., Sieck MS, Rothfuss S, et al. Reproducibility of synovial fluid analyses. A study among four laboratories. *Arthritis Rheum*. 1986;29(6):770-774.
56. Wyles CC, Larson DR, Houdek MT, Sierra RJ, Trousdale RT. Utility of synovial fluid aspirations in failed metal-on-metal total hip arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty*. 2013;28(5):818-823.
57. Diagnosis of periprosthetic joint infection after unicompartmental knee arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty*. 2012;27(8 Suppl):46-50.
58. Bottner F, Wegner A, Winkelmann W, Becker K, Erren M, Gotze C. Interleukin-6, procalcitonin and TNF-alpha: markers of peri-prosthetic infection following total joint replacement. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 2007;89(1):94-99.
59. Ghanem E, Houssock C, Pulido L, Han S, Jaber FM, Parvizi J. Determining "true" leukocytosis in bloody joint aspiration. *J Arthroplasty*. 2008;23(2):182-187.
60. Butler-Wu SM, Burns EM, Pottinger PS, et al. Optimization of periprosthetic culture for diagnosis of *Propionibacterium acnes* prosthetic joint infection. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2011;49(7):2490-2495.
61. Larsen LH, Lange J, Xu Y, Schonheyder HC. Optimizing culture methods for diagnosis of prosthetic joint infections: a summary of modifications and improvements reported since 1995. *J Med Microbiol*. 2012;61(Pt 3):309-316.
62. Neut D, van Horn JR, van Kooten TG, van der Mei HC, Busscher HJ. Detection of biomaterial-associated infections in orthopaedic joint implants. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2003(413):261-268.
63. Schafer P, Fink B, Sandow D, Margull A, Berger I, Frommelt L. Prolonged bacterial culture to identify late periprosthetic joint infection: a promising strategy. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2008;47(11):1403-1409.
64. Barrack RL, Aggarwal A, Burnett RS, et al. The fate of the unexpected positive intraoperative cultures after revision total knee arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty*. 2007;22(6 Suppl 2):94-99.
65. Marculescu CE, Berbari EF, Hanssen AD, Steckelberg JM, Osmon DR. Prosthetic joint infection diagnosed postoperatively by intraoperative culture. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2005;439:38-42.
66. Azzam K, Parvizi J, Jungkind D, et al. Microbiological, clinical, and surgical features of fungal prosthetic joint infections: a multi-institutional experience. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2009;91 Suppl 6:142-149.
67. Hwang BH, Yoon JY, Nam CH, et al. Fungal peri-prosthetic joint infection after primary total knee replacement. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 2012;94(5):656-659.
68. Marculescu CE, Berbari EF, Cockerill FR, 3rd, Osmon DR. Fungi, mycobacteria, zoonotic and other organisms in prosthetic joint infection. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2006;451:64-72.
69. Tokarski AT, O'Neil J, Deirmengian CA, Ferguson J, Deirmengian GK. The Routine use of atypical cultures in presumed aseptic revisions is unnecessary. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2013.
70. Kamme C, Lindberg L. Aerobic and anaerobic bacteria in deep infections after total hip arthroplasty: differential diagnosis between infectious and non-infectious loosening. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1981(154):201-207.

71. Zappe B, Graf S, Ochsner PE, Zimmerli W, Sendi P. Propionibacterium spp. in prosthetic joint infections: a diagnostic challenge. *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg.* 2008;128(10):1039-1046.
72. Jacovides CL, Kreft R, Adeli B, Hozack B, Ehrlich GD, Parvizi J. Successful identification of pathogens by polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-based electron spray ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometry (ESI-TOF-MS) in culture-negative periprosthetic joint infection. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 19 2012;94(24):2247-2254.
73. Trampuz A, Piper KE, Hanssen AD, et al. Sonication of explanted prosthetic components in bags for diagnosis of prosthetic joint infection is associated with risk of contamination. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2006;44(2):628-631.
74. Trampuz A, Piper KE, Jacobson MJ, et al. Sonication of removed hip and knee prostheses for diagnosis of infection. *N Engl J Med.* 2007;357(7):654-663.
75. Aggarwal VK, Higuera C, Deirmengian G, Parvizi J, Austin MS. Swab Cultures Are Not As Effective As Tissue Cultures for Diagnosis of Periprosthetic Joint Infection. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* Apr 9 2013. Epub before print.
76. Font-Vizcarra L, Garcia S, Martinez-Pastor JC, Sierra JM, Soriano A. Blood culture flasks for culturing synovial fluid in prosthetic joint infections. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2010;468(8):2238-2243.
77. Burnett RS, Aggarwal A, Givens SA, McClure JT, Morgan PM, Barrack RL. Prophylactic antibiotics do not affect cultures in the treatment of an infected TKA: a prospective trial. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2010;468(1):127-134.
78. Tetreault MW, Wetters NG, Aggarwal V, Mont M, Parvizi J, Della Valle CJ. The Chitranjan Ranawat Award: Should Prophylactic Antibiotics Be Withheld Before Revision Surgery to Obtain Appropriate Cultures? *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* Apr 30 2013. Epub before print.
79. Achermann Y, Vogt M, Leunig M, Wust J, Trampuz A. Improved diagnosis of periprosthetic joint infection by multiplex PCR of sonication fluid from removed implants. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2010;48(4):1208-1214.
80. Bjerkan G, Witso E, Bergh K. Sonication is superior to scraping for retrieval of bacteria in biofilm on titanium and steel surfaces in vitro. *Acta Orthop.* 2009;80(2):245-250.
81. Kobayashi H, Oethinger M, Tuohy MJ, Hall GS, Bauer TW. Improving clinical significance of PCR: use of propidium monoazide to distinguish viable from dead *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Staphylococcus epidermidis*. *J Orthop Res.* 2009;27(9):1243-1247.
82. Monsen T, Lovgren E, Widerstrom M, Wallinder L. In vitro effect of ultrasound on bacteria and suggested protocol for sonication and diagnosis of prosthetic infections. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2009;47(8):2496-2501.
83. Piper KE, Jacobson MJ, Cofield RH, et al. Microbiologic diagnosis of prosthetic shoulder infection by use of implant sonication. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2009;47(6):1878-1884.
84. Clarke MT, Roberts CP, Lee PT, Gray J, Keene GS, Rushton N. Polymerase chain reaction can detect bacterial DNA in aseptically loose total hip arthroplasties. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2004(427):132-137.
85. Esteban J, Alonso-Rodriguez N, del-Prado G, et al. PCR-hybridization after sonication improves diagnosis of implant-related infection. *Acta Orthop.* 2012;83(3):299-304.
86. Gallo J, Kolar M, Dendis M, et al. Culture and PCR analysis of joint fluid in the diagnosis of prosthetic joint infection. *New Microbiol.* 2008;31(1):97-104.
87. Gomez E, Cazanave C, Cunningham SA, et al. Prosthetic joint infection diagnosis using broad-range PCR of biofilms dislodged from knee and hip arthroplasty surfaces using sonication. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2012;50(11):3501-3508.
88. Mariani BD, Martin DS, Levine MJ, Booth RE, Jr., Tuan RS. The Coventry Award. Polymerase chain reaction detection of bacterial infection in total knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1996(331):11-22.

89. Panousis K, Grigoris P, Butcher I, Rana B, Reilly JH, Hamblen DL. Poor predictive value of broad-range PCR for the detection of arthroplasty infection in 92 cases. *Acta Orthop.* 2005;76(3):341-346.
90. Rak M, Barlic-Maganja D, Kavcic M, Trebse R, Cor A. Comparison of molecular and culture method in diagnosis of prosthetic joint infection. *FEMS Microbiol Lett.* 2013;343(1):42-48.
91. Rasouli MR, Harandi AA, Adeli B, Purtill JJ, Parvizi J. Revision total knee arthroplasty: infection should be ruled out in all cases. *J Arthroplasty.* 2012;27(6):1239-1243 e1231-1232.
92. Tunney MM, Patrick S, Curran MD, et al. Detection of prosthetic hip infection at revision arthroplasty by immunofluorescence microscopy and PCR amplification of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene. *J Clin Microbiol.* 1999;37(10):3281-3290.
93. Portillo ME, Salvado M, Sorli L, et al. Multiplex PCR of sonication fluid accurately differentiates between prosthetic joint infection and aseptic failure. *J Infect.* 2012;65(6):541-548.
94. Kobayashi N, Inaba Y, Choe H, et al. Simultaneous intraoperative detection of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus* and pan-bacterial infection during revision surgery: use of simple DNA release by ultrasonication and real-time polymerase chain reaction. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2009;91(12):2896-2902.
95. Tigges S, Stiles RG, Roberson JR. Appearance of septic hip prostheses on plain radiographs. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 1994;163(2):377-380.
96. Love C, Tomas MB, Marwin SE, Pugliese PV, Palestro CJ. Role of nuclear medicine in diagnosis of the infected joint replacement. *Radiographics.* 2001;21(5):1229-1238.
97. Cyteval C, Hamm V, Sarrabere MP, Lopez FM, Maury P, Taourel P. Painful infection at the site of hip prosthesis: CT imaging. *Radiology.* 2002;224(2):477-483.
98. Chryssikos T, Parvizi J, Ghanem E, Newberg A, Zhuang H, Alavi A. FDG-PET imaging can diagnose periprosthetic infection of the hip. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2008;466(6):1338-1342.
99. Delank KS, Schmidt M, Michael JW, Dietlein M, Schicha H, Eysel P. The implications of 18F-FDG PET for the diagnosis of endoprosthetic loosening and infection in hip and knee arthroplasty: results from a prospective, blinded study. *BMC Musculoskelet Disord.* 2006;7:20.
100. Glithero PR, Grigoris P, Harding LK, Hesselwood SR, McMinn DJ. White cell scans and infected joint replacements. Failure to detect chronic infection. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1993;75(3):371-374.
101. Graute V, Feist M, Lehner S, et al. Detection of low-grade prosthetic joint infections using 99mTc-antigranulocyte SPECT/CT: initial clinical results. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging.* 2010;37(9):1751-1759.
102. Love C, Marwin SE, Tomas MB, et al. Diagnosing infection in the failed joint replacement: a comparison of coincidence detection 18F-FDG and 111In-labeled leukocyte/99mTc-sulfur colloid marrow imaging. *J Nucl Med.* 2004;45(11):1864-1871.
103. Magnuson JE, Brown ML, Hauser MF, Berquist TH, Fitzgerald RH, Jr., Klee GG. In-111-labeled leukocyte scintigraphy in suspected orthopedic prosthesis infection: comparison with other imaging modalities. *Radiology.* 1988;168(1):235-239.
104. Nagoya S, Kaya M, Sasaki M, Tateda K, Yamashita T. Diagnosis of peri-prosthetic infection at the hip using triple-phase bone scintigraphy. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2008;90(2):140-144.
105. Savarino L, Baldini N, Tarabusi C, Pellacani A, Giunti A. Diagnosis of infection after total hip replacement. *J Biomed Mater Res B Appl Biomater.* 2004;70(1):139-145.
106. Scher DM, Pak K, Lonner JH, Finkel JE, Zuckerman JD, Di Cesare PE. The predictive value of indium-111 leukocyte scans in the diagnosis of infected total hip, knee, or resection arthroplasties. *J Arthroplasty.* 2000;15(3):295-300.
107. Segura AB, Munoz A, Brulles YR, et al. What is the role of bone scintigraphy in the diagnosis of infected joint prostheses? *Nucl Med Commun.* 2004;25(5):527-532.

108. Sousa R, Massada M, Pereira A, Fontes F, Amorim I, Oliveira A. Diagnostic accuracy of combined ^{99m}Tc -sulesomab and ^{99m}Tc -nanocolloid bone marrow imaging in detecting prosthetic joint infection. *Nucl Med Commun.* 2011;32(9):834-839.

Workgroup 8: Wound Management

Liaison:

Elie Ghanem MD

Workgroup Leaders:

Volkmar Heppert MD (International), Mark Spangehl MD, FRCSC (US)

Delegates:

John Abraham MD, Khalid Azzam MD, Lowry Barnes MD, Federico Jose Burgo MD, Walid Ebeid MD, Nitin Goyal MD, Ernesto Guerra MD, Kirby Hitt MD, Sofiene Kallel MD, Gregg Klein MD, Yona Kosashvili MD, Brett Levine MD, Laura Matsen MD, Michael J Morris MD, James J Purtill MD, Chitranjan Ranawat MD, FRCS, FRCSC, Peter F Sharkey MD, Rafael Sierra MD, Anna Stefansdottir MD, PhD

Question 1A: What is the optimal dressing for a wound after total joint arthroplasty (TJA)?

Consensus: We recommend the use of occlusive dressings with alginated hydrofiber, when available.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 63%, Disagree: 25%, Abstain: 12% (Weak Consensus)

Justification: An occlusive dressing (Aquacel) secured with hydrocolloid was found to have a lower blister rate postoperatively when compared to Mepore (Molnlycke,GA).¹⁻⁴ and Cutiplast(Smith and Nephew, Memphis, LA)⁵ and had a lower rate of dressing changes. A clinical audit comparing Mepore to Aquacel found that Aquacel had a lower rate of surgical site infection (SSI) (3 in the Mepore group and 1 in the Aquacel group).¹ A prospective, randomized controlled trial (RCT) comparing Mepore and Aquacel showed similar wound inflammation and infection rates in the two groups.² In one RCT, wound healing was delayed in the occlusive group (eg, foams, alginates, hydrogels, hydrocolloids, hydrofibers, or films) compared to gauze-based dressings, with an increase in accrued cost.⁶ There are also inconsistent data comparing hydrofiber and alginate dressings.^{7,8}

One study aimed to compare the performance of a hydrofiber (Aquacel) and an alginate (Sorbsan) dressing on acute surgical wounds (pilonidal, breast, axilla, groin, and wound abscess) left to heal by secondary intention. A total of 100 patients were prospectively randomized pre-operatively to receive either the hydrofiber or alginate dressing. Dressing performance was measured at operation and postoperatively at 24 hours and 7 days. Parameters measured included ease of application and removal of the first dressing, re-application on the first postoperative day, and removal and re-application one week postoperatively. The hydrofiber dressing received higher scores for all of these categories. Patients in this group also experienced less pain (mild or none) on removal of the first dressing and at one week. However, these results did not achieve statistical significance and should be seen as a trend. Nevertheless, the authors recommend the use of hydrofiber dressings on open acute surgical wounds.⁷

A comparative evaluation was conducted involving 428 patients undergoing primary elective total hip arthroplasty (THA) or total knee arthroplasty (TKA) in a single hospital between January and April 2006. Patients received either the traditional postoperative dressing (adhesive dressing with an integral absorbent pad, Mepore) or the new dressing regimen (Aquacel secured with hydrocolloid dressing, Duoderm), as well as liquid film-forming acrylate. Patients under the age of 50 and/or with a condition or comorbidity that could compromise wound healing were excluded. A protocol was developed for dressing changes based on the extent of strikethrough. Outcome measures were blister rate, wear time, number of dressing changes, SSI rate, and delayed patient discharge.¹

Patients treated with the new dressing design had a lower blister rate, lower incidence of delayed discharge, longer wear time, fewer dressing changes, and a lower SSI rate. Only 4 cases of SSIs requiring washout were reported in both groups (one for the new dressing design and 3 for the traditional dressing) and the rest were successfully treated with antibiotics. To date there have been no revisions for deep infection in either group.

One hundred twenty-four patients (62 THAs and 62 TKAs) were randomly selected to have either a standard adhesive dressing (Mepore) or jubilee method dressing (Aquacel with hydrocolloid layer, Duoderm). The number of dressing changes, incidence of blistering, leakage, subjective assessment of wound inflammation, infection rate, and the average hospital stay was recorded. The Jubilee dressing significantly reduced the rate of blistering, leakage, and number of dressing changes when compared to a traditional adhesive dressing ($p < 0.05$). The rate of inflammation and average length of stay in the hospital was not significantly different between the two groups. There were no cases of periprosthetic joint infection (PJI) reported.²

Cutiplast (absorbent perforated dressing with adhesive border; Smith & Nephew) is commonly used following orthopaedic operations, but complications with its use have been reported. A prospective RCT was performed to compare the efficacy of Cutiplast versus an Aquacel (hydrofiber dressing; ConvaTec) covered with Tegaderm (vapour-permeable dressing; 3M). Two hundred patients were randomized to receive one of the two dressings following elective and non-elective surgery of the hip and the knee. The authors were able to study 183 patients. The condition of the wound and any complications such as skin blistering or signs of infection were noted, as was the frequency of dressing changes. The Aquacel and Tegaderm dressing was 5.8 times more likely to result in a wound with no complications (as compared to a Cutiplast dressing (odds ratio, 5.8; 95% confidence interval (CI) 2.8–12.5; $p < 0.00001$).

Taking blisters alone as a complication, in the Cutiplast group 22.5% of patients had wounds with blisters compared to only 2.4% of the group dressed with Aquacel/Tegaderm. The patients receiving Aquacel covered by Tegaderm had statistically fewer wound dressing changes. Taking the group as a whole, the dressing pain score was statistically lower for the patients receiving the Aquacel/Tegaderm dressing ($p < 0.001$).⁵

Two prospective clinical audits were performed over a 6-month period and involved 100 patients undergoing THA or TKA. Fifty consecutive patients with traditional dressings (Mepore) were evaluated prior to a change in practice to a modern dressing (Aquacel). Fifty consecutive patients were then evaluated with the new dressing to complete the audit cycle. Clinical outcome measures were wear time, number of changes, blister rate, and length of hospital stay. Wear time for the traditional dressing (2 days) was significantly shorter than for the modern dressing (7 days; $p < 0.001$), and required more changes (0 vs 3; $p < 0.001$). Blisters developed in 20% of the patients with the traditional dressing compared with 4% in the modern dressing group ($p = 0.028$). The median length of stay was the same for the modern dressing (4 days) compared with the traditional dressing (also 4 days). In the modern dressing group, 75% of patients were discharged by day 4, whereas in the traditional group this took until day 6.³

Abuzakuk et al. reported the results of a prospective RCT comparing a hydrofiber (Aquacel) and central pad (Mepore) dressing in the management of acute wounds following primary THA or TKA left to heal by primary intention. Dressing performance was measured in 61 patients receiving THA or TKA. There was a significant reduction in the requirement for dressing changes before 5 postoperative days in the hydrofiber group (43% compared with 77% in the central pad group) and there were fewer blisters among patients in the hydrofiber group (13% compared with 26% in the central pad group).⁴

Ubbink et al. compared the effectiveness and costs of gauze-based vs occlusive, moist-environment dressings in 205 hospitalized surgical patients with open wounds. Patients received occlusive (ie, foams, alginates, hydrogels, hydrocolloids, hydrofibers, or films) or gauze-based dressings until their wounds were completely healed. No significant differences in wound healing were observed in chronic wounds (ie, vascular insufficiency, diabetes, or pressure sores), traumatic wounds, or wounds included in the first vs the second half of the trial (to detect a learning curve effect, if any). However, in postoperative wounds, 62% of all wounds in this trial, wound healing in the occlusive group took significantly ($p = .02$) longer (median, 72 days; inter-quartile range, 36 to 132 days) than in the gauze group (median, 45 days;

interquartile range, 22 to 93 days). The total cost for local wound care per patient per day during hospitalization was €7.48 (US \$11.74) in the occlusive group and €3.98 (US \$6.25) in the gauze-based group ($p=.002$).⁶

Ravnskog et al. compared the performance of hydrofiber and alginate dressings used in the treatment of primary THA wounds. Patients were randomized into one of two groups, receiving either a hydrofiber or an alginate dressing. Outcome measures included skin damage (erythema, blisters, and skin injuries) and the dressing's ability to handle exudates. Photos of the dressing and the skin area around the wounds were taken. Patients noted skin problems, discomfort at mobilization, and pain at dressing removal. In the alginate group, there were fewer blisters in the wound area compared with the hydrofiber group (7 vs 18%, $p=0.03$). During dressing removal, fewer patients in the alginate group reported pain than patients in the hydrofiber group (2.1 vs 15%, $p=0.01$).⁸

Question 1B: Does the use of silver-impregnated dressings reduce SSI /PJI?

Consensus: Silver-impregnated dressings have not been conclusively shown to reduce SSI/PJI.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 87%, Disagree: 5%, Abstain: 7% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Three prospective RCTs compared silver-impregnated colloid dressings (Aquacel, Alginate) to non-silver dressings in treatment of a variety of wound types including acute surgical wounds, infected and non-infected diabetic foot ulcers, and traumatic wounds, failed to show any difference in terms of outcome in wound/ulcer healing and local infection rates.⁹⁻¹¹ One prospective RCT, comparing silver-impregnated alginate dressings to non-silver dressings in the treatment of chronic venous ulcers, found significant improvement in silver dressings in preventing wounds from progressing to infection, as well as a greater rate of wound healing.¹² A Cochrane meta-analysis that compared the effect of silver-impregnated dressings to non-silver dressings in infected acute or chronic wounds found no significant difference in wound healing rates, antibiotic use, pain, patient satisfaction, length of hospital stay, and costs.¹³ Another Cochrane meta-analysis assessing burn wounds and a mixture of non-infected

wound types found that the addition of silver to the dressings did not promote wound healing or prevent wound infections.¹⁴

Beele et al. observed both the clinical signs and symptoms of wounds at risk of infection; that is, critically-colonized (biofilm infected) wounds. They studied the antimicrobial performance of an ionic silver alginate/carboxymethylcellulose (SACMC) dressing in comparison with a non-silver calcium alginate fiber (AF) dressing, on chronic venous leg and pressure ulcers. Thirty-six patients with venous or pressure ulcers, considered clinically to be critically colonized (biofilm infected), were randomly chosen to receive either an SACMC dressing or a non-silver calcium AF dressing. The efficacy of each wound dressing was evaluated over a 4-week period. The primary study endpoints were prevention of infection and progression to wound healing. The SACMC group showed a statistically significant ($p=0.017$) improvement in healing, indicated by a reduction in the surface area of the wound over the 4-week study period compared with the AF control group. The SACMC dressing showed a greater ability to prevent wounds progressing to infection when compared with the AF control dressing. The results of this study also showed an improvement in wound healing for SACMC when compared with a non-silver dressing.¹²

Trial et al. compared the efficacy and tolerability of a new ionic silver alginate matrix (Askina Calgitrol Ag) with that of a standard silver-free alginate dressing (Algosteril). Patients with locally-infected chronic wounds (pressure ulcers, venous or mixed etiology leg ulcers, or diabetic foot ulcers) or acute wounds were eligible for this prospective, open-label RCT. Patients were randomized to receive one of the two dressings for a two-week period. The criteria for efficacy were based on the evolution from day 1 to day 15 of local signs of infection using a clinical score ranging from 0 to 18 and the evolution of the bacteriological status for each wound. The latter was determined by (blind) bacteriological examinations of results obtained from two biopsies performed at days 1 and 15. A 3-point scale (deterioration, unchanged, and improvement) was also used. Acceptability, usefulness, and tolerance were also assessed.

Forty-two patients (20 women and 22 men aged 68.9 ± 18.8 and 66.5 ± 15.7 respectively) were randomly assigned to receive either Askina Calgitrol Ag ($n=20$) or Algosteril ($n=22$). Most had chronic wounds such as pressure ulcers (57%) or venous or mixed-etiology leg ulcers and diabetic foot ulcers (29%), with a few having acute wounds (14%). Clinical scores of infection were comparable in both groups at inclusion, 8.9 ± 2.4 and 8.6 ± 3.2 in the Askina Calgitrol Ag group and the Algosteril group respectively (not significant), but decreased significantly in both groups at day 15, 3.8 ± 2.9 in the Askina Calgitrol Ag group ($p=0.001$) and 3.8 ± 3.4 in the

Algosteril group ($p=0.007$). There was no significant difference between the two groups at day 15. Although there was also no significant difference in bacteriological status between the treatment groups, a trend in favor of Askina Calgitrol Ag was found for the relative risk of improvement, especially in patients who were not treated with antibiotics either at the beginning of or during the study. No differences between groups were observed regarding local tolerance, acceptability, and usefulness of the dressings.⁹

In a retrospective study, Saba et al. compared Aquacel Ag Hydrofiber dressing (Aquacel Ag) to a standard dressing for the treatment of partial thickness burns in children. The authors used the St. Christopher's Hospital burn center registry to identify 20 pediatric patients who had sustained partial-thickness burns over a 10-month period. Ten of these patients had been treated with Aquacel Ag Hydrofiber dressing and 10 were treated with conventional Xeroflo gauze with Bacitracin Zinc ointment, the institutional standard of care for nonoperative partial-thickness burn wounds. Outcomes measured for the Aquacel Ag versus the Xeroflo gauze with Bacitracin Zinc ointment group included hospital length of stay (2.4 vs 9.6 days), total number of in-house dressing changes (2.7 vs 17.1), pain on a 10-point scale associated with dressing changes (6.4 vs 8.2), total number of intravenous narcotic administrations (2.3 vs 14.4), nursing time adjusted for percentage total body surface area (1.9 vs 3.5 min), time to wound reepithelialization (10.3 vs 16.3 days), and patient primary caregiver satisfaction score using a 4-point scale, with 4 delineating maximum satisfaction (3.8 vs 1.8). All variables were significant ($p<0.001$).¹⁵

Storm-Versloot et al. searched the Cochrane Wounds Group Specialized Register (6 2009), The Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (CENTRAL) (2009 Issue 2), Ovid MEDLINE (1950 to April Week 4 2009), Ovid EMBASE (1980 to 2009 Week 18), EBSCO CINAHL (1982 to April Week 4 2009), and Digital Dissertations (to 2009) for relevant RCTs comparing silver-containing wound dressings and topical agents with non silver-containing versions on uninfected wounds. This review identified 26 trials involving 2,066 participants that compared silver-containing dressings or creams against dressings or creams that did not contain silver. Twenty of the trials were on burn wounds, while the others were on a mixture of wound types. Most studies were small and of poor quality. The authors concluded that there is not enough evidence to support the use of silver-containing dressings or creams, as generally these treatments did not promote wound healing or prevent wound infections. Some evidence from a number of small, poor-quality studies suggested that one silver-containing compound (silver sulphadiazine) has no effect on infection and slows down healing in patients with partial-thickness burns.¹⁴

In a prospective, multicenter study, Jude et al. compared the clinical efficacy and safety of Aquacel hydrofiber dressings containing ionic silver (AQAg) with those of Algosteril calcium alginate (CA) dressings in managing outpatients with type 1 or 2 diabetes mellitus and non-ischæmic Wagner Grade 1 or 2 diabetic foot ulcers. Patients stratified by antibiotic use on enrolment were randomly assigned to similar protocols, including off-loading, AQAg (n=67), or CA (n=67) primary dressings and secondary foam dressings for 8 weeks or until healing. The mean time to healing was 53 days for AQAg ulcers and 58 days for CA ulcers ($p=0.34$). AQAg-treated ulcers reduced in depth nearly twice as much as CA-treated ulcers (0.25 cm vs 0.13 cm; $p=0.04$). During the study, the incidence of clinical infection adverse events in the study ulcer group was comparable, with 11 AQAg subjects (16%) and 8 CA subjects (12%) reporting infection as adverse events in the study ulcer group. The median time for clinical infection to resolve without recurrence during the study was comparable for AQAg and CA subjects: 9 days for the 8 (88.9%) AQAg-resolved infections and 15 days ($p=0.35$) for the 10 (76.9%; $p=0.48$) CA-resolved infections.¹⁰

A prospective RCT by Jurczak et al. compared pain, comfort, exudate management, and wound healing and safety with hydrofiber dressing with ionic silver (hydrofiber Ag dressing) and with povidone–iodine gauze for the treatment of open surgical and traumatic wounds. Patients were treated with hydrofiber Ag dressing or povidone–iodine gauze for up to 2 weeks. Pain severity was measured with a 10 centimeter visual analogue scale (VAS). Other parameters were assessed clinically with various scales. Pain VAS scores decreased during dressing removal in both groups and decreased while the dressing was in place in the hydrofiber Ag dressing group (n=35) but not in the povidone–iodine gauze group (n=32). Pain VAS scores were similar between treatment groups. At final evaluation, hydrofiber Ag dressing was significantly better than povidone–iodine gauze for overall ability to manage pain ($p<0.001$), overall comfort ($p<0.001$), wound trauma on dressing removal ($p=0.0001$), exudate handling ($p<0.001$), and ease of use ($p<0.001$). Rates of complete healing at study completion were 23% for Hydrofiber Ag dressing and 9% for povidone–iodine gauze (not significant). No adverse events were reported with hydrofiber Ag dressing and one subject discontinued povidone–iodine gauze due to an adverse skin reaction. During study treatment, 4 (11.4%) subjects in the hydrofiber Ag dressing group and 4 (12.5%) subjects in the povidone–iodine gauze group had infected wounds (not significant).¹¹

In another meta-analysis, Vermuelen et al. evaluated the effects of topical silver and silver dressings on wound healing in the treatment of contaminated and infected acute or chronic

wounds. They searched for relevant trials from the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (CENTRAL), the Cochrane Wounds Group Specialized Register in March 2006, and in MEDLINE, EMBASE, CINAHL, and Digital Dissertations databases up to September 2006. In addition, the authors contacted companies, manufacturers, and distributors for information to identify relevant trials, seeking RCTs that assessed the effectiveness of topical silver in the treatment of contaminated and infected acute or chronic wounds. Three RCTs were identified, comprising a total of 847 participants. One trial compared silver-containing foam (Contreet) with hydrocellular foam (Allevyn) in patients with leg ulcers. The second trial compared a silver-containing alginate (Silvercel) with an alginate alone (Algosteril). The third trial compared a silver-containing foam dressing (Contreet) with best local practice in patients with chronic wounds. The data from these trials show that silver-containing foam dressings did not significantly increase complete ulcer healing as compared with standard foam dressings or best local practice after up to 4 weeks of follow-up, although a greater reduction of ulcer size was observed with the silver-containing foam. The use of antibiotics was assessed in two trials, but no significant differences were found. Data on pain, patient satisfaction, length of hospital stay, and costs were limited and showed no differences. In one trial, leakage occurred significantly less frequently in patients with leg ulcers and chronic wounds treated with a silver dressing than with a standard foam dressing or best local practice. There is insufficient evidence to recommend the use of silver-containing dressings or topical agents for the treatment of infected or contaminated chronic wounds.¹³

However, evidence is emerging that appears to endorse the role of occlusive, silver impregnated dressing in reducing incidence of SSI/PJI. In a recent single institution retrospective study, the incidence of acute PJI (occurring within 3 months) was compared between 903 consecutive patients undergoing total joint arthroplasty who received the Aquacel surgical dressing and 875 consecutive patients who received standard gauze dressing. (Cai J et al; publication pending). After performing a multivariate analysis, the investigators found that Aquacel dressing was an independent factor for reduction of acute PJI with an acute PJI incidence of 0.44% for patients who received the Aquacel dressing compared to 1.7% of patients who received the standard gauze dressing ($p=0.005$).

In another recently completed Level I prospective randomized study of 300 patients Aquacel Ag dressing compared to standard surgical dressing showed statistically significant reductions in wound complications, blisters, number of dressing changes and overall patient satisfaction with the Aquacel Ag surgical dressing.¹⁶

Question 2: What is considered to be persistent drainage from a wound after TJA?

Consensus: Persistent wound drainage after TJA is defined as continued drainage from the operative incision site for greater than 72 hours.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 80%, Disagree: 15%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Studies in the literature have a wide range of definitions for persistent wound drainage (48 hours to 1 week). However, limiting wound drainage to 72 hours postoperatively allows for earlier intervention and may limit the adverse consequences of persistent drainage.

Persistent wound drainage after TJA is defined by time, type of secretion (hematogenous or clear), site (wound secretion, secretion after removal of suction drains), and microbial content.

The timing of drainage is defined in multiple ways:

Forty-eight hours.¹⁷

Postoperative day 3 or 4.¹⁸

Beyond postoperative day 4.¹⁹

Several days after surgery.²⁰

Two days postoperative for non-infected cases, 5.5 days postoperative for infected cases.²¹

Limited amount of time.²²

One week.²³

The amount of drainage is alternately defined as:

Drainage has soaked through the postoperative dressings.^{17, 18}

Greater than 2cm x 2cm area of drainage covering gauze.²⁴

Discharge from the wound.

Microorganism cultured from drainage.²⁵

This workgroup believe that substantial drainage (>2x2 cm area of gauze) from a wound beyond 72 hours should be considered abnormal. We strongly recommend against performing culture of the draining wound.

Question 3A: What are non-surgical strategies to address a draining wound after TJA?

Consensus: Persistent wound drainage for greater than 72 hours after TJA should be managed by wound care.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 65%, Disagree: 26%, Abstain: 9% (Weak Consensus)

Justification: Various studies recommend using medical management to attempt wound drainage control prior to surgical intervention. Other interventions, such as antibiotics, are discouraged because they can mask an underlying infection. Observation alone is highly discouraged, given the fact that persistent wound drainage is correlated with PJI.^{17, 21, 24, 26} The risk of infection increases by 29% after TKA and by 42% after THA with each day of persistent wound drainage.²⁴

Literature: Studies have recommended various interventions to reduce the amount of wound drainage after TJA. One prospective RCT evaluated negative pressure wound therapy (NPWT) in patients with large surgical wounds after THA and found that NPWT decreased the size of postoperative seromas.²⁷ A pilot study of patients undergoing THA who developed postoperative drainage treated with NPWT that was applied for an average of 2 days (range, 1-10 days) found that 76% of the patients did not require further intervention while 24% had subsequent surgery.¹⁸

However, a prospective RCT comparing NPWT to standard dry dressings on surgical incisions (primary closure or delayed primary closure of the lower extremity or abdominal wounds) found no significance in dehiscence rates, mean time to dehiscence, wound infection, and reoperation rates between the NPWT and dry dressing groups.²⁸ A Cochrane meta-analysis included trials that compared NPWT with other types of wound dressings or compared one type of NPWT with a different type of NPWT for persistently draining wounds in skin graft patients, orthopaedic

patients undergoing arthroplasty, and general and trauma surgery. The authors concluded that there is no evidence for the effectiveness of NPWT on the complete healing of wounds expected to heal by primary intention.²⁹

A retrospective review of 300 patients who developed persistent (greater than 48 hours postoperatively) wound drainage revealed that drainage stopped spontaneously between 2 and 4 days of drainage in 72% of the patients treated with local wound care and oral antibiotics. It is discouraged to use greater than 24 hours of postoperative antibiotics to treat persistent wound drainage after TJA because there is no evidence supporting the statement that it decreases PJI.^{18, 20} Additionally, administering antibiotics in light of a persistently draining wound may confound the culture findings if an arthrocentesis is performed to determine if any organisms are present within the synovial fluid. This workgroup discourages the use of oral antibiotic for management of wound drainage.

Question 3B: What are surgical strategies to address a draining wound after TJA?

Consensus: Surgical management consisting of opening the fascia, performing a thorough irrigation and debridement (I&D) with exchange of modular components should be considered if wound drainage has persisted for 5 to 7 days after the index procedure.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 77%, Disagree: 16%, Abstain: 7% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: After 5 days of persistent wound drainage, surgical intervention should be carried out to reduce the likelihood of developing a PJI. Surgery should consist of opening the fascia, performing a thorough irrigation and debridement (I&D) with exchange of modular components, and performing a meticulous fascia and wound reclosure. In case meticulous reconstruction of the fascia and skin is not possible, NPWT might be a viable option, followed by coverage of the wound by a plastic surgeon after cultures and other data exclude early PJI. Deep cultures should be taken at the time of reoperation and antibiotics should be administered according to the sensitivity of the organism. We recommend against taking wound swab cultures.

An older retrospective study by Weiss and Krackow encouraged surgical intervention in TJA patients with persistent wound drainage, including I&D, polyethylene exchange, and parenteral antibiotics.²⁶ However, this was performed at 12.5 days postoperatively, which would have allowed more bacteria colonization on polyethylene. A study by Jaber et al. demonstrated that patients who failed medical management of persistent wound drainage after postoperative day 4 and subsequently underwent a single-stage I&D had a cessation of drainage in 76% of patients.¹⁷ However, despite this early intervention, 24% of patients underwent subsequent treatment, including long-term antibiotics, resection arthroplasty, or repeat debridement. A review paper supported reoperation for exploration, deep culture, irrigation, and meticulous wound reclosure.²⁰ If the deep cultures were positive, then the authors encouraged parenteral antibiotic therapy for 6 weeks. To ensure adequate debridement of the affected area, a study by Kelm et al. injected methylene blue dye into the fistula, performed a debridement with acetabular polyethylene and femoral head exchange, and closed the wound using a vacuum-assisted closure.³⁰ Persistent drainage that is more concerning should be treated as an infected TJA²² with a low threshold for performing I&D or exchange arthroplasty.³¹ Open debridement with polyethylene exchange has variable results. There is a high failure rate associated with polyethylene exchange and may lead to future resection arthroplasty.³²

Question 3C: Should oral or intravenous antibiotics be administered to patients with persistent wound drainage?

Consensus: We recommend against administration of oral or intravenous antibiotics to patients with persistent wound drainage.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 80%, Disagree: 17%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Currently there is little to no evidence to support administration of antibiotics to patients with draining wound. Although the rationale for this practice appears logical, in that one is attempting to prevent ingress of infecting organisms through draining wound, the issue of emergence of antibiotic resistance and adverse effects associated with administration of antibiotics cannot be overlooked. In addition administration of an antibiotic is likely to mask the

underlying infection or make diagnosis of PJI difficult by influencing the culture results. Thus, the consensus workgroup feels that this is an area in need of future study and does not endorse administration of antibiotics to patients with persistent wound drainage.

Question 4: What are the indications for reoperation for a persistently draining wound after TJA?

Consensus: A wound that has been persistently draining for greater than 5 to 7 days from the time of diagnosis should be reoperated on without delay.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 77%, Disagree: 19%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Studies have shown that the risk of infection increases after 5 days of wound drainage. Thus, performing surgical intervention after 5 days is the most appropriate for preventing PJIs.

The number of postoperative drainage days at which I&D was performed for persistently draining wounds varied from 5 to 12.5 days.^{17, 21, 26} Two studies found that patients with 5 days or more of persistent drainage or greater were more likely to become infected later on and require further surgical intervention than patients with less drainage time.^{17, 21} Specifically, the study by Saleh et.al. demonstrated that patients who had an average of 5.5 days of drainage were 12.7 times more likely to be infected than those with less wound drainage time.²¹ Another study found that each day of prolonged wound drainage increased the risk of wound infection by 42% following a THA and by 29% following a TKA.²⁴ However, waiting 5 days for the wound to dry may be secondary to anticoagulation use; therefore, holding off on surgical management until postoperative day 5 is reasonable. In another study, wound drainage was examined after 5 days of NPWT.²⁷ There was a reduction in persistent wound drainage with the use of NPWT and further surgical intervention could then be conducted after medical intervention was performed. A registry-based study found that patients with TKA who undergo early surgical treatment (within 30 days) for wound complications have a two-year cumulative probability of major subsequent surgery (component resection, muscle flap coverage, or amputation) and deep infection rates of 5.3% and 6.0%, respectively.³³

Question 5: How can we optimize patient status prior to reoperation to minimize SSI?

Consensus: We recommend that patients should be optimized prior to undergoing reoperation. Correction of malnutrition, anticoagulation, anemia and diabetes should be reasonably pursued.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 95%, Disagree: 3%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Preoperative malnutrition has been associated with delayed wound healing,³⁴ longer length of stay (LOS) and anesthesia/surgical times,³⁵ and failure of treatment of persistently draining wounds inevitably leading to deep infection.¹⁷ The measures of malnutrition have varied and include transferrin, total lymphocyte count (TLC), total albumin, and prealbumin.

Literature:

Malnutrition: Gherini et al. assessed 103 THA pre-and postoperatively to determine nutritional status and correlation with delayed wound healing. Parameters indicative of nutritional status included serum albumin, transferrin levels and total lymphocyte count. Delayed wound healing complicated 33% of the THAs. Only preoperative serum transferrin levels showed a significant value in predicting which patients had delayed wound healing.³⁴

Lavernia et al. evaluated 119 patients in whom standard preoperative laboratory tests were performed. Patients with albumin levels less than 34 g/L had 32.7% higher charges ($p<0.006$), higher medical severity of illness ($p<0.03$), and longer LOS ($p<0.001$). Patients with a total lymphocyte count less than 1,200 cells/mL had higher charges ($p<0.004$) and longer LOS ($p<0.004$), anesthesia ($p=0.002$), and surgical times ($p=0.002$) when compared with patients with TLC higher than 1,200 cells/mL.³⁵

Diabetes: Diabetes mellitus has been implicated in early wound complications after TJA³³ and PJI³⁶ with the capacity to double this risk independent of diabetes.³⁷ Perioperative glycemic control was found to predispose cardiac surgery patients to infection.³⁸ In a review of 3,468

patients who underwent 4,241 primary or revision THA or TKA at one institution, HbA1C was not found to be a reliable marker of predicting joint infection. Hemoglobin A1c levels were examined to evaluate if there was a correlation between the control of HbA1c and infection after TJA. There were 46 infections (28 deep and 18 superficial [9 cellulitis and 9 operative abscesses]). Twelve (3.43%) occurred in diabetic patients (n=350; 8.3%) and 34 (0.87%) in nondiabetic patients (n=3891; 91.7%) ($p<0.001$). There were 9 deep (2.6%) infections in diabetic patients and 19 (0.49%) in nondiabetic patients. In noninfected diabetic patients, HbA1c level ranged from 4.7 to 15.1% (mean, 6.92%). In infected diabetic patients, HbA1c level ranged from 5.1 to 11.7% (mean, 7.2%) ($p=0.445$). The average HbA1c level in patients with diabetes was 6.93%. Diabetic patients have a significantly higher risk for infection after TJA. Hemoglobin A1c level was not found to be reliable for predicting the risk of infection after TJA.³⁹ Similarly, in another study, patients undergoing TKA with controlled and uncontrolled diabetes were compared with patients without diabetes. No association was found between controlled and uncontrolled diabetes and the risk for requiring a revision or developing deep infection when using HbA1C as a marker for diabetic control.⁴⁰

Jansen et al. analyzed the one-year incidence of PJI in a single-center series of 7,181 primary THA and TKA (unilateral and simultaneous bilateral) performed between 2002 and 2008 to treat osteoarthritis. The data regarding PJI (defined according to Centers for Disease Control and Prevention criteria) were collected from the hospital infection register and were based on prospective, active surveillance. Diabetes more than doubled the PJI risk independent of obesity (adjusted OR, 2.3; 95% CI, 1.1 to 4.7). In patients without a diagnosis of diabetes at the time of the surgery, there was a trend toward a higher infection rate in association with a preoperative glucose level of >6.9 mmol/L (124 mg/dL) compared with <6.9 mmol/L.³⁷

Pedersen et al. evaluated the extent to which diabetes affects the revision rate following THA. Through the Danish Hip Arthroplasty Registry the authors identified all patients undergoing a primary THA (n=57,575) between January 1996 and December 2005, of whom 3,278 had diabetes. The presence of diabetes among these patients was identified through the Danish National Registry of Patients and the Danish National Drug Prescription Database. They estimated the risk ratio (RR) for revision and the 95% CIs for patients with diabetes compared to those without, adjusting for confounding factors. Diabetes is associated with an increased risk of revision due to deep infection (RR=1.45 (95% CI 1.00 to 2.09), particularly in those with type 2 diabetes (RR=1.49 (95% CI 1.02 to 2.18)), those with diabetes for less than 5 years prior to THA (RR=1.69 (95% CI 1.24 to 2.32)), those with complications due to diabetes (RR=2.11 (95%

CI 1.41 to 3.17)), and those with cardiovascular comorbidities prior to surgery (RR=2.35 (95% CI 1.39 to 3.98)).³⁶

Golden et al. performed a prospective cohort study based on chart review of a total of 411 adults with diabetes who underwent coronary artery surgery from 1990 to 1995 in the cardiac surgery service of an urban university hospital. Perioperative glycemic control was characterized by the mean of 6 capillary glucose measurements taken during the 3 hour interval following surgery. After simultaneous adjustment for age, sex, race, underlying comorbidity, acute severity of illness, and LOS in the surgical intensive care unit, patients with higher mean capillary glucose readings were at increased risk of developing infections. Compared with people in the lowest quartile of postoperative glucose, those in quartiles 2 (relative odds of infection, 95% CI=1.17 [0.57–2.40]), 3 (1.86 [0.94–3.68]), and 4 (1.78 [0.86–3.47]) were at progressively higher risk for infection (p=0.05).³⁸

Adams et al. conducted a retrospective cohort study in 5 regions of a large integrated healthcare organization. Eligible subjects, identified from the Kaiser Permanente Total Joint Replacement Registry, underwent an elective primary TKA between 2001 and 2009. Data on demographics, diabetes status, preoperative hemoglobin A1c (HbA1c) level, and comorbid conditions were obtained from electronic medical records. Subjects were classified as nondiabetic, diabetic with HbA1c<7% (controlled diabetes), or diabetic with HbA1c > 7% (uncontrolled diabetes). Outcomes were deep venous thrombosis or pulmonary embolism within 90 days after surgery and revision surgery, deep infection, incident of myocardial infarction, and all-cause rehospitalization within one year after surgery. Patients without diabetes were the reference group in all analyses. All models were adjusted for age, sex, body mass index, and Charlson comorbidity index. Of 40,491 patients who underwent TKA, 7,567 (18.7%) had diabetes, 464 (1.1%) underwent revision arthroplasty, and 287 (0.7%) developed a deep infection. Compared with patients without diabetes, no association between controlled diabetes (HbA1c < 7%) and the risk of revision (OR, 1.32; 95% CI, 0.99 to 1.76), risk of deep infection (OR, 1.31; 95% CI, 0.92 to 1.86), or risk of deep venous thrombosis or pulmonary embolism (OR, 0.84; 95% CI, 0.60 to 1.17) was observed. Similarly, compared with patients without diabetes, no association between uncontrolled diabetes (HbA1c > 7%) and the risk of revision (OR, 1.03; 95% CI, 0.68 to 1.54), risk of deep infection (OR, 0.55; 95% CI 0.29 to 1.06), or risk of deep venous thrombosis or pulmonary embolism (OR, 0.70; 95% CI, 0.43 to 1.13) was observed.⁴⁰

Anticoagulation: Well-designed studies evaluating the effects of anticoagulation on wound complication and hematoma formation in patients who have undergone reoperation for wound-related problems are lacking. However, the effects of aggressive or excessive anticoagulation have been studied extensively in patients undergoing primary or revision TKA and THA. One case control study found that patients with a postoperative INR>1.5 were more likely to develop hematomas and wound drainage after joint replacement and subsequent infection.⁴¹ Another retrospective observational study found that patients who received low-molecular-weight heparin for prophylaxis had a longer time until the postoperative wound was dry than did those treated with aspirin and mechanical foot compression or those who received Coumadin (warfarin) until the eighth postoperative day. Each day of prolonged wound drainage increased the risk of wound infection by 42% following a THA and by 29% following a TKA.²⁴ Recently, a case control study of Mortazavi et al. identified 38 patients requiring reoperation due to hematoma following THA between 2000 and 2007. The 38 patients were matched with 117 patients without hematoma. The mean follow-up was 4.1 years (range, 2.1–9.6). Multivariate regression showed that blood loss, administration of fresh frozen plasma and vitamin K, perioperative anticoagulation, and hormonal therapy were independent predictors for hematoma formation. Chronic anticoagulation and autologous blood transfusion were independent risk factors for mortality. Hematoma itself was found to be an independent risk factor for adverse outcomes, increasing morbidity and mortality despite adequate treatment.⁴²

Although persistent drainage and hematoma formation are recognized risk factors for the development of PJI, it is not known if excess anticoagulation is a predisposing factor. Parvizi et al. conducted a 2 to 1 case control study with 78 cases that underwent revision for septic failure. The controls underwent the same index procedure but did not develop consequent infection. Patient comorbidities, medications, and intraoperative and postoperative factors were compared. Postoperative wound complications including development of hematoma and wound drainage were significant risk factors for PJI. A mean INR of greater than 1.5 was found to be more prevalent in patients who developed postoperative wound complications and subsequent PJI. Cautious anticoagulation to prevent hematoma formation and/or wound drainage is critical to prevent PJI and its undesirable consequences.⁴¹

Anemia: Preoperative anemia prior to total joint arthroplasty has been associated with a prolonged length of stay, greater 90-day readmission rates, and higher allogenic blood transfusion requirements.^{43, 44} Therefore, all possible means must be undertaken to improve

hemoglobin levels prior to TJA. However, both preoperative anemia and allogenic transfusions have been associated with higher rates of PJI.⁴⁴ Hence, blood conservation protocols were devised to decrease the need for postoperative transfusions in anemic patients. A systematic approach to optimizing hemoglobin levels preoperatively that implements oral and possibly intravenous iron, folic acid supplements, erythropoietin while minimizing blood loss intraoperatively using tranexamic acid, cell salvage, and induced hypotension has been shown to diminish allogenic transfusion requirements.⁴³ Although such protocols and studies are lacking in patients with TJA undergoing reoperation for SSI, these preoperative and intraoperative measures can be easily implemented during the initial procedure and prior to the I&D.

Question 6: Should intraoperative cultures be taken when performing I&D for a persistently draining wound after TJA?

Consensus: Yes. Intraoperative cultures (minimum of three) should be taken when performing I&D reoperation for a persistently draining wound.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 98%, Disagree: 1%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: In a retrospective study performed by Jaber et al., positive bacterial cultures from deep periprosthetic tissue were present in 34% of cases (28/83) of persistently draining wounds that underwent I&D.¹⁷ Positive bacterial cultures obtained from deep (periprosthetic) tissue were more common in the failure group (17 of 20 [85%]) than in the success group (11 of 63 [17%]). In another retrospective study of 8 TKAs with persistent drainage, 25% (2/8) proved to have a positive joint culture at the time of I&D.²⁶ Atkins et al. recommended taking a minimum of 3 samples after they found that the isolation of an indistinguishable microorganism from 3 or more independent specimens was highly predictive of infection. Their prospective study was performed to establish criteria for the microbiological diagnosis of PJI at elective revision arthroplasty. Revisions on 334 patients were performed over a 17-month period, of which 297 procedures were evaluable. There were 41 infections, with only 65% of all samples sent from infected patients being culture positive, suggesting low numbers of bacteria in the samples

taken. The isolation of an indistinguishable microorganism from 3 or more independent specimens was highly predictive of infection (sensitivity, 65%; specificity, 99.6%; LR, 168.6).⁴⁵

Question 7: Should perioperative antibiotics be withheld prior to skin incision for I&D of TJA?

Consensus: NO. Perioperative antibiotics given within one hour prior to I&D reoperation should not be withheld prior to skin incision.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 82%, Disagree: 14%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Ghanem et al. retrospectively reviewed 171 patients undergoing TKA, diagnosed with PJI from 2000 to 2005, who had a positive preoperative aspiration culture. The details of any antibiotics given to the patients preoperatively were documented. Seventy-two of 171 patients received preoperative antibiotics before surgery. Intraoperative culture was negative in 9, with a false-negative rate of 12.5%. An organism could not be isolated from intraoperative samples in 8 of the 99 patients who did not receive preoperative antibiotics, with a false-negative rate of 8%. We observed no difference in the incidence of false-negative cultures between the two groups. Administration of preoperative antibiotics to patients with a positive preoperative joint aspiration did not interfere with isolation of the infecting organism from intraoperative culture samples more than when antibiotics were withheld. Two prospective studies reached the same conclusion that preoperative prophylactic antibiotics had no significant effect on cultures obtained intraoperatively.^{46, 47}

Burnett et al. undertook a prospective study to determine whether prophylactic preoperative intravenous antibiotics would affect the results of cultures obtained intraoperatively. They enrolled 25 patients with 26 infected TKAs, a known preoperative infecting organism, and no recent antibiotic therapy. Reaspiration of the infected TKA was performed after anesthesia and sterile preparation. Intravenous antibiotic prophylaxis was then administered and the tourniquet inflated. Intraoperative culture swabs and tissue were obtained at arthrotomy. The timing of events was recorded. Pre- and postantibiotic culture data were analyzed to determine the effect of intravenous preoperative prophylactic antibiotics on cultures obtained intraoperatively. In all

26 knees the organism(s) cultured on the preoperative aspiration and from the operating room cultures before antibiotic infusion were the same organism(s) cultured at the time of arthrotomy despite the routine infusion of antibiotics.⁴⁶

Tetreault et al. randomized 65 patients with known PJI after 37 TKAs and 28 THAs at 3 centers. Patients were included in the trial if they had a culture-positive aspiration and had not taken antibiotics within 2 weeks of the procedure. Patients were randomized to receive prophylactic antibiotics either before the skin incision or after a minimum of 3 sets of intraoperative cultures were obtained. Preoperative and intraoperative cultures were then compared. Results between patients who did and did not receive antibiotics were compared using an equivalence test for proportion differences (two one-sided t-tests [TOST]) with a 0.2 margin. Intraoperative cultures yielded the same organisms as preoperative cultures in 28 of 34 patients (82%) randomized to receive antibiotics before the skin incision compared to 25 of 31 patients (81%) randomized to receive antibiotics after obtaining operative cultures (statistically equivalent by TOST estimate: $p=0.0290$).⁴⁷

Question 8: What is the optimal method for wound closure after TJA to minimize the risk of SSI and PJI?

Consensus: Despite the lack of evidence supporting the superiority of one technique of skin closure over others (staples, suture, adhesive, or tapes), we recommend the use of monofilament suture for wound closure in patients who undergo reoperation for wound-related problems during the early postoperative period after index arthroplasty.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 75%, Disagree: 15%, Abstain: 10% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: A prospective RCT comparing skin adhesives, subcuticular closure, and skin staples for closure of TKA and THA revealed no significant difference in early and late complications, wound cosmesis, or patient satisfaction.⁴⁸ Another prospective RCT compared TKA tissue adhesives, stapling, and suturing as wound closure techniques and found no significant differences in infection, dehiscence, cosmesis, or functional outcomes.⁴⁹ A similar prospective RCT comparing skin adhesive and staples for skin closure in THA found no

significant difference between groups in the cosmetic appearance of scars at 3 months ($p=0.172$), the occurrence of complications ($p=0.3$), or patient satisfaction ($p=0.42$).⁵⁰ A meta-analysis was conducted to compare the clinical outcomes of staples vs sutures in wound closure after orthopaedic surgery. The study found no significant difference between sutures and staples in the development of inflammation, discharge, dehiscence, necrosis, and allergic reaction; but the risk of developing a superficial wound was over 3 times greater after staple closure than suture closure ($p=0.01$).⁵¹ However, the authors stated that the included studies had several major methodological limitations, including the recruitment of small, underpowered cohorts, poor randomization of patients, and not blinding assessors to the allocated methods of wound closure. A Cochrane meta-analysis determined the relative effects of various tissue adhesives and conventional skin closure techniques (staples, sutures, and tapes) on the healing of surgical wounds.⁵² The authors concluded that there is insufficient evidence either to support or refute the idea that using tissue adhesive leads to lower or higher levels of dehiscence, satisfaction with cosmetic appearance when assessed by patients or surgeons, patients' and surgeons' general satisfaction, or infection.

Khan et al. carried out a blinded prospective RCT comparing 2-octylcyanoacrylate (OCA), subcuticular suture (monocryl) and skin staples for skin closure following THA and TKA. They included 102 THA and 85 TKA. OCA was associated with less wound discharge in the first 24 hours for both the hip and the knee. However, with TKA there was a trend for a more prolonged wound discharge with OCA. With THA there was no significant difference between the groups for either early or late complications. Closure of the wound with skin staples was significantly faster than with OCA or suture. There was no significant difference in the LOS, Hollander wound evaluation score (cosmesis), or patient satisfaction between the groups at 6 weeks for either hips or knees.⁴⁸

Eggers et al. compared 4 wound closure techniques for TKA in a RCT with 75 subjects. The study compared tissue adhesives, stapling, and suturing with respect to procedure time and cost, together with functional and clinical outcome. TKA closure time (capsule to cutaneous) favored staples at 26 s/cm, followed by adhesives (45 and 37 s/cm for 2-octyl and n-butyl-2, respectively), and finally subcuticular suturing at 54 s/cm ($p<0.0007$). Reduced procedure time translated into intraoperative cost reduction where closure cost per centimeter was \$70, \$62, \$57, and \$75 for 2-octyl, n-butyl-2, staples, and sutures, respectively. No significant differences in infection, dehiscence, cosmesis, general health (SF-12v2; QualityMetric Inc., Lincoln, Rhode

Island), and functional and clinical assessments (range of motion, Knee Society score, and pain) were observed.⁴⁹

Livesey et al. undertook a RCT to compare the outcomes of skin adhesive and staples for skin closure in THA. The primary outcome was the cosmetic appearance of the scar at 3 months using a surgeon-rated VAS. In all, 90 patients were randomized to skin closure using either skin adhesive (n=45) or staples (n=45). Data on demographics, surgical details, infection, and oozing were collected during the in-patient stay. Further data on complications, patient satisfaction, and evaluation of cosmesis were collected at 3 months follow-up and a photograph of the scar was taken. An orthopaedic and a plastic surgeon independently evaluated the cosmetic appearance of the scars from the photographs. No significant difference was found between groups in the cosmetic appearance of scars at 3 months ($p=0.172$), the occurrence of complications ($p=0.3$), or patient satisfaction ($p=0.42$). Staples were quicker and easier to use than skin adhesive and less expensive. Skin adhesive and surgical staples are both effective skin closure methods in THA.⁵⁰

Smith et al. conducted a meta-analysis to compare the clinical outcomes of staples versus sutures in wound closure after orthopaedic surgery. Medline, CINAHL, AMED, Embase, Scopus, and the Cochrane Library databases were searched, in addition to the grey literature published in all languages from 1950 to September 2009. Two authors independently assessed papers for eligibility. RCTs and non-RCTs that compared the use of staples with suture material for wound closure after orthopaedic surgery procedures were included. Publications were not excluded because of poor methodological quality. The primary outcome measure was the assessment of superficial wound infection after wound closure with staples compared with sutures. Six papers, which included 683 wounds, were identified; 332 patients underwent suture closure and 351 staple closure. The risk of developing a superficial wound infection after orthopaedic procedures was over 3 times greater after staple closure than suture closure (RR 3.83, 95% CI 1.38 to 10.68; $p=0.01$). On subgroup analysis of hip surgery alone, the risk of developing a wound infection was 4 times greater after staple closure than suture closure (4.79, 1.24 to 18.47; $p=0.02$). There was no significant difference between sutures and staples in the development of inflammation, discharge, dehiscence, necrosis, and allergic reaction. The included studies had several major methodological limitations, including the recruitment of small, underpowered cohorts, poor randomization of patients, and not blinding assessors to the allocated methods of wound closure.⁵¹

Coulthard et al. conducted a meta-analysis to determine the relative effects of various tissue adhesives and conventional skin closure techniques (staples, sutures, and tapes) on the healing of surgical wounds. Screening of eligible studies and data extraction were conducted independently and in triplicate while assessment of the methodological quality of the trials was conducted independently and in duplicate. Results were expressed as random effects models using the mean difference for continuous outcomes and RR with 95% CIs for dichotomous outcomes. Heterogeneity was investigated including both clinical and methodological factors. For this update the following databases were searched: the Cochrane Wounds Group Specialized Register (search conducted 11/17/09), The Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (CENTRAL)--The Cochrane Library Issue 4 2009, Ovid MEDLINE-1950 to November Week 1 2009, Ovid EMBASE--1980 to 2009 Week 46, and EBSCO CINAHL--1982 to 17 November 2009.

For adhesive compared with sutures, there was an overall favoring of sutures for dehiscence. However, sutures were significantly faster to use than tissue adhesives. For adhesives compared with tapes, there was a significant difference in time taken for closure, which favored the control (tapes). The surgeon's opinion of the cosmetic outcome was better in the tape group. For adhesives compared with staples, there was a significant difference in time taken for closure, favoring the staples group. For adhesives compared with other techniques, when assessing operator and patient satisfaction there was a statistical difference favoring the control group over adhesives. In this same analysis there was a statistical difference favoring the adhesive for time taken to closure. For all other analyses there was insufficient evidence either to support or refute the idea that using tissue adhesive led to lower or higher levels of dehiscence, satisfaction with cosmetic appearance when assessed by patients or surgeons, patients' and surgeons' general satisfaction, or infection, when used in comparison with sutures, adhesive tape, staples, or an adhesive with a lower viscosity.⁵²

References:

1. Clarke JV, Deakin AH, Dillon JM, Emmerson S, Kinninmonth AW. A prospective clinical audit of a new dressing design for lower limb arthroplasty wounds. *J Wound Care*. 2009;18(1):5-8, 10-11.
2. Burke NG, Green C, McHugh G, McGolderick N, Kilcoyne C, Kenny P. A prospective randomised study comparing the jubilee dressing method to a standard adhesive dressing for total hip and knee replacements. *J Tissue Viability*. 2012;21(3):84-87.

3. Hopper GP, Deakin AH, Crane EO, Clarke JV. Enhancing patient recovery following lower limb arthroplasty with a modern wound dressing: a prospective, comparative audit. *J Wound Care*. 2012;21(4):200-203.
4. Abuzakuk TM, Coward P, Shenava Y, Kumar VS, Skinner JA. The management of wounds following primary lower limb arthroplasty: a prospective, randomised study comparing hydrofibre and central pad dressings. *Int Wound J*. 2006;3(2):133-137.
5. Ravenscroft MJ, Harker J, Buch KA. A prospective, randomised, controlled trial comparing wound dressings used in hip and knee surgery: Aquacel and Tegaderm versus Cutiplast. *Ann R Coll Surg Engl*. 2006;88(1):18-22.
6. Ubbink DT, Vermeulen H, Goossens A, Kelner RB, Schreuder SM, Lubbers MJ. Occlusive vs gauze dressings for local wound care in surgical patients: a randomized clinical trial. *Arch Surg*. 2008;143(10):950-955.
7. Foster L, Moore P, Clark S. A comparison of hydrofibre and alginate dressings on open acute surgical wounds. *J Wound Care*. 2000;9(9):442-445.
8. Ravnskog FA, Espehaug B, Indrekvam K. Randomised clinical trial comparing Hydrofiber and alginate dressings post-hip replacement. *J Wound Care*. 2011;20(3):136-142.
9. Trial C, Darbas H, Lavigne JP, et al. Assessment of the antimicrobial effectiveness of a new silver alginate wound dressing: a RCT. *J Wound Care*. 2010;19(1):20-26.
10. Jude EB, Apelqvist J, Spraul M, Martini J. Prospective randomized controlled study of Hydrofiber dressing containing ionic silver or calcium alginate dressings in non-ischaemic diabetic foot ulcers. *Diabet Med*. 2007;24(3):280-288.
11. Jurczak F, Dugre T, Johnstone A, Offori T, Vujovic Z, Hollander D. Randomised clinical trial of Hydrofiber dressing with silver versus povidone-iodine gauze in the management of open surgical and traumatic wounds. *Int Wound J*. 2007;4(1):66-76.
12. Beele H, Meuleneire F, Nahuys M, Percival SL. A prospective randomised open label study to evaluate the potential of a new silver alginate/carboxymethylcellulose antimicrobial wound dressing to promote wound healing. *Int Wound J*. 2010;7(4):262-270.
13. Vermeulen H, van Hattem JM, Storm-Versloot MN, Ubbink DT. Topical silver for treating infected wounds. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2007(1):CD005486.
14. Storm-Versloot MN, Vos CG, Ubbink DT, Vermeulen H. Topical silver for preventing wound infection. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. (3):CD006478.
15. Saba SC, Tsai R, Glat P. Clinical evaluation comparing the efficacy of aquacel ag hydrofiber dressing versus petrolatum gauze with antibiotic ointment in partial-thickness burns in a pediatric burn center. *J Burn Care Res*. 2009;30(3):380-385.
16. Springer BD, Odum S, Griffin WL, Beaver WB, Mason JB. The role of surgical dressing in total joint arthroplasty: Level 1 randomized clinical trial. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. in Press.
17. Jaber FM, Parvizi J, Haytmanek CT, Joshi A, Purtill J. Procrastination of wound drainage and malnutrition affect the outcome of joint arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2008;466(6):1368-1371.
18. Hansen E, Durinka JB, Costanzo JA, Austin MS, Deirmengian GK. Negative Pressure Wound Therapy Is Associated With Resolution of Incisional Drainage in Most Wounds After Hip Arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. Mar 29 2013. Epub before print.
19. Butt U, Ahmad R, Aspros D, Bannister GC. Factors affecting wound ooze in total knee replacement. *Ann R Coll Surg Engl*. 2011;93(1):54-56.
20. Lonner JH, Lotke PA. Aseptic complications after total knee arthroplasty. *J Am Acad Orthop Surg*. 1999;7(5):311-324.
21. 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(3):506-515.
22. Vince K, Chivas D, Droll KP. Wound complications after total knee arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty*. 2007;22(4 Suppl 1):39-44.

23. Dennis DA. Wound complications in total knee arthroplasty. Instr Course Lect. 1997;46:165-169.
24. Patel VP, Walsh M, Sehgal B, Preston C, DeWal H, Di Cesare PE. Factors associated with prolonged wound drainage after primary total hip and knee arthroplasty. J Bone Joint Surg Am. 2007;89(1):33-38.
25. 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(4):412-418.
26. Weiss AP, Krackow KA. Persistent wound drainage after primary total knee arthroplasty. J Arthroplasty. 1993;8(3):285-289.
27. 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(4):719-722.
28. Masden D, Goldstein 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. 2012;255(6):1043-1047.
29. Webster J, Scuffham P, Sherriff KL, Stankiewicz M, Chaboyer WP. Negative pressure wound therapy for skin grafts and surgical wounds healing by primary intention. Cochrane Database Syst Rev.4:CD009261.
30. Kelm J, Schmitt E, Anagnostakos K. Vacuum-assisted closure in the treatment of early hip joint infections. Int J Med Sci. 2009;6(5):241-246.
31. Wilson MG, Kelley K, Thornhill TS. Infection as a complication of total knee-replacement arthroplasty. Risk factors and treatment in sixty-seven cases. J Bone Joint Surg Am. 1990;72(6):878-883.
32. Gardner J, Gioe TJ, Tatman P. Can this prosthesis be saved?: implant salvage attempts in infected primary TKA. Clin Orthop Relat Res. 2011;469(4):970-976.
33. Galat DD, McGovern SC, Larson DR, Harrington JR, Hanssen AD, Clarke HD. Surgical treatment of early wound complications following primary total knee arthroplasty. J Bone Joint Surg Am. 2009;91(1):48-54.
34. Gherini S, Vaughn BK, Lombardi AV, Jr., Mallory TH. Delayed wound healing and nutritional deficiencies after total hip arthroplasty. Clin Orthop Relat Res. 1993(293):188-195.
35. Lavernia CJ, Sierra RJ, Baerga L. Nutritional parameters and short term outcome in arthroplasty. J Am Coll Nutr. 1999;18(3):274-278.
36. Pedersen AB, Mehnert F, Johnsen SP, Sorensen HT. Risk of revision of a total hip replacement in patients with diabetes mellitus: a population-based follow up study. J Bone Joint Surg Br. 2010;92(7):929-934.
37. Jansen E, Nevalainen P, Eskelinen A, Huotari K, Kalliovalkama J, Moilanen T. Obesity, diabetes, and preoperative hyperglycemia as predictors of periprosthetic joint infection: a single-center analysis of 7181 primary hip and knee replacements for osteoarthritis. J Bone Joint Surg Am. 2012;94(14):e101.
38. Golden SH, Peart-Vigilance C, Kao WH, Brancati FL. Perioperative glycemic control and the risk of infectious complications in a cohort of adults with diabetes. Diabetes Care. 1999;22(9):1408-1414.
39. Iorio R, Williams KM, Marcantonio AJ, Specht LM, Tilzey JF, Healy WL. Diabetes mellitus, hemoglobin A1C, and the incidence of total joint arthroplasty infection. J Arthroplasty. 2012;27(5):726-729 e721.
40. Adams AL, Paxton EW, Wang JQ, et al. Surgical outcomes of total knee replacement according to diabetes status and glycemic control, 2001 to 2009. J Bone Joint Surg Am. 2013;95(6):481-487.
41. Parvizi J, Ghanem E, Joshi A, Sharkey PF, Hozack WJ, Rothman RH. Does "excessive" anticoagulation predispose to periprosthetic infection? J Arthroplasty. 2007;22(6 Suppl 2):24-28.

42. Mortazavi SM, Hansen P, Zmistowski B, Kane PW, Restrepo C, Parvizi J. Hematoma following primary total hip arthroplasty: a grave complication. *J Arthroplasty*. 2013;28(3):498-503.
43. Kotze A, Carter LA, Scally AJ. Effect of a patient blood management programme on preoperative anaemia, transfusion rate, and outcome after primary hip or knee arthroplasty: a quality improvement cycle. *Br J Anaesth*. 2012;108(6):943-952.
44. Greenky M, Gandhi K, Pulido L, Restrepo C, Parvizi J. Preoperative anemia in total joint arthroplasty: is it associated with periprosthetic joint infection? *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2012;470(10):2695-2701.
45. Atkins BL, Athanasou N, Deeks JJ, et al. Prospective evaluation of criteria for microbiological diagnosis of prosthetic-joint infection at revision arthroplasty. The OSIRIS Collaborative Study Group. *J Clin Microbiol*. 1998;36(10):2932-2939.
46. Burnett RS, Aggarwal A, Givens SA, McClure JT, Morgan PM, Barrack RL. Prophylactic antibiotics do not affect cultures in the treatment of an infected TKA: a prospective trial. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2010;468(1):127-134.
47. Tetreault MW, Wetters NG, Aggarwal V, Mont M, Parvizi J, Della Valle CJ. The Chitranjan Ranawat Award: Should Prophylactic Antibiotics Be Withheld Before Revision Surgery to Obtain Appropriate Cultures? *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. Apr 30, 2013. Epub before print.
48. Khan RJ, Fick D, Yao F, et al. A comparison of three methods of wound closure following arthroplasty: a prospective, randomised, controlled trial. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 2006;88(2):238-242.
49. Eggers MD, Fang L, Lionberger DR. A comparison of wound closure techniques for total knee arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty*. 2011;26(8):1251-1258 e1251-1254.
50. Livesey C, Wyld V, Descamps S, et al. Skin closure after total hip replacement: a randomised controlled trial of skin adhesive versus surgical staples. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 2009;91(6):725-729.
51. Smith TO, Sexton D, Mann C, Donell S. Sutures versus staples for skin closure in orthopaedic surgery: meta-analysis. *BMJ*. 2010;340:c1199.
52. Coulthard P, Worthington H, Esposito M, Elst M, Waes OJ. Tissue adhesives for closure of surgical incisions. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2004(2):CD004287.

Workgroup 9: Spacers

Liaison:

Mustafa Citak, MD

Leaders:

Jean-Noel Argenson MD (International), Bas Masri MD, FRCSC (International), Daniel Kendoff MD (International), Bryan Springer MD (US)

Delegates:

Volker Alt MD, Andrea Baldini MD, Quanjun Cui MD, Gregory K Deirmengian MD, Hernan del Sel MD, Michael F Harrer MD, Craig Israelite MD, David Jahoda MD, Paul C Jutte MD, Eric Levicoff MD, Enzo Meani MD, Fernando Motta MD, Orestes Ronaldo Pena MD, Amar S Ranawat MD, Oleg Safir MD, Matthew W Squire MD, Michael J Taunton MD, Charles Vogely MD, Samuel S Wellman MD

Question 1: Is there a functional difference in the use of non-articulating or articulating spacers for the treatment of periprosthetic joint infection (PJI) in the knee, in between of two-stage exchange arthroplasty?

Consensus: Articulating spacers provide better function than non-articulating spacers for the patient in between the stages of total knee arthroplasty (TKA). An articulating spacer is especially preferred for patients who are likely to have a spacer in place for longer than 3 months.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 89%, Disagree: 6%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: The current available peer-reviewed literature reveals an overall of 46 original articles (excluding case reports, review articles, and technical reports) including 4 level 2, 8 level 3, and 34 level 4 studies related to the use of spacers.

The majority of these studies have evaluated the mid-term functional outcome of patients after reimplantation and compared articulating with non-articulating spacers. A few studies that evaluated patient function between the stages for resection arthroplasty and reimplantation detected a superior outcome for patients receiving articulating spacers compared to those with non-articulating spacers.¹⁻⁴⁶

Question 2: Is there a functional difference in the use of non-articulating or articulating spacers for treatment of periprosthetic joint infection (PJI) in the knee at minimum two years after reimplantation?

Consensus: There is a non-significant trend in range of motion improvement with articulating compared to non-articulating spacers, but the panels believes that this is still of value to the patient

Delegate Vote: Agree: 82%, Disagree: 12%, Abstain: 6% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: A review of the current available peer-reviewed literature reveals an overall number of 46 original articles (excluding case reports, review articles, and technical reports) including 4 level 2, 8 level 3, and 34 level 4 studies related to the use of spacers.¹⁻⁴⁶

The majority of these studies have evaluated the mid-term functional outcome of patients after reimplantation and compared articulating with non-articulating spacers. The majority of studies have demonstrated a higher range of motion at mid-term follow-up for patients receiving articulating spacers compared to patients with non-articulating spacers. The average reported flexion angle for all reported patients receiving articulating spacers (1195 cases) after an average follow-up of 44.3 months was 96.4° (range 63 to 115°; standard deviation (SD)=10.8), whereas in all reported patients of the non-articulating group (474 cases) an average flexion angle of 91.2° (range 73.8 to 106°; SD=8.7) was reported after an average follow-up of 52 months.

Question 3: Is there a functional difference in the use of non-articulating or articulating spacers for the treatment of PJI in the hip, in between stages of two-stage exchange arthroplasty?

Consensus: A well performing articulating spacer provides better function for the patient in between the stages of total hip arthroplasty (THA). These are especially preferred for patients who are likely to have a spacer in place for longer than 3 months.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 89%, Disagree: 7%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There are 26 original articles (excluding case reports, review articles, and technical reports) analyzing the functional outcomes of patients who have undergone two-stage exchange for PJI of the hip. Most of the available studies report functional outcome according to the Harris Hip Score (HHS). We found one level 1 study, 2 level 2 studies, 2 level 3 studies, and 21 level 4 studies.

A few studies that evaluated patient function between stages for resection arthroplasty and reimplantation detected a superior outcome for patients receiving articulating spacers compared to those with non-articulating spacers.^{42,47-71}

Question 4: Is there a functional difference in the use of non-articulating or articulating spacers for the treatment of PJI in the hip, at minimum two years after reimplantation?

Consensus: There is a non-significant trend in functional improvement with articulating compared to non-articulating spacers, but the panels believes that this is still of value to the patient.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 81%, Disagree: 12%, Abstain: 7% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There are 26 original articles (excluding case reports, review articles, and technical reports) analyzing the functional outcomes of patients who have undergone two-stage exchange for PJI of the hip. Most of the available studies report functional outcome according to the HHS. We found one level 1 study, 2 level 2 studies, 2 level 3 studies, and 21 level 4 studies. The majority of the reports comparing the mid-term outcome of surgical treatment for PJI revealed a better functional outcome (as measured by the HHS) for patients who received articulating spacers compared to non-articulating spacers. The average reported HHS for all patients receiving articulating spacers (898 cases) after an average follow-up of 50 months was 83 (range 68 to 98 points; SD=8.2), compared to the HHS of 81 points (range, 78 to 83 points; SD=2.3) for those receiving non-articulating spacers (63 patients) after an average follow up of 61 months.^{42,47-71}

Question 5: Is there a difference in reimplantation (surgical ease) with the use of non-articulating or articulating spacers for the treatment of PJI in the knee and hip?

Consensus: Yes. Reimplantation surgery is easier overall in patients receiving articulating spacers compared to non-articulating spacers.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 81%, Disagree: 8%, Abstain: 11% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: As far as we could find there were no studies that directly compared the ease of reimplantation of spacers between patients receiving non-articulating or articulating spacers. However, based on the anecdotal reports it appears that the use of articulating spacers facilitates reimplantation surgery. Better soft tissue tension, improved ability of the patient to move the joint in the interim between resection and reimplantation, and better restoration of anatomy may all be reasons for this difference.

Question 6: Is there a difference with regards to control of infection with the use of articulating or non-articulating spacers in the knee?

Consensus: No. The type of spacer does not influence the rate of infection eradication in two-stage exchange arthroplasty of the knee.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 89%, Disagree: 6%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Evaluation of the peer-reviewed literature revealed 59 original articles (excluding case reports, review articles, and technical reports) related to this subject. There were no level 1 studies that examined the success of surgical treatment with regard to infection control. There were 5 level 2 studies, 11 level 3 studies, and 43 level 4 studies.¹⁻⁵⁹

Eleven studies compared the eradication of infection rates through the use of articulating or non-articulating spacers. We analyzed all available literature, including 1,557 cases treated with articulating spacers and 601 cases treated with non-articulating spacers. The eradication rate of 91.5% (132 cases of reinfection) was higher with the use of an articulating spacer at latest mean follow-up of 42 months. The eradication rate was 87.0% (78 cases of reinfection) using a non-articulating spacer at 56 months follow-up. It is possible that the longer follow-up for the non-

articulating spacer cohort may explain the slight difference in infection control between the non-articulating and articulating spacer cohort. A further limiting factor for comparison of both groups might relate to the differences in organism profile (low vs high virulence), patient age, and comorbidities. None of the studies performed a multivariate analysis to isolate the use of spacer as an independent factor influencing the outcome of surgical treatment with regard to infection control.^{1-6,8-27,29-46,72-85}

Question 7: Is there a difference with regards to control of infection with the use of articulating or non-articulating spacers in the hip?

Consensus: No. The type of spacer does not influence the rate of infection eradication in two-stage exchange arthroplasty of the hip.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 95%, Disagree: 3%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: An evaluation of the peer-reviewed literature revealed 65 original articles (excluding case reports, review articles, and technical reports) related to this matter. Most of the available studies are level 4 studies with 55 available studies, followed by 5 level 3 studies and 4 level 2 studies. Only one level 1 study was available.^{9,42,47-72,74,78,86-120}

Based on the available literature, we found 2,063 infected THA cases treated with articulating and 354 infected THA cases treated with non-articulating spacers. The eradication rate was slightly higher with the use of a articulating spacer with 92.5% (154 cases of reinfection) at latest follow-up of 43.4 months. The eradication rate was 90.7% (33 cases of reinfection) at latest follow-up of 49.6 months using a non-articulating spacer. Again, the confounding variables here may be the differences in follow-up, organism profile, patient age, patient comorbidities, and numerous other factors that influence the outcome of surgical intervention for PJI. None of the studies performed a multivariate analysis to isolate the type of spacer as an independent factor influencing control of infection.

Question 8: Is there a difference with regards to control of infection between different types of articulating spacers used in the knee?

Consensus: Control of the infection is no different between different types of articulating spacers in the treatment of infected TKA.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 90%, Disagree: 5%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Evaluation of the available peer-reviewed literature revealed 45 original articles (excluding case reports, review articles, and technical reports). There were no level 1 studies. There were 5 level 2 studies, 11 level 3 studies, and 29 level 4 studies.^{1,3-6,8-10,12-14,16-18,21-25,27,29,30,32,33,35-38,40-45,51,72,73,77,79-82,85}

We evaluated the outcome of combined cohorts, which included 1492 infected TKA cases treated with different articulating spacers (PROSTALAC, Depuy, Warsaw, IN, n=314 cases; Hoffmann technique, n=410; cemented molds, n=716; and Spacer K, n=52 cases). The eradication rate was higher with the use of a Spacer K with 94.2% (3 cases of reinfection) followed by the Hoffmann technique with 93.7% (26 cases of reinfection), and cemented molds with 91.6% (60 cases of reinfection) in the treatment of infected TKA. The eradication rate with the use of the PROSTALAC spacer was 91.1% (28 cases of reinfection).

Question 9: Are there contraindications for the use of non-articulating and/or articulating spacers?

Consensus: There are no clear contraindications for the use of non-articulating or articulating spacers, other than the technical feasibility of the procedure. In patients with massive bone loss and/or lack of integrity of soft-tissues or ligamentous restraint, strong consideration should be given to the use of non-articulating spacers.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 92%, Disagree: 3%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Based on available evidence, it is difficult to determine if there are any contraindications for the use of either spacers in the knee or the hip. However, expert surgeons who treat patients with PJI of the hip and knee on a frequent basis feel that the use of articulating spacers in patients with massive bone loss or lack of soft tissue or ligamentous integrity may lead to dislocation of the spacer. In addition, some surgeons prefer to use non-articulating spacers in patients with compromised soft tissue around the joint in order to prevent motion and allow better soft tissue healing. However, this practice has not been evaluated scientifically. We also analyzed the spacer complication rate using articulating and non-articulating hip spacers. The overall complication rate was 11.6% using articulating spacers and 6.9% using non-articulating spacers.^{9,47-72,74,78,86-120} The higher complication rate for articulating spacers should be noted.

Question 10: Are there any differences in functional outcome between manufactured spacers versus surgeon-made dynamic spacers used in the knee?

Consensus: There is no difference in functional outcome between manufactured spacers versus surgeon-made articulating spacers used in the knee. However, issues of cost, ease of use, and antibiotic delivery should be considered.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 89%, Disagree: 5%, Abstain: 6% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Evaluation of the available peer-reviewed literature revealed 50 original articles (excluding case reports, review articles, and technical reports). None of the studies were level 1. There were 6 level 2 studies, 11 level 3 studies, and 33 level 4 studies.¹⁻⁵⁰

We analyzed 1,525 infected TKA cases treated with either a handmade spacer (n=1074) or manufactured spacers (n=451). The mean flexion at latest follow-up was tendentially higher with a mean of 101.9° (range 77° to 115°; SD=8.3) using a handmade spacer compared to a mean of

90.2° (range 63° to 106°; SD=12.3) with a manufactured spacer.^{1,3-10,12-14,16-19,22-25,27-29,31-}

45,72,73,75,77,79-82,84,85,108

Question 11: Are there any differences in the rate of infection control between manufactured spacers versus surgeon-made articulating spacers used in the knee?

Consensus: There are no differences in the rate of infection control between manufactured spacers and surgeon-made articulating spacers used in the knee. However, issues of cost, ease of use, and antibiotic delivery should be considered.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 93%, Disagree: 2%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Evaluation of the available peer-reviewed literature revealed 50 original articles (excluding case reports, review articles, and technical reports). None of the studies were level 1. There were 6 level 2 studies, 11 level 3 studies, and 33 level 4 studies.¹⁻⁵⁰

We analyzed 1,525 infected TKA cases treated with either a handmade spacer (n=1,074) or manufactured spacers (n=451). The eradication rate was comparable with the use of a handmade spacer with 92.2% (84 reinfections) compared to the use of an industry-made spacer with 90.5% (43 reinfections).^{1,3-10,12-14,16-19,22-25,27-29,31-45,72,73,75,77,79-82,84,85,108}

Question 12: Are there any differences in functional outcome between manufactured spacers versus surgeon-made dynamic spacers used in the hip?

Consensus: There is no difference in functional outcome between manufactured spacers versus surgeon-made articulating spacers used in the hip. However, issues of cost, ease of use, and antibiotic delivery should be considered.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 89%, Disagree: 7%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Evaluation of the available peer-reviewed literature revealed 55 original articles (excluding case reports, review articles, and technical reports). There were one level 1 study, 4 level 2 studies, 4 level 3 studies, and 46 level 4 studies.^{9,47-54,56-59,61-63,72,74,78,86-88,90-98,100-108,110-113,123,64-67,70,71,115,117,119,120}

We analyzed 1,925 infected THA cases treated with either a handmade spacer (n=1,011) or manufactured spacer (n=914). The mean HHS at latest follow-up was also comparable using a handmade spacer (mean 84.9; range 68 to 97.8; SD=8.7) or manufactured spacer (mean HHS=82.3; range 70 to 93 points; SD=8.0).

Question 13: Are there any differences in the rate of infection control between manufactured spacers versus surgeon-made dynamic spacers used in the hip?

Consensus: There is no difference in the rate of infection control between manufactured spacers versus surgeon-made articulating spacers used in the hip. However, issues of cost, ease of use, and antibiotic delivery should be considered.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 94%, Disagree: 3%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Evaluation of the available peer-reviewed literature revealed 55 original articles (excluding case reports, review articles, and technical reports). There were one level 1 study, 4 level 2 studies, 4 level 3 studies, and 46 level 4 studies.^{9,47-54,56-59,61-63,72,74,78,86-88,90-98,100-108,110-113,123,64-67,70,71,115,117,119,120}

We analyzed 1,925 infected THA cases treated with either a handmade spacer (n=1,011) or manufactured spacer (n=914). The infection control rate with the use of a handmade spacer was 94.0% (61 reinfections) which was similar to the use of a manufactured spacer with 93.5% (59 reinfections).

Question 14: Which antibiotic should be used and how much of it should be added to cement spacers?

Consensus: The type of antibiotic and the dose needs to be individualized for each patient based on the organism profile and antibiogram (if available) as well as the patient's renal function and allergy profile. However, most infections can be treated with a spacer with Vancomycin (1 to 4 g per 40 g package of cement) and gentamicin or tobramycin (2.4 to 4.8 g per 40 g package of cement). We provide a list of all available antibiotics and the range of doses to be used against common infecting organisms.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 89%, Disagree: 7%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Antibiotic Group	Type of Antibiotic	Activity Against	Dose per 40 g cement (in grams)
Aminoglycoside	Tobramycin	Gram-negative bacteria such as <i>Pseudomonas</i>	1 to 4.8
Aminoglycoside	Gentamicin	Gram-negative bacteria- <i>Escherichia coli</i> , <i>Klebsiella</i> and particularly <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> . Also aerobic bacteria (not obligate/facultative anaerobes)	0.25 to 4.8
Cephalosporin , 1st gen	Cefazolin	Gram-positive infections, limited Gram negative coverage	1 to 2
Cephalosporin, 2nd gen	Cefuroxime	Reduced gram-positive coverage, improved gram-negative coverage	1.5 to 2
Cephalosporin, 3rd gen	Ceftazidime	Gram-negative bacteria, particularly <i>Pseudomonas</i>	2
Cephalosporin, 4th gen	Cefotaxime	Gram-negative bacteria, no activity against <i>Pseudomonas</i>	2
Cephalosporin, 5th gen	Ceftaroilne	Gram-negative bacteria, no activity against <i>Pseudomonas</i>	2 to 4

Fluoroquinolone	Ciprofloxacin	Gram-negative organisms including activity against <i>Enterobacteriaceae</i>	0.2 to 3
Glycopeptide	Vancomycin	Gram-positive bacteria, including methicillin-resistant organisms	0.5 to 4
Lincosamide	Clindamycin	Gram-positive cocci, anaerobes	1 to 2
Macrolide	Erythromycin	Aerobic gram-positive cocci and bacilli	0.5 to 1
Polymyxin	Colistin	Gram-negative	0.24
β -lactam	Piperacillin-not available Pip-tzobactam	Gram-negative bacteria (particularly <i>Pseudomonas</i>), Enterobacteria and anaerobes	4 to 8
β -lactam	Aztreonam	Only gram-negative bacteria	4
β -lactamase inhibitor	Tazobactam	Gram-negative bacteria (particularly <i>Pseudomonas</i>), Enterobacteria, and anaerobes in combination with Piperacillin	0.5
Oxazolidinones	Linezolid	Multidrug-resistant gram-positive cocci such as MRSA	1.2
Carbapenem	Meropenem	Gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria, anaerobes, <i>Pseudomonas</i>	0.5 to 4
Lipopeptide	Daptomycin	Only gram-positive organisms	2
Antifungals	Amphotericin	Most Fungi	200
Antifungal	Voriconazole	Most fungi	300-600 mg

Table 1: Table 1 reveals the list of available antibiotics and anti-fungals which can be used in spacers. The dose ranges reveal only the reported doses in the analyzed studies and are not recommendations.¹⁻¹³⁴ Again, the type of antibiotic and the dose needs to be individualized for

each patient based on the organism profile and antibiogram (if available) as well as the patient's renal function and allergy profile.

Justification: Some antibiotics become deactivated during the exothermic setting of polymethylmethacrylate (PMMA) cement and hence cannot be used in spacers. A list of all available antibiotics and the organisms against which they are active is provided (**Table 1**).

Although there are some studies claiming that the addition of high doses of antibiotic to PMMA cement is possible and does not carry the risk of systemic toxicity, the majority of surgeons have had experience with patients who developed renal toxicity following the use of an antibiotic-impregnated cement spacer. There are 3 main factors that influence the elution of antibiotic from PMMA spacers and the potential for renal toxicity. This includes the type of PMMA cement used (with high-viscosity cements containing MA-MMA copolymers having better antibiotic elution profiles than other acrylic bone cement formulations), renal function of the patient, and the manner in which the spacer is made and positioned in the infected joint. The larger the surface area of the spacer, the higher the antibiotic elution will be from the given spacer. Some surgeons place a ball of cement spacer in the joint, whereas others may place numerous PMMA beads in the soft tissue or the intramedullary canal. The treating surgeon needs to consider both of these options when operating on a patient with an infected joint.

We did not find any evidence in favor of or against any of the commercially-available PMMA cements that may be used in fashioning a spacer. Two of the most commonly used PMMA cements, namely Palacos and Simplex cement, were compared. We analyzed the available data with regard to infection control rate between these two cement types. Overall, 1,160 infected TKA cases were included. In 811 out of 1,160 cases Palacos cement (69.9%) was used and in the remaining 349 cases Simplex cement was used (30.1%). The eradication rate was similar with 91.6% (68 cases of reinfection) using Palacos cement compared to Simplex cement with an eradication rate of 89.4% (37 cases of reinfection).^{1-4,7-10,12-14,17,18,28-}

30,32,33,36,38,40,41,43,72,73,76-78,80-84,108

We also analyzed the available data for infected THA cases. We included 1,454 cases (Palacos, n=1,201; and Simplex, n=253). The infection control rate was similar in both groups with a rate of 93.7% (16 cases of reinfection) for Simplex and 93.8% (74 cases of reinfection) for Palacos cement.^{3,9,47,48,50-54,56,60-66,70,72,73,78,87,90-92,94,95,98,100,102,104,105,108,110,113,115,117,119,123}

Question 15: What is the optimal technique for preparing a high-dose antibiotic cement spacer (mixing, when and how to add antibiotics, and porosity)?

Consensus: There is no consensus on the best method of preparation of high-dose antibiotic cement spacers.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 93%, Disagree: 3%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: The pharmacokinetics of antibiotic release from the matrix is influenced by numerous factors, including the porosity of the cement (high viscosity cement containing MA-MMA copolymers have been shown to have better antibiotic elution profiles than other acrylic bone cement formulations) dose and type of antibiotics added to PMMA, and the shape and surface area of the spacer.

One of the basic principles of spacer preparation includes recognition that local antibiotic concentration must be clearly above the minimal inhibitory concentration and have minimal bactericidal concentrations of the infecting organism.¹²⁴ In general, the spacers should generate high local concentrations of antibiotic without associated systemic toxicity. Elution of antibiotics from the cement has been shown to be highest in the first 24 to 72 hours after surgery.¹²⁵ It seems that the initial high elution from the cement is a result of mechanical erosion of the spacer surface. The prolonged release over weeks relates to the antibiotic-loaded bone cement itself.¹²⁶

Another factor influencing the efficacy of antibiotic release from spacers includes the combination of antibiotics used, fatigue life of PMMA, and mixing technique. Antibiotic combinations can alter the elution characteristic of each agent; therefore, as one antibiotic dissolves, porosity increases and changes the surface, which allows for increased elution of other antibiotics. For instance, it has been shown that there was a statistically significant increase in the elution of vancomycin when the dose of tobramycin was increased from 2.4g to at least 3.6g in the mixture.¹⁰⁸

General principles of mixing antibiotics to cement:

Antibiotic needs to be bactericidal, in powder form to allow better integration with cement¹²⁷, sterile, heat/thermo stable and soluble in water.

The technical aspects of preparing a spacer include:

For preparation of antibiotic-loaded cement for the spacer, some technical aspects apply. As the dosage of antibiotics increases, the difficulty of incorporating the antibiotics into the cement during the mixing process increases. In these situations, mixing the cement powder and monomer for 30 seconds.¹³⁴, followed by the addition of the antibiotic powder in multiple small additions will facilitate incorporation. It is also advisable to crush clumps of antibiotic, although some irregularity in the antibiotics is acceptable, and may be preferable for early elution of active antibiotics. Hand mixing in a bowl without vacuum is recommended as bubbles facilitate elution of the antibiotics.¹³⁰ Addition of fillers such as Xyletol or Ancef may improve the elution of active antibiotics.^{122,131-133} The addition of a high amount of antibiotic to cement will decrease the fatigue strength and increase the fracture risk. The addition of more than 4.5g of powder substantially weakens the cement. For most antibiotic spacers, elution of antibiotics is more of a primary concern than the mechanical property, but the surgeon must keep this in mind for structural spacers.

References:

1. Anderson JA, Sculco PK, Heitkemper S, Mayman DJ, Bostrom MP, Sculco TP. An articulating spacer to treat and mobilize patients with infected total knee arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty*. 2009;24(4):631-635.
2. Booth RE Jr, Lotke PA. The results of spacer block technique in revision of infected total knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1989;(248):57-60.
3. Brunnekreef J, Hannink G, Malefijt Mde W. Recovery of knee mobility after a non-articulating or mobile spacer in total knee infection. *Acta Orthop Belg*. 2013;79(1):83-89.
4. Chiang ER, Su YP, Chen TH, Chiu FY, Chen WM. Comparison of articulating and non-articulating spacers regarding infection with resistant organisms in total knee arthroplasty. *Acta Orthop*. 2011;82(4):460-464.
5. Choi HR, Malchau H, Bedair H. Are prosthetic spacers safe to use in 2-stage treatment for infected total knee arthroplasty? *J Arthroplasty*. 2012;27(8):1474-1479 e1471.
6. Cuckler JM. The infected total knee: management options. *J Arthroplasty*. 2005;20(4 Suppl 2):33-36.
7. Durbhakula SM, Czajka J, Fuchs MD, Uhl RL. Antibiotic-loaded articulating cement spacer in the 2-stage exchange of infected total knee arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty*. 2004;19(6):768-774.
8. Emerson RH Jr, Muncie M, Tarbox TR, Higgins LL. Comparison of a non-articulating with a mobile spacer in total knee infection. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2002;(404):132-138.

9. Evans RP. Successful treatment of total hip and knee infection with articulating antibiotic components: a modified treatment method. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2004;(427):37-46.
10. Fehring TK, Odum S, Calton TF, Mason JB. Articulating versus non-articulating spacers in revision total knee arthroplasty for sepsis. The Ranawat Award. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2000;(380):9-16.
11. Gacon G, Laurencon M, Van de Velde D, Giudicelli DP. Two stages reimplantation for infection after knee arthroplasty. Apropos of a series of 29 cases. *Rev Chir Orthop Reparatrice Appar Mot.* 1997;83(4):313-323.
12. Garg P, Ranjan R, Bandyopadhyay U, Chouksey S, Mitra S, Gupta SK. Antibiotic-impregnated articulating cement spacer for infected total knee arthroplasty. *Indian J Orthop.* 2011;45(6):535-540.
13. Gooding CR, Masri BA, Duncan CP, Greidanus NV, Garbuz DS. Durable infection control and function with the PROSTALAC spacer in two-stage revision for infected knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2011;469(4):985-993.
14. Haddad FS, Masri BA, Campbell D, McGraw RW, Beauchamp CP, Duncan CP. The PROSTALAC functional spacer in two-stage revision for infected knee replacements. Prosthesis of antibiotic-loaded acrylic cement. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2000;82(6):807-812.
15. Haleem AA, Berry DJ, Hanssen AD. Mid-term to long-term followup of two-stage reimplantation for infected total knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2004;(428):35-39.
16. Hart WJ, Jones RS. Two-stage revision of infected total knee replacements using articulating cement spacers and short-term antibiotic therapy. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2006;88(8):1011-1015.
17. Hofmann AA, Goldberg T, Tanner AM, Kurtin SM. Treatment of infected total knee arthroplasty using an articulating spacer: 2- to 12-year experience. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2005;(430):125-131.
18. Hofmann AA, Kane KR, Tkach TK, Plaster RL, Camargo MP. Treatment of infected total knee arthroplasty using an articulating spacer. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1995;(321):45-54.
19. Huang HT, Su JY, Chen SK. The results of articulating spacer technique for infected total knee arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 2006;21(8):1163-1168.
20. Hsu CS, Hsu CC, Wang JW, Lin PC. Two-stage revision of infected total knee arthroplasty using an antibiotic-impregnated non-articulating cement-spacer. *Chang Gung Med J.* 2008;31(6):583-591.
21. Hsu YC, Cheng HC, Ng TP, Chiu KY. Antibiotic-loaded cement articulating spacer for 2-stage reimplantation in infected total knee arthroplasty: a simple and economic method. *J Arthroplasty.* 2007;22(7):1060-1066.
22. Hwang BH, Yoon JY, Nam CH, et al. Fungal peri-prosthetic joint infection after primary total knee replacement. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2012;94(5):656-659.
23. Jansen E, Sheng P, Halonen P, et al. Spacer prostheses in two-stage revision of infected knee arthroplasty. *Int Orthop.* 2006;30(4):257-261.
24. Jia YT, Zhang Y, Ding C, et al. Antibiotic-loaded articulating cement spacers in two-stage revision for infected total knee arthroplasty: individual antibiotic treatment and early results of 21 cases. *Chin J Traumatol.* 2012;15(4):212-221.
25. Johnson AJ, Sayeed SA, Naziri Q, Khanuja HS, Mont MA. Minimizing articulating knee spacer complications in infected revision arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2012;470(1):220-227.
26. Kotwal SY, Farid YR, Patil SS, Alden KJ, Finn HA. Intramedullary rod and cement non-articulating spacer construct in chronically infected total knee arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 2012;27(2):253-259 e254.
27. Lee JK, Choi CH. Two-stage reimplantation in infected total knee arthroplasty using a re-sterilized tibial polyethylene insert and femoral component. *J Arthroplasty.* 2012;27(9):1701-1706 e1701.

28. Logoluso N, Champlon C, Melegati G, Dell'Oro F, Romano CL. Gait analysis in patients with a preformed articulated knee spacer. *Knee*. 2012;19(4):370-372.
29. MacAvoy MC, Ries MD. The ball and socket articulating spacer for infected total knee arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty*. 2005;20(6):757-762.
30. Macheras GA, Kateros K, Galanakos SP, Koutsostathis SD, Kontou E, Papadakis SA. The long-term results of a two-stage protocol for revision of an infected total knee replacement. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 2011;93(11):1487-1492.
31. Macmull S, Bartlett W, Miles J, et al. Custom-made hinged spacers in revision knee surgery for patients with infection, bone loss and instability. *Knee*. 2010;17(6):403-406.
32. Meek RM, Dunlop D, Garbuz DS, McGraw R, Greidanus NV, Masri BA. Patient satisfaction and functional status after aseptic versus septic revision total knee arthroplasty using the PROSTALAC articulating spacer. *J Arthroplasty*. 2004;19(7):874-879.
33. Meek RM, Masri BA, Dunlop D, et al. Patient satisfaction and functional status after treatment of infection at the site of a total knee arthroplasty with use of the PROSTALAC articulating spacer. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2003;85-A(10):1888-1892.
34. Ocguder A, Firat A, Tecimel O, Solak S, Bozkurt M. Two-stage total infected knee arthroplasty treatment with articulating cement spacer. *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg*. 2010;130(6):719-725.
35. Park SJ, Song EK, Seon JK, Yoon TR, Park GH. Comparison of non-articulating and mobile antibiotic-impregnated cement spacers for the treatment of infected total knee arthroplasty. *Int Orthop*. 2010;34(8):1181-1186.
36. Pietsch M, Hofmann S, Wenisch C. Treatment of deep infection of total knee arthroplasty using a two-stage procedure. *Oper Orthop Traumatol*. 2006;18(1):66-87.
37. Pitto RP, Castelli CC, Ferrari R, Munro J. Pre-formed articulating knee spacer in two-stage revision for the infected total knee arthroplasty. *Int Orthop*. 2005;29(5):305-308.
38. Qiu XS, Sun X, Chen DY, Xu ZH, Jiang Q. Application of an articulating spacer in two-stage revision for severe infection after total knee arthroplasty. *Orthop Surg*. 2010;2(4):299-304.
39. Shen H, Zhang X, Jiang Y, Wang Q, Chen Y, Shao J. Intraoperatively-made cement-on-cement antibiotic-loaded articulating spacer for infected total knee arthroplasty. *Knee*. 2010;17(6):407-411.
40. Siebel T, Kelm J, Porsch M, Regitz T, Neumann WH. Two-stage exchange of infected knee arthroplasty with an prosthesis-like interim cement spacer. *Acta Orthop Belg*. 2002;68(2):150-156.
41. Su YP, Lee OK, Chen WM, Chen TH. A facile technique to make articulating spacers for infected total knee arthroplasty. *J Chin Med Assoc*. 2009;72(3):138-145.
42. Thabe H, Schill S. Two-stage reimplantation with an application spacer and combined with delivery of antibiotics in the management of prosthetic joint infection. *Oper Orthop Traumatol*. 2007;19(1):78-100.
43. Tigani D, Trisolino G, Fosco M, Ben Ayad R, Costigliola P. Two-stage reimplantation for periprosthetic knee infection: Influence of host health status and infecting microorganism. *Knee*. 2013;20(1):9-18.
44. Van Thiel GS, Berend KR, Klein GR, Gordon AC, Lombardi AV, Della Valle CJ. Intraoperative molds to create an articulating spacer for the infected knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2011;469(4):994-1001.
45. Villanueva M, Rios A, Pereiro J, Chana F, Fahandez-Saddi H. Hand-made articulating spacers for infected total knee arthroplasty: a technical note. *Acta Orthop*. 2006;77(2):329-332.
46. Wilde AH, Ruth JT. Two-stage reimplantation in infected total knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1988;(236):23-35.
47. Cabrita HB, Croci AT, Camargo OP, Lima AL. Prospective study of the treatment of infected hip arthroplasties with or without the use of an antibiotic-loaded cement spacer. *Clinics (Sao Paulo)*. 2007;62(2):99-108.

48. D'Angelo F, Negri L, Binda T, Zatti G, Cherubino P. The use of a preformed spacer in two-stage revision of infected hip arthroplasties. *Musculoskelet Surg.* 2011;95(2):115-120.
49. D'Angelo F, Negri L, Zatti G, Grassi FA. Two-stage revision surgery to treat an infected hip implant. A comparison between a custom-made spacer and a pre-formed one. *Chir Organi Mov.* 2005;90(3):271-279.
50. Diwanji SR, Kong IK, Park YH, Cho SG, Song EK, Yoon TR. Two-stage reconstruction of infected hip joints. *J Arthroplasty.* 2008;23(5):656-661.
51. Durbhakula SM, Czajka J, Fuchs MD, Uhl RL. Spacer endoprosthesis for the treatment of infected total hip arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 2004;19(6):760-767.
52. Fei J, Liu GD, Yu HJ, Zhou YG, Wang Y. Antibiotic-impregnated cement spacer versus antibiotic irrigating metal spacer for infection management after THA. *Orthopedics.* 2011;34(3):172.
53. Fink B, Grossmann A, Fuerst M, Schafer P, Frommelt L. Two-stage cementless revision of infected hip endoprostheses. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2009;467(7):1848-1858.
54. Fleck EE, Spangehl MJ, Rapuri VR, Beauchamp CP. An articulating antibiotic spacer controls infection and improves pain and function in a degenerative septic hip. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2011;469(11):3055-3064.
55. Haddad FS, Muirhead-Allwood SK, Manktelow AR, Bacarese-Hamilton I. Two-stage uncemented revision hip arthroplasty for infection. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2000;82(5):689-694.
56. Hofmann AA, Goldberg TD, Tanner AM, Cook TM. Ten-year experience using an articulating antibiotic cement hip spacer for the treatment of chronically infected total hip. *J Arthroplasty.* 2005;20(7):874-879.
57. Hsieh PH, Shih CH, Chang YH, Lee MS, Shih HN, Yang WE. Two-stage revision hip arthroplasty for infection: comparison between the interim use of antibiotic-loaded cement beads and a spacer prosthesis. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2004;86-A(9):1989-1997.
58. Jahoda D, Sosna A, Landor I, Vavrik P, Pokorny D. A cannulated articulating spacer--a functional implant for treatment of infected hip joint prostheses. *Acta Chir Orthop Traumatol Cech.* 2004;71(2):73-79.
59. Kamath AF, Anakwenze O, Lee GC, Nelson CL. Staged custom, intramedullary antibiotic spacers for severe segmental bone loss in infected total hip arthroplasty. *Adv Orthop.* 2011:398954.
60. Masri BA, Panagiotopoulos KP, Greidanus NV, Garbuz DS, Duncan CP. Cementless two-stage exchange arthroplasty for infection after total hip arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 2007;22(1):72-78.
61. McKenna PB, O'Shea K, Masterson EL. Two-stage revision of infected hip arthroplasty using a shortened post-operative course of antibiotics. *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg.* 2009;129(4):489-494.
62. Morshed S, Huffman GR, Ries MD. Extended trochanteric osteotomy for 2-stage revision of infected total hip arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 2005;20(3):294-301.
63. Neumann DR, Hofstaedter T, List C, Dorn U. Two-stage cementless revision of late total hip arthroplasty infection using a premanufactured spacer. *J Arthroplasty.* 2012;27(7):1397-1401.
64. Romano CL, Romano D, Albisetti A, Meani E. Preformed antibiotic-loaded cement spacers for two-stage revision of infected total hip arthroplasty. Long-term results. *Hip Int.* 2012;22(Suppl 8):S46-53.
65. Romano CL, Romano D, Logoluso N, Meani E. Long-stem versus short-stem preformed antibiotic-loaded cement spacers for two-stage revision of infected total hip arthroplasty. *Hip Int.* 2010;20(1):26-33.
66. Romano CL, Romano D, Meani E, Logoluso N, Drago L. Two-stage revision surgery with preformed spacers and cementless implants for septic hip arthritis: a prospective, non-randomized cohort study. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2011;11:129.

67. Toulson C, Walcott-Sapp S, Hur J, et al. Treatment of infected total hip arthroplasty with a 2-stage reimplantation protocol: update on "our institution's" experience from 1989 to 2003. *J Arthroplasty*. 2009;24(7):1051-1060.
68. Wang L, Hu Y, Dai Z, Zhou J, Li M, Li K. Mid-term effectiveness of two-stage hip prosthesis revision in treatment of infection after hip arthroplasty. *Zhongguo Xiu Fu Chong Jian Wai Ke Za Zhi*. 2011;25(6):646-649.
69. Wei W, Kou BL, Ju RS, Lu HS. The second stage revision for infected total hip arthroplasty using antibiotic-loaded cement prosthesis. *Zhonghua Wai Ke Za Zhi*. 2007;45(4):246-248.
70. Younger AS, Duncan CP, Masri BA, McGraw RW. The outcome of two-stage arthroplasty using a custom-made interval spacer to treat the infected hip. *J Arthroplasty*. 1997;12(6):615-623.
71. Zou YG, Feng ZQ, Xing JS, Peng ZH, Luo X. Two-stage revision for treatment of periprosthetic infection following hip arthroplasty. *Nan Fang Yi Ke Da Xue Xue Bao*. 2011;31(4):690-693.
72. Babiak I. Application of individually performed acrylic cement spacers containing 5% of antibiotic in two-stage revision of hip and knee prosthesis due to infection. *Pol Orthop Traumatol*. 2012;77:29-37.
73. Babis GC, Zahos KA, Tsailas P, Karaliotas GI, Kanellakopoulou K, Soucacos PN. Treatment of stage III-A-1 and III-B-1 periprosthetic knee infection with two-stage exchange arthroplasty and articulating spacer. *J Surg Orthop Adv*. 2008;17(3):173-178.
74. Borowski M, Kusz D, Wojciechowski P, Cielinski L. Treatment for periprosthetic infection with two-stage revision arthroplasty with a gentamicin loaded spacer. The clinical outcomes. *Ortop Traumatol Rehabil*. 2012;14(1):41-54.
75. Cai P, Hu Y, Xie L, Wang L. Two-stage revision of infected total knee arthroplasty using antibiotic-impregnated articulating cement spacer. *Zhongguo Xiu Fu Chong Jian Wai Ke Za Zhi*. 2012;26(10):1169-1173.
76. Calton TF, Fehring TK, Griffin WL. Bone loss associated with the use of spacer blocks in infected total knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1997;(345):148-154.
77. Freeman MG, Fehring TK, Odum SM, Fehring K, Griffin WL, Mason JB. Functional advantage of articulating versus non-articulating spacers in 2-stage revision for total knee arthroplasty infection. *J Arthroplasty*. 2007;22(8):1116-1121.
78. Incavo SJ, Russell RD, Mathis KB, Adams H. Initial results of managing severe bone loss in infected total joint arthroplasty using customized articulating spacers. *J Arthroplasty*. 2009;24(4):607-613.
79. Kalore NV, Maheshwari A, Sharma A, Cheng E, Gioe TJ. Is there a preferred articulating spacer technique for infected knee arthroplasty? A preliminary study. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2012;470(1):228-235.
80. Nettrour JF, Polikandriotis JA, Bernasek TL, Gustke KA, Lyons ST. Articulating spacers for the treatment of infected total knee arthroplasty: effect of antibiotic combinations and concentrations. *Orthopedics*. 2013;36(1):e19-24.
81. Pietsch M, Wenisch C, Traussnig S, Trnoska R, Hofmann S. Temporary articulating spacer with antibiotic-impregnated cement for an infected knee endoprosthesis. *Orthopade*. 2003;32(6):490-497.
82. Souillac V, Costes S, Aunoble S, Langlois V, Dutronc H, Chauveaux D. Evaluation of an articulated spacer for two-stage reimplantation for infected total knee arthroplasty: 28 cases. *Rev Chir Orthop Reparatrice Appar Mot*. 2006;92(5):485-489.
83. Springer BD, Lee GC, Osmon D, Haidukewych GJ, Hanssen AD, Jacofsky DJ. Systemic safety of high-dose antibiotic-loaded cement spacers after resection of an infected total knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2004;(427):47-51.

84. Trezies A, Parish E, Dixon P, Cross M. The use of an articulating spacer in the management of infected total knee arthroplasties. *J Arthroplasty*. 2006;21(5):702-704.
85. Wan Z, Karim A, Momaya A, Incavo SJ, Mathis KB. Prefomed articulating knee spacers in 2-stage total knee revision arthroplasty: minimum 2-year follow-up. *J Arthroplasty*. 2012;27(8):1469-1473.
86. Anagnostakos K, Jung J, Kelm J, Schmitt E. Two-stage treatment protocol for isolated septic acetabular cup loosening. *Hip Int*. 2010;20(3):320-326.
87. Anagnostakos K, Kelm J, Schmitt E, Jung J. Fungal periprosthetic hip and knee joint infections clinical experience with a 2-stage treatment protocol. *J Arthroplasty*. 2012;27(2):293-298.
88. Ben-Lulu O, Farno A, Gross AE, Backstein DJ, Kosashvili Y, Safir OA. A modified cement spacer technique for infected total hip arthroplasties with significant bone loss. *J Arthroplasty*. 2012;27(4):613-619.
89. Berend KR, Lombardi AV Jr., Morris MJ, Bergeson AG, Adams JB, Sneller MA. Two-stage treatment of hip periprosthetic joint infection is associated with a high rate of infection control but high mortality. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2013;471(2):510-518.
90. Biring GS, Kostamo T, Garbuz DS, Masri BA, Duncan CP. Two-stage revision arthroplasty of the hip for infection using an interim articulated Prostalac hip spacer: a 10- to 15-year follow-up study. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 2009;91(11):1431-1437.
91. Dairaku K, Takagi M, Kawaji H, Sasaki K, Ishii M, Ogino T. Antibiotics-impregnated cement spacers in the first step of two-stage revision for infected totally replaced hip joints: report of ten trial cases. *J Orthop Sci*. 2009;14(6):704-710.
92. Degen RM, Davey JR, Howard JL, McCalden RW, Naudie DD. Does a prefabricated gentamicin-impregnated, load-bearing spacer control periprosthetic hip infection? *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2012;470(10):2724-2729.
93. Flores X, Corona PS, Cortina J, Guerra E, Amat C. Temporary cement tectoplasty: a technique to improve prefabricated hip spacer stability in two-stage surgery for infected hip arthroplasty. *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg*. 2012;132(5):719-724.
94. Gil Gonzalez S, Marques Lopez F, Rigol Ramon P, Mestre Cortadellas C, Caceres Palou E, Leon Garcia A. Two-stage revision of hip prosthesis infection using a hip spacer with stabilising proximal cementation. *Hip Int*. 2010;20 Suppl 7:128-134.
95. Hsieh PH, Chen LH, Chen CH, Lee MS, Yang WE, Shih CH. Two-stage revision hip arthroplasty for infection with a custom-made, antibiotic-loaded, cement prosthesis as an interim spacer. *J Trauma*. 2004;56(6):1247-1252.
96. Hsieh PH, Huang KC, Lee PC, Lee MS. Two-stage revision of infected hip arthroplasty using an antibiotic-loaded spacer: retrospective comparison between short-term and prolonged antibiotic therapy. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2009;64(2):392-397.
97. Hsieh PH, Huang KC, Tai CL. Liquid gentamicin in bone cement spacers: in vivo antibiotic release and systemic safety in two-stage revision of infected hip arthroplasty. *J Trauma*. 2009;66(3):804-808.
98. Hsieh PH, Shih CH, Chang YH, Lee MS, Yang WE, Shih HN. Treatment of deep infection of the hip associated with massive bone loss: two-stage revision with an antibiotic-loaded interim cement prosthesis followed by reconstruction with allograft. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 2005;87(6):770-775.
99. Jahoda D, Sosna A, Landor I, Vavrik P, Pokorny D, Hudec T. Two-stage reimplantation using spacers--the method of choice in treatment of hip joint prosthesis-related infections. Comparison with methods used from 1979 to 1998. *Acta Chir Orthop Traumatol Cech*. 2003;70(1):17-24.
100. Jung J, Schmid NV, Kelm J, Schmitt E, Anagnostakos K. Complications after spacer implantation in the treatment of hip joint infections. *Int J Med Sci*. 2009;6(5):265-273.

101. Kalra KP, Lin KK, Bozic KJ, Ries MD. Repeat 2-stage revision for recurrent infection of total hip arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty*. 2010;25(6):880-884.
102. Kent M, Rachha R, Sood M. A technique for the fabrication of a reinforced moulded articulating cement spacer in two-stage revision total hip arthroplasty. *Int Orthop*. 2010;34(7):949-953.
103. Koo KH, Yang JW, Cho SH, et al. Impregnation of vancomycin, gentamicin, and cefotaxime in a cement spacer for two-stage cementless reconstruction in infected total hip arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty*. 2001;16(7):882-892.
104. Leung F, Richards CJ, Garbuz DS, Masri BA, Duncan CP. Two-stage total hip arthroplasty: how often does it control methicillin-resistant infection? *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2011;469(4):1009-1015.
105. Leunig M, Chosa E, Speck M, Ganz R. A cement spacer for two-stage revision of infected implants of the hip joint. *Int Orthop*. 1998;22(4):209-214.
106. Liu XC, Zhou YG, Wang Y, et al. Antibiotic-loaded cement articulating spacer made by a self-made mold system in the treatment of the infected hip replacement. *Zhonghua Wai Ke Za Zhi*. 2010;48(14):1050-1054.
107. Magnan B, Regis D, Biscaglia R, Bartolozzi P. Prefomed acrylic bone cement spacer loaded with antibiotics: use of two-stage procedure in 10 patients because of infected hips after total replacement. *Acta Orthop Scand*. 2001;72(6):591-594.
108. Masri BA, Duncan CP, Beauchamp CP. Long-term elution of antibiotics from bone-cement: an in vivo study using the prosthesis of antibiotic-loaded acrylic cement (PROSTALAC) system. *J Arthroplasty*. 1998;13(3):331-338.
109. Mortazavi SM, O'Neil JT, Zmistowski B, Parvizi J, Purtill JJ. Repeat 2-stage exchange for infected total hip arthroplasty: a viable option? *J Arthroplasty*. 2012;27(6):923-926 e921.
110. Pattyn C, De Geest T, Ackerman P, Audenaert E. Prefomed gentamicin spacers in two-stage revision hip arthroplasty: functional results and complications. *Int Orthop*. 2011;35(10):1471-1476.
111. Peng KT, Hsu WH, Hsu RW. Improved antibiotic impregnated cement prosthesis for treating deep hip infection: a novel design using hip compression screw. *J Arthroplasty*. 2010;25(8):1304-1306.
112. Peng KT, Kuo LT, Hsu WH, Huang TW, Tsai YH. The effect of endoskeleton on antibiotic impregnated cement spacer for treating deep hip infection. *BMC Musculoskelet Disord*. 2011;12:10.
113. Pignatti G, Nitta S, Rani N, et al. Two stage hip revision in periprosthetic infection: results of 41 cases. *Open Orthop J*. 2010;4:193-200.
114. Regis D, Sandri A, Rizzo A, Bartolozzi P. A performed temporary antibiotic-loaded cement spacer for the treatment of destructive septic hip arthritis: a case report. *Int J Infect Dis*. 2010;14(3):e259-261.
115. Romano CL, Romano D, Logoluso N, Meani E. Septic versus aseptic hip revision: how different? *J Orthop Traumatol*. 2010;11(3):167-174.
116. Stockley I, Mockford BJ, Hoad-Reddick A, Norman P. The use of two-stage exchange arthroplasty with depot antibiotics in the absence of long-term antibiotic therapy in infected total hip replacement. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 2008;90(2):145-148.
117. Takahira N, Itoman M, Higashi K, Uchiyama K, Miyabe M, Naruse K. Treatment outcome of two-stage revision total hip arthroplasty for infected hip arthroplasty using antibiotic-impregnated cement spacer. *J Orthop Sci*. 2003;8(1):26-31.
118. Takigami I, Ito Y, Ishimaru D, et al. Two-stage revision surgery for hip prosthesis infection using antibiotic-loaded porous hydroxyapatite blocks. *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg*. 2010;130(10):1221-1226.

119. Whittaker JP, Warren RE, Jones RS, Gregson PA. Is prolonged systemic antibiotic treatment essential in two-stage revision hip replacement for chronic Gram-positive infection? *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2009;91(1):44-51.
120. Yamamoto K, Miyagawa N, Masaoka T, Katori Y, Shishido T, Imakiire A. Clinical effectiveness of antibiotic-impregnated cement spacers for the treatment of infected implants of the hip joint. *J Orthop Sci.* 2003;8(6):823-828.
121. Fink B, Vogt S, Reinsch M, Buchner H. Sufficient release of antibiotic by a spacer 6 weeks after implantation in two-stage revision of infected hip prostheses. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2011;469(11):3141-3147.
122. McLaren AC, McLaren SG, Hickmon MK. Sucrose, xylitol, and erythritol increase PMMA permeability for depot antibiotics. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2007;461:60-63.
123. Garcia-Oltra E, Bori G, Tomas X, Gallart X, Garcia S, Soriano A. Radiological evaluation of acetabular erosion after antibiotic-impregnated polymethylmethacrylate spacer (spacer-g). *J Arthroplasty.* 2013;28(6):1021-1024.
124. Kühn KD. Antibiotic loaded bone cements- antibiotic release and influence on mechanical properties. In: Walenkamp G, ed. *Local Antibiotics in Arthroplasty*: Thieme; 2007.
125. Masri BA, Duncan CP, Beauchamp CP. The modified two staged exchange arthroplasty in the treatment of infected total knee replacement: The Prostalac system and other articulated spacers. In: Engh GA, Rorabeck CH, eds. *Revision Total Knee Arthroplasty*. Vol 13. 1998/05/20 ed. Baltimore: Willams & Wilkins; 1997:394-424.
126. Bertazzoni Minelli E, Benini A, Magnan B, Bartolozzi P. Release of gentamicin and vancomycin from temporary human hip spacers in two-stage revision of infected arthroplasty. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2004;53(2):329-334.
127. Frommelt L. Properties of bone cement: antibiotic loaded cement. *The Well-Cemented Total Hip Arthroplasty, Part II*. Berlin: Springer; 2006:86-92.
128. Frommelt L. Antibiotic choices in bone surgery- local therapy using antibiotic loaded bone cement. In: Walenkamp G, ed. *Local Antibiotics in Arthroplasty*: Thieme; 2007.
129. Frommelt L. Local antibiotic therapy. *Septic Bone and Joint Surgery*: Thieme; 2010:78-83.
130. Meyer J, Piller G, Spiegel CA, Hetzel S, Squire M. Vacuum-mixing significantly changes antibiotic elution characteristics of commercially available antibiotic-impregnated bone cements. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2011;93(22):2049-2056.
131. McLaren AC, McLaren SG, Smeltzer M. Xylitol and glycine fillers increase permeability of PMMA to enhance elution of daptomycin. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2006;(451):25-28.
132. McLaren AC, Nelson CL, McLaren SG, De CGR. The effect of glycine filler on the elution rate of gentamicin from acrylic bone cement: a pilot study. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2004;(427):25-27.
133. McLaren AC, Nelson CL, McLaren SG, Wassell DL. Phenolphthalein used to assess permeability of antibiotic-laden polymethylmethacrylate: a pilot study. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2005;(439):48-51.
134. Amin TJ, Lamping JW, Hendricks KJ, McIlff TE. Increasing the elution of vancomycin from high-dose antibiotic-loaded bone cement: a novel preparation technique. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2012;94(21):1946-1951.

Workgroup 10: Irrigation and Debridement

Liaison:

Carl Haasper MD, PhD, MSc

Leaders:

Martin Buttarò MD (International), William Hozack MD (US)

Delegates:

Craig A Aboltins MD, Olivier Borens MD, JJ Callaghan MD, Pedro Ivo de Carvalho MD, Yuhan Chang MD, Pablo Corona MD, Ferdinando Da Rin MD, Silvano Esposito MD, Thomas K Fehring MD, Xavier Flores Sanchez MD, Gwo-Chin Lee MD, JC Martinez-Pastor MD, SM Javad Mortazavi MD, Nicolas O Noiseux MD, Kuo-Ti Peng MD, Harold Delano Schutte MD, Daniel Schweitzer MD, Rihard Trebše MD, Eleftherios Tsiridis MD, Leo Whiteside MD

Question 1A: When can irrigation and debridement (I&D) be considered?

Consensus: I&D may be performed for early postoperative infections that occur within 3 months of index primary arthroplasty with less than 3 weeks of symptoms.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 84%, Disagree: 13%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Question 1B: Can irrigation and debridement (I&D) be considered for late hematogenous infections?

Consensus: I&D may be performed for patients with late hematogenous infection that occurred within 3 weeks of an inciting event or with symptoms not longer than 3 weeks.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 88%, Disagree: 9%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: I&D is a viable option to consider for patients with early postoperative or late hematogenous infections.¹ The rate of success of I&D has been stated to be between 0 to 89%.² What is known is that this procedure, performed for early infections or late hematogenous infections, has a higher success rate in healthier patients, infections with low virulence organisms, and in patients with short period of symptoms.^{1,3-25} If I&D is to be attempted, it is imperative to ensure that the prostheses are well-fixed and well-positioned and there is a good soft tissue envelope to cover the prosthesis.

Question 2: What are the contraindications for I&D?

Consensus: The inability to close a wound or the presence of a sinus tract are absolute contraindications to performing an I&D and retention of the prosthesis. Another absolute contraindication is the presence of a loose prostheses.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 95%, Disagree: 4%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: The inability to close a wound is an absolute contraindication for retention of the prosthesis. An open wound allows for contamination and colonization of the prosthesis and will result in a chronic infection. Other relative contraindications include infection with highly virulent organisms such as methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA)^{25,26} or polymicrobial infections²⁷ (often as a result of the presence of a sinus) and in patients with extensive comorbidities, in particular those with immunocompromised status.^{13,28} Marculescu et al. found that the presence of a sinus tract leads to an odds ratio of 2.84 for failure of I&D.²⁹

Question 3A: When performing an I&D for hematoma after TKA, should the deep fascia be opened?

Consensus: The fascia/arthrotomy should always be opened in patients with total knee arthroplasty (TKA) and hematoma formation.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 87%, Disagree: 8%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Question 3B: When performing an I&D for hematoma after THA, should the deep fascia be opened?

Consensus: Aspiration of the joint, either prior to surgery or at the time of I&D, should be performed. For patients with a clear fascial defect or hematoma/fluid deep to the fascia confirmed by aspiration, the fascia should be opened.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 87%, Disagree: 9%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There is little to no guidance in the literature about what should be done when a surgeon encounters a draining wound and/or hematoma formation.^{18,30} Although superficial hematoma formation is not infrequent, the consequences of missing a deep hematoma or infection in a patient with a prosthesis can be dire.¹⁵ Thus, it is the opinion of this consensus group that appropriate investigations should be performed to evaluate whether a presenting hematoma is superficial or if it extends to deeper layers. The fascia should be opened and the

deeper hematoma evacuated in patients in whom there is a blood or fluid collection deeper in the fascia. I&D is a different procedure compared to reoperation done for evacuation of a hematoma.

Question 4: How should I&D be performed for PJI?

Consensus: An I&D of a prosthetic joint needs to be performed meticulously and according to the detailed protocol provided. Briefly this includes:

- Preoperative optimization of the patient
- Good visualization and thorough debridement
- Obtaining multiple culture samples
- Copious irrigation (6 to 9 L) of the joint
- Explantation of the prosthesis if indicated.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 90%, Disagree: 6%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: The joint should be opened via the previously mentioned access under aseptic conditions.³⁰ Brush and wash all surfaces with an antiseptic solution. Copious irrigation using low-pressure pulse lavage or bulb irrigation should be performed. Reports in trauma surgery have raised concern regarding the use of high pressure lavage, which may spread the infection deeper.^{31,32}

Question 5: Should the modular part always be exchanged during I&D?

Consensus: Yes. All modular components should be removed and exchanged, if possible, during I&D.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 92%, Disagree: 8%, Abstain: 0% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There is little evidence in the literature regarding the role of exchanging modular components. Although this practice results in added expenses, prolongs the surgery, and could potentially result in increased morbidity, in our opinion it is necessary in order to allow access to parts of the joint that otherwise could not be accessed without removing the modular components. The latter is particularly true for TKA. Access to the posterior capsule to perform extensive debridement is not possible without removal of the tibial polyethylene. In addition, removal of the modular components allows for removal of “slime” from the undersurface of such components leading to better reduction of biofilm. We therefore believe it is advisable to remove and exchange modular components (if possible) in all patients undergoing I&D.^{1,6,7,11,13,17,25,26,30,33,34}

Although removal of polyethylene is absolutely necessary for thorough debridement, reinsertion of a “sterilized” component may also be reasonable. In a study by Laffer et al.³⁵ the polyethylene modular component was removed and washed with antiseptic during I&D of TKA. The authors suggest that this may be a reasonable option to exchange of components, which carries additional cost.

Question 6: Do useful classification systems (such as the Tsukayama classification) exist that may guide a surgeon in deciding on the appropriateness of an I&D?

Consensus: The available classification system is inadequate in guiding a surgeon in selecting the appropriate surgical intervention for management of early PJI. There is a need for further studies to identify risk factors for failure of I&D in patients with acute PJI.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 84%, Disagree: 5%, Abstain: 11% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There are numerous classification systems for PJI. The Tsukayama classification has been used as a rough guide and basis for selection of surgical treatment.^{17,36} It defines an early infection as one that occurs within one month of index arthroplasty and any infection beyond this point as late. Acute hematogenous infection is also included in this classification system. The Zimmerli/Trampuz classification defines an early infection as one that occurs within 3 months of index surgery. Infections with onset between 3 to 24 months are delayed infections and those occurring >24 months after index arthroplasty are classified as late.²³ These classification systems are useful in that they provide a description for pathogenesis, with the

theory being that early infections may be the result of seeding during surgery, whereas late infections are likely acquired by hematogenous spread. Another classification proposed by Senneville et al. relies mostly on the duration of symptoms and places less emphasis on the timing of index arthroplasty. Based on this classification, acute infection is one with less than one month of symptoms and any infection with greater than one month of symptom are considered late.³⁷ Less than 4 weeks of symptoms is quite common according to Garvin et al.^{17,38,39} The classification proposed by McPherson considers criteria other than timing such as host factors and micro-organism factors, and looks at periods of less than 3 weeks.⁴⁰ Recent data suggest that the success of prosthesis retention depends on many factors other than the time at which infection occurs.^{41,42} Thus, the decision to perform an I&D for a patient with infection must take into account many other parameters including the host type, the virulence of the infecting organism, and status of the soft tissues. Biofilm is the key factor for success or failure using irrigation and debridement.^{30,43} Only with further research may we be able to identify factors that influence the outcome of surgical intervention for PJI in general and I&D in particular.

Question 7: Is I&D an emergency procedure or can the patient be optimized prior to the procedure?

Consensus: No. I&D is not an emergency procedure in a patient without generalized sepsis. All efforts should be made to optimize the patients prior to surgical intervention.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 92%, Disagree: 6%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Although many believe that a patient presenting with an acute infection should undergo surgery as soon as possible, there is no evidence to suggest that any delay in surgical intervention adversely affects the outcome. What is known is that patients with medical comorbidities that are not controlled may be at risk for medical complications, some of which could prove to be fatal. In addition, subjecting a patient to I&D without addressing an underlying coagulopathy that could be the result of administration of anticoagulants can result in the development of a further hematoma with all its adverse effects. Thus, it is critical that conditions such as uncontrolled hyperglycemia (>180 mg/ml), severe anemia (Hb<10 mg/dL), coagulopathy, and other reversible conditions are addressed prior to subjecting a patient to I&D.

The nutritional status of any patient undergoing reoperation should also be checked and provisions implemented to reverse malnutrition, if present.

Question 8: Does arthroscopy have a role in I&D?

Consensus: Arthroscopy has no role in I&D of an infected prosthetic joint.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 91%, Disagree: 7%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There are some published studies demonstrating that the outcome of I&D is markedly worse when debridement was performed using arthroscopy.^{6,35,44} As mentioned above, one of the main factors determining the success of surgical intervention for treatment of PJI is the ability to perform thorough debridement and reduce bioburden. Using arthroscopy the surgeon is not able to access all compartments and parts of the joint; therefore, thorough debridement is unlikely to be performed. However, there may be a diagnostic role for arthroscopy in knee arthroplasty.

Question 9: How many I&Ds are reasonable before implant removal is considered?

Consensus: Following failure of one I&D, the surgeon should give consideration to implant removal.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 94%, Disagree: 6%, Abstain: 0% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Although surgical intervention needs to be individualized for each patient, it is unlikely that multiple I&D procedures can serve a patient well in the long run. If several attempts at I&D fail to control infection in a patient, consideration should be given to implant removal.^{13,45} Mont et al. found it reasonable to perform multiple debridements in their series of 24 acute TKA infections.⁴⁶ On the other hand, failure of a single I&D procedure is recommended to be a consideration for implant removal.⁴⁷ Another study found that a need for a second debridement is an independent risk factor for failure of treatment.¹⁹ In the absence of conclusive evidence,

we recommend that no multiple I&D procedures should be performed in patients with acute PJI. However there is evidence to perform multiple I&Ds within a specific protocol.

Question 10: Should culture samples be taken during I&D? If so how many and from where?

Consensus: Representative tissue and fluid samples, between 3 to 6, from the periprosthetic region should be taken during I&D.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 98%, Disagree: 2%, Abstain: 0% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Despite attempts, distinction between benign hematoma and acute infection may not always be possible. Thus, during I&D of a joint, tissue or fluid samples should be sent for microbiological examination. The information obtained from culture can then be used to determine the course of treatment for the patient. Five to 6 samples should be taken from areas that macroscopically appear most clinically infected to the surgeon. These should include the superficial, deep, and periprosthetic layers and the interfaces between modular components. If definitive components are removed, the bone/prosthetic interface should also be sampled. The samples should be submitted for aerobic and anaerobic culture.⁴⁸ Some authors have shown that antibiotic prophylaxis at the time of induction does not alter the results of the microbiological cultures obtained during the surgery and should not be withheld.⁴⁹

Question 11: Should extended antibiotic treatment be given to patients following I&D? If so, what are the indications, type of antibiotic, dose and duration of treatment?

Consensus: No. Extended antibiotic should only be administered to patients that meet the criteria for PJI (see workgroup 7). The type, dose and duration of antibiotic treatment for infected cases should be determined in consultation with an ID specialist.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 75%, Disagree: 20%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Patients subjected to I&D should be worked up appropriately for infection, including ordering erythrocyte sedimentation rate, C-reactive protein, aspiration of the joint (either prior to or during surgery), and culture. These investigations allow the treating medical team to determine if there is high likelihood of PJI. For patients in who have a high suspicion for PJI, extended antibiotic treatment should be administered. For others with normal serological and synovial parameters and no evidence of active infection during surgery, antibiotic therapy may not be indicated.

Question 12: Is there a role for intra-articular local antibiotic treatment after I&D? If so, define indications.

Consensus: No. There is inadequate evidence to support administration of continuous intra-articular antibiotics for the treatment of PJI.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 89%, Disagree: 7%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Although the concept of administering continuous intra-articular antibiotic appears logical in that it allows higher local concentrations of antibiotics, this procedure requires further evaluation. The practice of continuous intra-articular antibiotic administration was introduced by Whiteside et al. and has been shown to be successful in a case series.⁵⁰ No multivariate analyses have been performed to demonstrate that the practice of intraarticular administration of antibiotics is an independent factor enhancing success. It is likely that a combination of factors such as meticulous surgical debridement may explain the high success rate that was observed in that case series.^{4,51} There are some potential risks associated with this practice, including drug reactions, added expense, need for an additional surgery (to remove the Hickman catheter), and possibly development of antibiotic resistance. The use of continuous intra-articular antibiotics for the treatment of chronic infection, with a reported success rate of 94%, also deserves further evaluation⁵⁰ Those and other case series need to be further evaluated.^{52,53}

Question 13: Is there a role for the use of resorbable antibiotic-impregnated pellets (calcium sulfate, etc)? If so, define indications for use.

Consensus: No. Currently there is no conclusive evidence that the use of antibiotic-impregnated resorbable material improves the outcome of surgical intervention for I&D.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 88%, Disagree: 6%, Abstain: 6% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: A number of case series have evaluated the role of antibiotic-impregnated resorbable material for treatment of PJI. Although initial reports of these series have been encouraging, there are no randomized, controlled studies to demonstrate that the use of these materials enhances the outcome of surgical intervention.⁵³ In one study evaluating the outcome of I&D in 34 patients in whom resorbable gentamicin was utilized, a success rate of 73% was described which appears to not be much higher than what one would expect with conventional I&D.⁵⁴

The use of resorbable material is not without problems. Besides the cost, which depending on the material can be substantial, local reaction to the resorbable material has been described.

Calcium sulphate pellets have been shown to increase wound exudates.^{55,56} A possible cytotoxic effect of these material has also been described. Newer material such as nanoparticle hydroxyapatite have been described.⁵⁷ Future studies are desperately needed to evaluate the role of resorbable antibiotic-impregnated material, as currently no concrete evidence exists that could support their use.

References:

1. Odum SM, Fehring TK, Lombardi AV, et al. Irrigation and debridement for periprosthetic infections: does the organism matter? *J Arthroplasty*. 2011;26(6 Suppl):114-118.
2. Romano CL, Manzi G, Logoluso N, Romano D. Value of debridement and irrigation for the treatment of peri-prosthetic infections. A systematic review. *Hip Int*. 2012;22(Suppl 8):S19-24.
3. Aboltins CA, Page MA, Buising KL, et al. Treatment of staphylococcal prosthetic joint infections with debridement, prosthesis retention and oral rifampicin and fusidic acid. *Clin Microbiol Infect*. 2007;13(6):586-591.
4. Berdal JE, Skramm I, Mowinckel P, Gulbrandsen P, Bjornholt JV. Use of rifampicin and ciprofloxacin combination therapy after surgical debridement in the treatment of early manifestation prosthetic joint infections. *Clin Microbiol Infect*. 2005;11(10):843-845.
5. Burger RR, Basch T, Hopson CN. Implant salvage in infected total knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1991;(273):105-112.

6. Byren I, Bejon P, Atkins BL, et al. One hundred and twelve infected arthroplasties treated with 'DAIR' (debridement, antibiotics and implant retention): antibiotic duration and outcome. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2009;63(6):1264-1271.
7. Giulieri SG, Graber P, Ochsner PE, Zimmerli W. Management of infection associated with total hip arthroplasty according to a treatment algorithm. *Infection.* 2004;32(4):222-228.
8. Hartman MB, Fehring TK, Jordan L, Norton HJ. Periprosthetic knee sepsis. The role of irrigation and debridement. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1991;(273):113-118.
9. Klouche S, Lhotellier L, Mamoudy P. Infected total hip arthroplasty treated by an irrigation-debridement/component retention protocol. A prospective study in a 12-case series with minimum 2 years' follow-up. *Orthop Traumatol Surg Res.* 2011;97(2):134-138.
10. Kotwal SY, Farid YR, Patil SS, Alden KJ, Finn HA. Intramedullary rod and cement static spacer construct in chronically infected total knee arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 2012;27(2):253-259 e254.
11. Koyonos L, Zmistowski B, Della Valle CJ, Parvizi J. Infection control rate of irrigation and debridement for periprosthetic joint infection. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2011;469(11):3043-3048.
12. Legout L, Stern R, Assal M, et al. Suction drainage culture as a guide to effectively treat musculoskeletal infection. *Scand J Infect Dis.* 2006;38(5):341-345.
13. Lora-Tamayo J, Murillo O, Iribarren JA, et al. A large multicenter study of methicillin-susceptible and methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* prosthetic joint infections managed with implant retention. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2013;56(2):182-194.
14. Martinez-Pastor JC, Munoz-Mahamud E, Vilchez F, et al. Outcome of acute prosthetic joint infections due to gram-negative bacilli treated with open debridement and retention of the prosthesis. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2009;53(11):4772-4777.
15. Segawa H, Tsukayama DT, Kyle RF, Becker DA, Gustilo RB. Infection after total knee arthroplasty. A retrospective study of the treatment of eighty-one infections. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1999;81(10):1434-1445.
16. Trebse R, Pisot V, Trampuz A. Treatment of infected retained implants. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2005;87(2):249-256.
17. Tsukayama DT, Estrada R, Gustilo RB. Infection after total hip arthroplasty. A study of the treatment of one hundred and six infections. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1996;78(4):512-523.
18. Van Kleunen JP, Knox D, Garino JP, Lee GC. Irrigation and debridement and prosthesis retention for treating acute periprosthetic infections. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2010;468(8):2024-2028.
19. Vilchez F, Martinez-Pastor JC, Garcia-Ramiro S, et al. Outcome and predictors of treatment failure in early post-surgical prosthetic joint infections due to *Staphylococcus aureus* treated with debridement. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2011;17(3):439-444.
20. Vilchez F, Martinez-Pastor JC, Garcia-Ramiro S, et al. Efficacy of debridement in hematogenous and early post-surgical prosthetic joint infections. *Int J Artif Organs.* 2011;34(9):863-869.
21. Widmer AF, Gaechter A, Ochsner PE, Zimmerli W. Antimicrobial treatment of orthopedic implant-related infections with rifampin combinations. *Clin Infect Dis.* 1992;14(6):1251-1253.
22. Zimmerli W, Ochsner PE. Management of infection associated with prosthetic joints. *Infection.* 2003;31(2):99-108.
23. Zimmerli W, Trampuz A, Ochsner PE. Prosthetic-joint infections. *N Engl J Med.* 2004;351(16):1645-1654.
24. Zimmerli W, Widmer AF, Blatter M, Frei R, Ochsner PE. Role of rifampin for treatment of orthopedic implant-related staphylococcal infections: a randomized controlled trial. Foreign-Body Infection (FBI) Study Group. *JAMA.* 1998;279(19):1537-1541.
25. Zmistowski B, Fedorka CJ, Sheehan E, Deirmengian G, Austin MS, Parvizi J. Prosthetic joint infection caused by gram-negative organisms. *J Arthroplasty.* 2013;26(6 Suppl):104-108.

26. Buller LT, Sabry FY, Easton RW, Klika AK, Barsoum WK. The preoperative prediction of success following irrigation and debridement with polyethylene exchange for hip and knee prosthetic joint infections. *J Arthroplasty*. 2012;27(6):857-864 e851-854.
27. Westberg M, Groggaard B, Snorrason F. Early prosthetic joint infections treated with debridement and implant retention: 38 primary hip arthroplasties prospectively recorded and followed for median 4 years. *Acta Orthop*. 2012;83(3):227-232.
28. Peel TN, Cheng AC, Choong PF, Buising KL. Early onset prosthetic hip and knee joint infection: treatment and outcomes in Victoria, Australia. *J Hosp Infect*. 2012;82(4):248-253.
29. Marculescu CE, Berbari EF, Hanssen AD, et al. Outcome of prosthetic joint infections treated with debridement and retention of components. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2006;42(4):471-478.
30. Schwechter EM, Folk D, Varshney AK, Fries BC, Kim SJ, Hirsh DM. Optimal irrigation and debridement of infected joint implants: an in vitro methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* biofilm model. *J Arthroplasty*. 2011;26(6 Suppl):109-113.
31. Kalteis T, Lehn N, Schroder HJ, et al. Contaminant seeding in bone by different irrigation methods: an experimental study. *J Orthop Trauma*. 2005;19(9):591-596.
32. Munoz-Mahamud E, Garcia S, Bori G, et al. Comparison of a low-pressure and a high-pressure pulsatile lavage during debridement for orthopaedic implant infection. *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg*. 2011;131(9):1233-1238.
33. Engesaeter LB, Dale H, Schrama JC, Hallan G, Lie SA. Surgical procedures in the treatment of 784 infected THAs reported to the Norwegian Arthroplasty Register. *Acta Orthop*. 2011;82(5):530-537.
34. Sukeik M, Patel S, Haddad FS. Aggressive early debridement for treatment of acutely infected cemented total hip arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2012;470(11):3164-3170.
35. Laffer RR, Graber P, Ochsner PE, Zimmerli W. Outcome of prosthetic knee-associated infection: evaluation of 40 consecutive episodes at a single centre. *Clin Microbiol Infect*. 2006;12(5):433-439.
36. Osmon DR, Berbari EF, Berendt AR, et al. Diagnosis and management of prosthetic joint infection: clinical practice guidelines by the Infectious Diseases Society of America. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2013;56(1):e1-e25.
37. Senneville E, Joulie D, Legout L, et al. Outcome and predictors of treatment failure in total hip/knee prosthetic joint infections due to *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2009;53(4):334-340.
38. Garvin KL, Hanssen AD. Infection after total hip arthroplasty. Past, present, and future. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 1995;77(10):1576-1588.
39. Garvin KL, Konigsberg BS. Infection following total knee arthroplasty: prevention and management. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2011;93(12):1167-1175.
40. McPherson EJ, Woodson C, Holtom P, Roidis N, Shufelt C, Patzakis M. Periprosthetic total hip infection: outcomes using a staging system. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2002;(403):8-15.
41. Bradbury T, Fehring TK, Taunton M, et al. The fate of acute methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* periprosthetic knee infections treated by open debridement and retention of components. *J Arthroplasty*. 2009;24(6 Suppl):101-104.
42. Fehring TK, Odum SM, Berend KR, et al. Failure of irrigation and debridement for early postoperative periprosthetic infection. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2013;471(1):250-257.
43. Zimmerli W, Moser C. Pathogenesis and treatment concepts of orthopaedic biofilm infections. *FEMS Immunol Med Microbiol*. 2012;65(2):158-168.
44. Waldman BJ, Hostin E, Mont MA, Hungerford DS. Infected total knee arthroplasty treated by arthroscopic irrigation and debridement. *J Arthroplasty*. 2000;15(4):430-436.
45. Peel TN, Buising KL, Dowsey MM, et al. Outcome of debridement and retention in prosthetic joint infections by methicillin-resistant staphylococci, with special reference to rifampin and fusidic acid combination therapy. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2013;57(1):350-355.

46. Mont MA, Waldman B, Banerjee C, Pacheco IH, Hungerford DS. Multiple irrigation, debridement, and retention of components in infected total knee arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty*. 1997;12(4):426-433.
47. Sherrell JC, Fehring TK, Odum S, et al. The Chitranjan Ranawat Award: fate of two-stage reimplantation after failed irrigation and debridement for periprosthetic knee infection. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2012;469(1):18-25.
48. Atkins BL, Athanasou N, Deeks JJ, et al. Prospective evaluation of criteria for microbiological diagnosis of prosthetic-joint infection at revision arthroplasty. The OSIRIS Collaborative Study Group. *J Clin Microbiol*. 1998;36(10):2932-2939.
49. Ghanem E, Parvizi J, Clohisy J, Burnett S, Sharkey PF, Barrack R. Perioperative antibiotics should not be withheld in proven cases of periprosthetic infection. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2007;461:44-47.
50. Whiteside LA, Nayfeh TA, LaZear R, Roy ME. Reinfected revised TKA resolves with an aggressive protocol and antibiotic infusion. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2012;470(1):236-243.
51. Fukagawa S, Matsuda S, Miura H, Okazaki K, Tashiro Y, Iwamoto Y. High-dose antibiotic infusion for infected knee prosthesis without implant removal. *J Orthop Sci*. 2010;15(4):470-476.
52. Estes CS, Beauchamp CP, Clarke HD, Spangehl MJ. A two-stage retention debridement protocol for acute periprosthetic joint infections. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2010;468(8):2029-2038.
53. Tintle SM, Forsberg JA, Potter BK, Islinger RB, Andersen RC. Prosthesis retention, serial debridement, and antibiotic bead use for the treatment of infection following total joint arthroplasty. *Orthopedics*. 2009;32(2):87.
54. Kuiper JW, Brohet RM, Wassink S, van den Bekerom MP, Nolte PA, Vergroesen DA. Implantation of resorbable gentamicin sponges in addition to irrigation and debridement in 34 patients with infection complicating total hip arthroplasty. *Hip Int*. 2013;23(2):173-180.
55. McGlothlan KR, Gosmanova EO. A case report of acute interstitial nephritis associated with antibiotic-impregnated orthopedic bone-cement spacer. *Tenn Med*. 2012;105(9):37-40, 42.
56. Nelson CL, McLaren SG, Skinner RA, Smeltzer MS, Thomas JR, Olsen KM. The treatment of experimental osteomyelitis by surgical debridement and the implantation of calcium sulfate tobramycin pellets. *J Orthop Res*. 2002;20(4):643-647.
57. Rauschmann MA, Wichelhaus TA, Stirnal V, et al. Nanocrystalline hydroxyapatite and calcium sulphate as biodegradable composite carrier material for local delivery of antibiotics in bone infections. *Biomaterials*. 2005;26(15):2677-2684.

Workgroup 11: Antibiotic Treatment and Timing of Reimplantation

Liaison:

Camilo Restrepo MD

Leaders:

Steven Schmitt MD (US), David Backstein MD (International)

Delegates:

Bryan T Alexander PharmD, Maja Babic MD, Barry D. Brause MD, John L Esterhai MD, Robert P. Good MD, Peter H Jørgensen MD, Paul Lee MB, BCh, FRCS, Camelia Marculescu MD, Claudio Mella MD, Carsten Perka MD, Aidin Eslam Pour MD, Harry E Rubash MD, Tomoyuki Saito MD, Rolando Suarez MD, Robert Townsend MD, I Remzi Tözün MD, Michel PJ Van den Bekerom MD

Question 1: Can oral antibiotic therapy be used instead of intravenous for the initial treatment of periprosthetic joint infection (PJI) following resection?

Consensus: There is evidence to support pathogen-specific, highly bioavailable oral antibiotic therapy as a choice for the treatment of PJI.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 79%, Disagree: 11%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: PJI is traditionally treated with intravenous (IV) antibiotics in order to obtain the minimum inhibitory concentration in the shortest time possible. Once this goal is met and there is clinical evidence of improvement, some IV antibiotic regimens can be switched to oral regimens. There is scarce literature reporting on the use of oral (combined or single) antibiotic therapy for the treatment of PJIs without an initial IV regimen.¹⁻⁵ Most of these studies were conducted in cases where the prosthesis was retained. There is one study in which no oral or prolonged IV regimen was used after debridement and the use of an antibiotic-impregnated cement spacers led to a 87% eradication rate.⁶ No literature conclusively supports the use of only oral (combined or single) antibiotic therapy prior to reimplantation. The recently-published guidelines of the Infectious Diseases Society of America (IDSA)⁷ suggest that pathogen-specific, highly bioavailable oral therapy (e.g. linezolid or fluoroquinolones) may be an alternative as initial therapy for some cases of PJI. Concerns against the routine use of appropriate oral agents in the treatment of PJI largely comprise questions of patient medication compliance and the long-term use of medication therapy with less intensive efficacy and toxicity monitoring.

Question 2: Is oral antibiotic therapy appropriate after an initial IV antibiotic course?

Consensus: There is evidence that pathogen-specific, highly bioavailable oral antibiotic therapy is an appropriate choice for the treatment of PJI after an initial IV antibiotic regimen.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 98%, Disagree: 1%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: An IV antibiotic regimen is preferred in order to obtain the ideal plasma concentration in the shortest time possible. Switching to oral regimens, if possible, lowers the financial burden on patients and payers, reduces the risks of vascular access, and increases the

possibility of home-based therapy. Most studies use a protocol of 4 to 6 weeks of IV antibiotics followed by 2 to 4 weeks of an oral regimen,⁸⁻¹⁰ although some studies use the IV regimen alone. A recent study with only 14 days of an IV regimen followed by 6 to 8 weeks of oral therapy showed no relapse.¹¹ We support the use of oral antibiotic therapy after an initial course of IV antibiotics for sensitive pathogens.

Question 3: What is the ideal length of antibiotic treatment following removal of the infected implant?

Consensus: There is no conclusive evidence regarding the ideal duration of antibiotic therapy. However, we recommend a period of antibiotic therapy between 2 to 6 weeks.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 93%, Disagree: 5%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: The ideal duration of antibiotic therapy (IV alone or combined IV and oral) is not known. Decreasing the time of antibiotic regimens reduces cost and development of resistance and complications inherent to a single or combined therapy.⁸⁻¹⁶ Most of the literature recommends antibiotic therapy with duration between 6 and 12 weeks. A prospective non-randomized study by Bernard et al.¹⁷ concludes that 6 weeks of antibiotic treatment (with one week of an IV antibiotic regimen) was sufficient to control infection, but this study includes groups of patients treated with irrigation and debridement (I&D), single-stage exchange arthroplasty, and two-stage exchange arthroplasty. Other investigators have suggested a shorter parenteral course; Stockley et al.⁶ used a non-oral and non-prolonged regimen (2 weeks of IV) after debridement and placement of an antibiotic-impregnated cement spacer, with an 87% eradication rate.

Question 4: How should the length of antibiotic treatment be determined? (Inflammatory markers, clinical signs, etc).

Consensus: There is no conclusive evidence on how to determine the length of antibiotic therapy. A combination of clinical signs and symptoms and biochemical markers may be employed. There is the need for a marker that can determine the optimal timing for reimplantation.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 96%, Disagree: 3%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Improvement of clinical signs has been used as a proxy for control of infection while antibiotics are administered. Unfortunately, improved clinical signs during antibiotic therapy alone do not reliably predict eradication of infection or determine the length of antibiotic therapy. For this reason, progressive sequential decreases in the values of inflammatory markers, namely erythrocyte sedimentation rate and C-reactive protein, have been used as an adjunct along with improvement in clinical signs to determine the ideal time for termination of antibiotic therapy and for reimplantation.¹⁸⁻²³ In addition, no ideal cut-off value has been determined for these inflammatory markers to predict the ideal time for discontinuation of antibiotic treatment or for reimplantation.^{19,24} Further large-scale studies are needed to validate and determine the parameters of use of new inflammatory markers such as pro-calcitonin,²⁵ leukocyte esterase,²⁶⁻²⁸ IL-6, and others.²⁹

Question 5: Should there be an antibiotic holiday period prior to reimplantation?

Consensus: There is no conclusive evidence supporting a holiday period following discontinuation of antibiotic treatment and prior to reimplantation surgery as a means of ensuring eradication of infection.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 74%, Disagree: 22%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Although Bejon et al.³⁰ did not find evidence to support the clinical utility of an antibiotic-free period, this was a retrospective analysis published before the new definition of PJI from the Musculoskeletal Infection Society workgroup³¹⁻³³ was available. In practice, improvement of clinical signs is frequently used as a proxy for infection control and effective antibiotic therapy. However, these improved clinical signs may persist only while such antibiotic therapy is in place and it is desirable to identify persistence of infection before reimplantation. For these reasons, some practitioners feel that, a holiday period of antibiotics prior to reimplantation opens the opportunity for ongoing observation, where stability or clinical improvement could indicate eradication of the infection while deterioration might indicate recurrence. No evidence conclusively supports the need for an ideal length of such a holiday period.

Question 6: Does the use of rifampin in conjunction with IV antibiotic therapy following removal of the infected implant lead to a more rapid and definitive eradication of staphylococcal infection (particularly methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* [MRSA])?

Consensus: There is no evidence to support the use of rifampin in conjunction with IV antibiotic therapy as a more adequate treatment option than either agent used alone following implant removal.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 77%, Disagree: 18%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There is adequate evidence to support the use of rifampin in combination with other antibiotics for the treatment of staphylococcal PJI, especially in the setting of retained hardware.^{1, 34, 35} Evidence supporting its use when infected hardware has been removed is less convincing. Rifampin is not to be used as monotherapy due to its low barrier for development of resistance.³⁶ The limitations to mandatory use of rifampin include significant drug interactions and adverse effects. Rifampin stains most bodily secretions orange, causes gastrointestinal intolerance, hepatotoxicity, and other less common adverse effects.³⁷ It is a significant hepatic enzyme inducer, and as such, increases the metabolism of many important and common drug classes, such as other antibiotics and antifungals, anticoagulants (including warfarin and the oral direct thrombin inhibitors), and immunosuppressants.³⁸

Question 7: What is the optimal time to start rifampin treatment?

Consensus: There is no conclusive evidence regarding the best time to start rifampin treatment. Good oral intake and adequate administration of a primary antimicrobial agent should be well-established before starting rifampin. Potential side effects and drug interactions should be addressed prior to the start and at the conclusion of therapy.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 83%, Disagree: 11%, Abstain: 6% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There are no studies that address the ideal time to start rifampin therapy. Rapid emergence of rifampin resistance has occurred in the rare case where bacteremia is present.³⁹ Given the potential for development of resistance, it appears prudent to withhold rifampin until

bacteremia has cleared and/or primary antibiotic therapy has reached adequate tissue concentrations. One study suggests, in univariate analysis that the presence of a sinus tract or prolonged wound drainage may increase the risk of rifampin resistance.⁴⁰ This association was not confirmed on multivariate analysis. As a significant hepatic enzyme inducer, it is important to account for drug interactions both at the initiation and the conclusion of rifampin therapy. Rifampin activity against any isolated pathogen should also be verified around the time of therapy initiation.

Question 8: How long should antibiotic treatment be given following a single-stage exchange arthroplasty performed for PJI?

Consensus: There is no conclusive evidence regarding the ideal duration of antibiotic therapy for a single-stage exchange arthroplasty. We recommend that parenteral antibiotic be given for 2 to 6 weeks following single-stage exchange arthroplasty, with consideration for longer-term oral antibiotic therapy.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 87%, Disagree: 10%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Single-stage exchange arthroplasty for PJI has the advantage of being only one major procedure, thus decreasing cost and the risk of complications that could arise from multiple surgeries.^{1, 34, 35} No evidence is available regarding the ideal length of antibiotic therapy.^{12, 41-43} Bernard et al.¹⁷ concluded that 6 weeks of antibiotic treatment (with one week of an IV antibiotic regimen) was sufficient to control infection; however, this study included I&D and two-stage exchange arthroplasty as well. The recently published guidelines of the IDSA⁷ recommend 2 to 6 weeks of pathogen-specific IV antimicrobial therapy in combination with oral rifampin, followed by 3 months of oral rifampin and ciprofloxacin or levofloxacin for staphylococcal PJI treated with single-stage arthroplasty. For organisms other than staphylococci, the IDSA guidelines recommend an initial course of IV therapy for 4 to 6 weeks. Though many practitioners employ it, there is no unanimous recommendation regarding chronic suppressive oral antibiotic therapy in this setting.

Question 9: Is there a role for intra-articular local antibiotic treatment after reimplantation? If so, what are the indications?

Consensus: There is no conclusive evidence to support the use of intra-articular local antibiotic therapy. Further evidence is needed to support the use of intra-articular local antibiotic therapy.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 95%, Disagree: 4%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Studies by Whiteside et al.^{44, 45} suggested good results when using intra-articular antibiotic therapy. However, these series were small in size, retrospective, and described the same cohorts. In addition, the studies did not utilize multivariate analyses to isolate intra-articular antibiotic therapy as an independent factor that improves the outcome of surgical intervention.

Question 10: What is the optimal antibiotic treatment for culture-negative PJI?

Consensus: There is no conclusive evidence on the optimal antibiotic treatment for patients with culture-negative PJI. We recommend a broad spectrum antibiotic regimen covering gram-negative and gram-positive organisms (including MRSA) as well as anaerobic organisms. In patients with suspected fungal infection, coverage against common fungi should be considered.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 91%, Disagree: 8%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: The incidence of culture-negative PJI varies from 3 to 35%. Prior publications have demonstrated great success with control of infection in patients with culture-negative PJI, suggesting that culture negativity may not be a negative predictor of failure.⁴⁶ In terms of antibiotic selection, a study evaluating control of infection in PJI treated surgically with two-stage exchange arthroplasty demonstrated no difference between culture-negative patients treated with vancomycin postoperatively and culture-positive patients.⁴⁷ A survey of infectious disease physician preference for antibiotic choices for PJI lists combinations of vancomycin and either ceftriaxone or a fluoroquinolone as the preferred antibiotic regimen for treatment of culture-negative PJI of the lower extremity.⁴⁸

Question 11: Is joint aspiration necessary prior to reimplantation?

Consensus: There is no conclusive evidence to support mandatory joint aspiration prior to reimplantation. It may be useful in selected cases. We recommend against infiltration of any liquids into the affected joint and reaspiration in patients with an initial dry aspirate.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 89%, Disagree: 8%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Currently there is no metric by which one can determine the optimal timing of reimplantation or in fact determine if PJI has been eradicated or controlled. Joint aspiration prior to reimplantation may provide useful information regarding the infection status of the joint. If synovial fluid parameters are abnormal (threshold to be determined) then the treating surgeon may decide to delay the reimplantation or subject the patient to further treatment after reimplantation.^{19, 49-51} This suggestion is limited by the fact that there may be minimal fluid present in patients with a cement spacer in place, with a dry aspiration frequent. There is also the potential of obtaining peri-articular fluid instead of true articular fluid. There is no evidence that infiltration of saline or sterile fluid into the joint and reaspiration increases the yield of pathogens in culture and no evidence that lavage of the joint has any role in isolation of the infecting organism. Other parameters of synovial fluid analysis, such as white cell count and neutrophil differential, cannot be relied on when lavage fluid is being analyzed.

References:

1. Farhad R, Roger PM, Albert C, et al. Six weeks antibiotic therapy for all bone infections: results of a cohort study. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis.* 2010;29(2):217-222.
2. Gomez J, Canovas E, Banos V, et al. Linezolid plus rifampin as a salvage therapy in prosthetic joint infections treated without removing the implant. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2011;55(9):4308-4310.
3. Peel TN, Busing KL, Dowsey MM, et al. Outcome of debridement and retention in prosthetic joint infections by methicillin-resistant staphylococci, with special reference to rifampin and fusidic acid combination therapy. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2013;57(1):350-355.
4. Toma MB, Smith KM, Martin CA, Rapp RP. Pharmacokinetic considerations in the treatment of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* osteomyelitis. *Orthopedics.* 2006;29(6):497-501.
5. Trampuz A, Zimmerli W. Antimicrobial agents in orthopaedic surgery: Prophylaxis and treatment. *Drugs.* 2006;66(8):1089-1105.
6. Stockley I, Mockford BJ, Hoad-Reddick A, Norman P. The use of two-stage exchange arthroplasty with depot antibiotics in the absence of long-term antibiotic therapy in infected total hip replacement. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2008;90(2):145-148.
7. Osmon DR, Berbari EF, Berendt AR, et al. Diagnosis and management of prosthetic joint infection: clinical practice guidelines by the Infectious Diseases Society of America. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2013;56(1):e1-e25.

8. Bertazzoni Minelli E, Caveiari C, Benini A. Release of antibiotics from polymethylmethacrylate cement. *J Chemother.* 2002;14(5):492-500.
9. Dubee V, Zeller V, Lhotellier L, et al. Continuous high-dose vancomycin combination therapy for methicillin-resistant staphylococcal prosthetic hip infection: a prospective cohort study. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2013;19(2):E98-105.
10. Masri BA, Panagiotopoulos KP, Greidanus NV, Garbuz DS, Duncan CP. Cementless two-stage exchange arthroplasty for infection after total hip arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 2007;22(1):72-78.
11. Darley ES, Bannister GC, Blom AW, Macgowan AP, Jacobson SK, Alfouzan W. Role of early intravenous to oral antibiotic switch therapy in the management of prosthetic hip infection treated with one- or two-stage replacement. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2011;66(10):2405-2408.
12. Esposito S, Esposito I, Leone S. Considerations of antibiotic therapy duration in community- and hospital-acquired bacterial infections. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2012;67(11):2570-2575.
13. Hsieh PH, Shih CH, Chang YH, Lee MS, Shih HN, Yang WE. Two-stage revision hip arthroplasty for infection: comparison between the interim use of antibiotic-loaded cement beads and a spacer prosthesis. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2004;86-A(9):1989-1997.
14. McKenna PB, O'Shea K, Masterson EL. Two-stage revision of infected hip arthroplasty using a shortened post-operative course of antibiotics. *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg.* 2009;129(4):489-494.
15. Senthil S, Munro JT, Pitto RP. Infection in total hip replacement: meta-analysis. *Int Orthop.* 2011;35(2):253-260.
16. Whittaker JP, Warren RE, Jones RS, Gregson PA. Is prolonged systemic antibiotic treatment essential in two-stage revision hip replacement for chronic Gram-positive infection? *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2009;91(1):44-51.
17. Bernard L, Legout L, Zurcher-Pfund L, et al. Six weeks of antibiotic treatment is sufficient following surgery for septic arthroplasty. *J Infect.* 2010;61(2):125-132.
18. Glassman AH, Lachiewicz PF, Tanzer M, eds. *Orthopaedic Knowledge Update 4: Hip and Knee Reconstruction.* 4th ed: American Academy of Orthopaedics; 2011.
19. Kusuma SK, Ward J, Jacofsky M, Sporer SM, Della Valle CJ. What is the role of serological testing between stages of two-stage reconstruction of the infected prosthetic knee? *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2011;469(4):1002-1008.
20. Larsson S, Thelander U, Friberg S. C-reactive protein (CRP) levels after elective orthopedic surgery. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1992(275):237-242.
21. Schinsky MF, Della Valle CJ, Sporer SM, Paprosky WG. Perioperative testing for joint infection in patients undergoing revision total hip arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2008;90(9):1869-1875.
22. Shukla SK, Ward JP, Jacofsky MC, Sporer SM, Paprosky WG, Della Valle CJ. Perioperative testing for persistent sepsis following resection arthroplasty of the hip for periprosthetic infection. *J Arthroplasty.* 2010;25(6 Suppl):87-91.
23. Spangehl MJ, Masri BA, O'Connell JX, Duncan CP. Prospective analysis of preoperative and intraoperative investigations for the diagnosis of infection at the sites of two hundred and two revision total hip arthroplasties. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1999;81(5):672-683.
24. Ghanem E, Antoci V, Jr., Pulido L, Joshi A, Hozack W, Parvizi J. The use of receiver operating characteristics analysis in determining erythrocyte sedimentation rate and C-reactive protein levels in diagnosing periprosthetic infection prior to revision total hip arthroplasty. *Int J Infect Dis.* 2009;13(6):e444-449.
25. Pundiche M, Sarbu V, Unc OD, et al. [Role of procalcitonin in monitoring the antibiotic therapy in septic surgical patients]. *Chirurgia (Bucur).* 2012;107(1):71-78.
26. Jacovides CL, Parvizi J, Adeli B, Jung KA. Molecular markers for diagnosis of periprosthetic joint infection. *J Arthroplasty.* 2011;26(6 Suppl):99-103 e101.

27. Parvizi J, Jacovides C, Antoci V, Ghanem E. Diagnosis of periprosthetic joint infection: the utility of a simple yet unappreciated enzyme. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2012;93(24):2242-2248.
28. Parvizi J, Walinchus L, Adeli B. Molecular diagnostics in periprosthetic joint infection. *Int J Artif Organs.* 2011;34(9):847-855.
29. Deirmengian C, Hallab N, Tarabishy A, et al. Synovial fluid biomarkers for periprosthetic infection. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2010;468(8):2017-2023.
30. Bejon P, Berendt A, Atkins BL, et al. Two-stage revision for prosthetic joint infection: predictors of outcome and the role of reimplantation microbiology. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2010;65(3):569-575.
31. Hozack WJ, Parvizi J. New definition for periprosthetic joint infection. *J Arthroplasty.* 2011;26(8):1135.
32. Parvizi J. New definition for periprosthetic joint infection. *Am J Orthop (Belle Mead NJ).* 2011;40(12):614-615.
33. 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(11):2992-2994.
34. Esposito S, Leone S, Bassetti M, et al. Italian guidelines for the diagnosis and infectious disease management of osteomyelitis and prosthetic joint infections in adults. *Infection.* 2009;37(6):478-496.
35. Zimmerli W, Widmer AF, Blatter M, Frei R, Ochsner PE. Role of rifampin for treatment of orthopedic implant-related staphylococcal infections: a randomized controlled trial. Foreign-Body Infection (FBI) Study Group. *JAMA.* 20 1998;279(19):1537-1541.
36. Zimmerli W, Trampuz A, Ochsner PE. Prosthetic-joint infections. *N Engl J Med.* 2004;351(16):1645-1654.
37. San Juan R, Garcia-Reyne A, Caba P, et al. Safety and efficacy of moxifloxacin monotherapy for treatment of orthopedic implant-related staphylococcal infections. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2010;54(12):5161-5166.
38. Forrest GN, Tamura K. Rifampin combination therapy for nonmycobacterial infections. *Clin Microbiol Rev.* 2010;23(1):14-34.
39. Lai CC, Tan CK, Lin SH, Liao CH, Huang YT, Hsueh PR. Emergence of rifampicin resistance during rifampicin-containing treatment in elderly patients with persistent methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* bacteremia. *J Am Geriatr Soc.* 2010;58(5):1001-1003.
40. Achermann Y, Eigenmann K, Ledergerber B, et al. Factors associated with rifampin resistance in staphylococcal periprosthetic joint infections (PJI): a matched case-control study. *Infection.* 2013;41(2):431-437.
41. Rudelli S, Uip D, Honda E, Lima AL. One-stage revision of infected total hip arthroplasty with bone graft. *J Arthroplasty.* 2008;23(8):1165-1177.
42. Winkler H, Stoiber A, Kaudela K, Winter F, Menschik F. One stage uncemented revision of infected total hip replacement using cancellous allograft bone impregnated with antibiotics. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2008;90(12):1580-1584.
43. Yoo JJ, Kwon YS, Koo KH, Yoon KS, Kim YM, Kim HJ. One-stage cementless revision arthroplasty for infected hip replacements. *Int Orthop.* 2009;33(5):1195-1201.
44. Whiteside LA, Nayfeh TA, LaZear R, Roy ME. Reinfected revised TKA resolves with an aggressive protocol and antibiotic infusion. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2012;470(1):236-243.
45. Whiteside LA, Peppers M, Nayfeh TA, Roy ME. Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in TKA treated with revision and direct intra-articular antibiotic infusion. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2011;469(1):26-33.
46. Choi HR, Kwon YM, Freiberg AA, Nelson SB, Malchau H. Periprosthetic joint infection with negative culture results: clinical characteristics and treatment outcome. *J Arthroplasty.* 2013;28(6):899-903.

47. Huang R, Hu CC, Adeli B, Mortazavi J, Parvizi J. Culture-negative periprosthetic joint infection does not preclude infection control. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2012;470(10):2717-2723.
48. Marschall J, Lane MA, Beekmann SE, Polgreen PM, Babcock HM. Current management of prosthetic joint infections in adults: results of an Emerging Infections Network survey. *Int J Antimicrob Agents.* 2013;41(3):272-277.
49. Ghanem E, Azzam K, Seeley M, Joshi A, Parvizi J. Staged revision for knee arthroplasty infection: what is the role of serologic tests before reimplantation? *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2009;467(7):1699-1705.
50. Lonner JH, Siliski JM, Della Valle C, DiCesare P, Lotke PA. Role of knee aspiration after resection of the infected total knee arthroplasty. *Am J Orthop (Belle Mead NJ).* 2001;30(4):305-309.
51. Mont MA, Waldman BJ, Hungerford DS. Evaluation of preoperative cultures before second-stage reimplantation of a total knee prosthesis complicated by infection. A comparison-group study. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2000;82-A(11):1552-1557.

Workgroup 12: One-stage vs Two-stage Exchange

Liaison:

Paul Lichstein MD, MS

Leaders:

Thorsten Gehrke MD (International), Adolph Lombardi MD, FACS (US), Carlo Romano MD (International), Ian Stockley MB, ChB, MD, FRCS (International)

Delegates:

George Babis MD, Jerzy Bialecki MD, László Bucsi MD, Xu Cai MD, Li Cao MD, Brian de Beaubien MD, Johannes Erhardt MD, Stuart Goodman MD, PhD, FRCS, FACS, FBSE, William Jiranek MD, Peter Keogh, David Lewallen MD, MS, Paul Manner MD, Wojciech Marczyński MD, J. Bohannon Mason MD, Kevin Mulhall MB, MCh, FRCSI, Wayne Paprosky MD, Preetesh Patel MD, Francisco Piccaluga MD, Gregory Polkowski MD, Luis Pulido MD, Ian Stockley MBBS, ChB, FRCS, Juan Suarez MD, Fritz Thorey MD, Rashid Tikhilov MD, Job Diego Velazquez MD, Heinz Winkler MD

Exchange arthroplasty surgery for infection, be it a one stage or two-stage surgery is not for the occasional operator. The morbidity and mortality associated with such surgery is not to be ignored. Team work is paramount to the success of the surgery. A multidisciplinary approach with microbiologists, infectious disease physicians, critical care anaesthetists, plastic surgeons and orthopaedic surgeons with a particular interest in infection are essential.

Question 1: What are the indications and contraindications for one-stage exchange arthroplasty?

Consensus: One stage-exchange arthroplasty is a reasonable option for the treatment of periprosthetic joint infection (PJI) in circumstances where effective antibiotics are available but not in patients with systemic manifestations of infection (sepsis) in whom resection arthroplasty and reduction of bioburden may be necessary. Relative contraindications to performing a one-stage exchange may include lack of identification of an organism preoperatively, the presence of a sinus tract or severe soft tissue involvement that may lead to the need for flap coverage.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 78%, Disagree: 17%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Currently, there are no randomized clinical trials (RCTs) that provide concrete indications or contraindications for one-stage exchange arthroplasty over two-stage exchange arthroplasty. There is little data supporting the use of one-stage exchange outside of total hip arthroplasty (THA) or without antibiotic-impregnated cement or bone graft.¹⁻¹⁰

Systemic infection with sepsis are definitive contraindications. In clinical scenarios involving an acutely decompensated patient with PJI as the probable source of sepsis, timely administration of appropriate wide spectrum antibiotics and prompt removal of all implants with thorough debridement is essential. Reimplantation of a prosthesis should be delayed until adequate resuscitation and eradication of the offending organism has been completed.^{4, 7, 10-18}

Although there are reports of effectively treating PJI involving resistant organisms and/or a sinus tract with a one-stage exchange procedure, such cases are generally managed with two-stage procedures, as the presence of a sinus tract may contaminate pre-operative cultures and inhibit

the prerequisite identification of the offending organism. In the case of culture-negative PJI, one-stage exchange arthroplasty may also be contraindicated.^{4, 7, 10, 11, 14, 16-33}

Viable soft tissues affording adequate coverage for the new prosthesis are essential when undertaking one-stage revision arthroplasty and surgeons able to perform flaps and proper soft tissue coverage need to be available at the time of one-stage arthroplasty. If soft tissue coverage cannot be performed at the time of one-stage exchange arthroplasty, two-stage surgery should be considered.^{7, 17, 18}

Question 2: What are the indications for two-stage exchange arthroplasty?

Consensus: Two stage-exchange arthroplasty is a reasonable option for the treatment of periprosthetic joint infection (PJI). Specific conditions where two-stage exchange may be indicated over one-stage exchange include: 1) patients with systemic manifestations of infection (sepsis); 2) the scenario where infection appears obvious but no organism has been identified; 3) preoperative cultures identifying difficult to treat and antibiotic-resistant organisms; 4) presence of a sinus tract, 5) inadequate and non-viable soft tissue coverage.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 93%, Disagree: 7%, Abstain: 0% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Currently, two-stage exchange arthroplasty surgery is the most popular surgical regime for the surgical management of PJI in North America and some other countries. However, to date no RCTs that provide absolute indications or contraindications for two-stage exchange arthroplasty.^{4, 7, 17, 18}

Although there is variability in the reported rates of success in eradicating infection, a possible increased morbidity and mortality, and variable time periods prior to reimplantation, direct comparisons with one-stage exchange arthroplasty are difficult due to a patient selection bias in the current literature.^{7, 9, 17, 34} However, in a recent systematic review, however, Romano et al. demonstrated that a two-stage exchange provides, on average, a better outcome with respect to the control of infection in the knee.³⁵ The same group recently presented similar findings for the hip, although the difference in infection control was less.³⁶

Systemic infection and/or sepsis are indications for two-stage exchange where timely administration of appropriate antibiotics and prompt removal of implants with thorough debridement of the soft tissues are needed to address the life-threatening sequelae of PJI.

The immunocompromised patient or the presence of medical comorbidities, including metastatic disease, advanced cardiac disease, and renal and/or liver dysfunction, have been shown to impact on the infection eradication success rates and certainly influence morbidity and mortality, it is unknown if the presence of these comorbidities constitute a contraindication for one-stage exchange arthroplasty surgery^{7, 14, 17, 18, 32, 34}

The presence of compromised soft tissues that may limit adequate implant coverage is an indication for two-stage exchange arthroplasty. The use of tissue expanders, development of musculocutaneous flaps, and possibly need for repeat debridement may all be indicated and require further time between initial resection and reimplantation.^{7, 17, 18, 32}

Question 3: What is the optimal interval between two stages?

Consensus: There is no definitive evidence in the literature as to the optimal time interval between the two stages. Reports vary from 2 weeks to several months.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 87%, Disagree: 9%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There should be ample time to complete antibiotic administration, eradicate infection, repeat the debridement if necessary, and allow for adequate soft tissue preparation in the event of compromised soft tissue coverage.

Positive results have been experienced in situations where implantation is conducted within 2-6 weeks of resection, the infecting pathogen is not resistant, and systemic antibiotic administration is ongoing.^{7, 18}

Intravenous (IV) antibiotic therapy lasting 4 to 6 weeks with subsequent cessation of antibiotics for 2 to 8 weeks prior to reimplantation is most commonly employed in the United States and has yielded positive results.^{7, 37-40}

Some evidence suggests time intervals greater than 6 months result in suboptimal results in restoring patient function and eradicating infection. Patients who underwent two-stage exchange with greater than 6 months between resection and reimplantation experienced no improvement in function when compared to those who were reimplanted within 6 months of resection.⁴¹

The need for serologic evaluation, synovial fluid analysis, and culture of joint fluid aspirate prior to reimplantation is unclear. Erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR) and C-reactive protein (CRP) are poorly predictive of persistent PJI and studies were unable to define optimal cutoff values for ESR and CRP. A change in value from those conducted at the time of resection was a helpful indicator though.^{17, 42-45}

Question 4: Is there a difference in cost between one-stage and two-stage exchange arthroplasty?

Consensus: Due to the lack of knowledge about the real costs and the absence of comparative studies we are not able to give a clear statement. If, however, infection is effectively treated without the need for reoperation, one-stage exchange arthroplasty is less expensive than two-stage exchange. Further studies are required.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 91%, Disagree: 5%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: The economic impact of PJI is immense; therefore, developing and utilizing cost-effective and efficient surgical treatment strategies that provide satisfactory restoration of function and resolution of pain and guard against recurrence are essential.⁴⁶⁻⁴⁸

Differences in cost between one-stage and two-stage exchange arthroplasty are not straightforward to analyze. Costs may vary due to factors associated with hospital facilities, patients, surgeons, and the infecting organism. There is no definitive evidence that takes into account all factors contributing to overall expenditures.^{4, 46, 47, 49-51}

The direct monetary cost of PJI treatment utilizing one-stage versus two-stage arthroplasty varies greatly. However, it may generally be accepted that patient morbidity, operative time, operating room utilization, hospital and surgeon fees, and duration of antibiotic administration are less when undergoing one procedure versus a minimum of two major procedures.^{4, 7, 46, 49-51}

A cost analysis by Klouche et al. revealed that two-stage revision of septic THA cost 1.7 times more than a one-stage revision.⁵²

However, if the results of one-stage and two-stage exchange arthroplasty are comparable, one-stage may be preferred due to the advantages of decreased patient morbidity, lower cost, improved mechanical stability of the affected limb, and shorter period of disability.^{30, 53}

Reinfection rates may be higher when employing a one-stage exchange arthroplasty as compared to a two-stage. However, the cost of additional diagnostic tests and clinical evaluation, coupled with possible reoperation, an analysis that takes into consideration quality-adjusted life years highlights the efficacy of a single-stage revision.⁵⁴ A Markov expected-utility analysis by Wolf et al. favored a one-stage exchange over two-stage exchange when taking into account the health endpoints of quality-adjusted life years.⁵⁴ Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA)-associated PJI has emerged as difficult and expensive to effectively eradicate, and is associated with greater expense. Some authorities, but not all, believe that two-stage exchange may be the preferred treatment for PJI caused by highly virulent organisms and may incur lower total costs.^{31, 55, 56}

Question 5: How many exchange arthroplasty should be attempted in patients with PJI?

Consensus: There is no definitive evidence that supports limiting the number of septic exchanges that should be attempted. Reimplantation is appropriate if the infection is adequately controlled following repeat resection, the patient is able to tolerate additional surgery, and such surgery will allow for a functioning joint with adequate soft tissue coverage.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 98%, Disagree: 2%, Abstain: 0% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Key factors for the consideration of two-stage exchange are the causative organism, duration and extent of infection, patient willingness and medical fitness to undergo such surgery, and adequate bone stock and viable soft tissues capable of facilitating adequate reconstruction.

Reimplantation is feasible if the infection is adequately controlled following repeat resection.^{17, 31, 55, 57, 58}

The success rate of subsequent two-stage exchange is often favorable but may be lower than with the first attempt.^{3, 7, 17, 57-63}

Patients with resistant organisms including MRSA and Enterococcal PJI experienced higher rates of salvage surgery (definitive resection, fusion, or amputation) and should be counseled regarding possible outcomes.^{1, 23, 25}

Involvement of the tibial tuberosity may be an indicator of possible functional failure of two-stage exchange in the knee. Arthrodesis in the event of severely compromised extensor musculature may be required.²⁸

Question 6: What are the indications for knee arthrodesis?

Consensus: The literature is deficient in providing guidance on this issue. Knee arthrodesis may be an appropriate option for patients who have had failed multiple attempts at reconstruction and stand an unacceptably high risk of recurrent infection with repeat arthroplasty procedures and / or has a deficient extensor mechanism. The choice between arthrodesis and amputation needs to take into account the clinical situation of the individual and patient preference.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 96%, Disagree: 1%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Pain and instability in a joint that is not amenable to reconstruction, with or without prior failed exchange arthroplasty and carries an unacceptably high risk of recurrent infection with further arthroplasty surgery, will likely require knee arthrodesis.^{7, 9, 18, 25, 43, 55, 56, 59, 60, 64, 65}

Polymicrobial infections or those due to highly-resistant organisms for which there is no effective antimicrobial therapy are more prone to repeatedly failed attempts at exchange arthroplasty and so may also benefit from knee arthrodesis.^{2, 7, 18, 25, 56, 66}

Severe immunocompromization inhibits both infection eradication and wound healing and so may be prohibitive for staged exchange, thus favoring a salvage procedure.^{7, 17, 18}

Active IV drug abuse may be a contraindication to repeat attempts at staged exchange and may also indicate the need for a salvage procedure.⁷

Contraindications might apply to non-ambulatory patients or those with extensive medical comorbidity that precludes multiple surgeries.^{2, 7, 17, 18}

Question 7: If knee arthrodesis is planned for a chronically infected joint, should this be performed in a single stage or two stages?

Consensus: Knee arthrodesis may be performed as one stage or two stage, but the decision depends on the individual circumstances and the host factors.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 94%, Disagree: 3%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Surgical debridement of the infected tissues is a critical factor for success of any surgical procedures for treatment of PJI, in particular arthrodesis of the knee. Thus, inability to perform adequate debridement in one operation should prompt the surgeon to consider two-stage arthrodesis of the knee.

In considering one-stage versus two-stage arthrodesis of the knee, other factors may also be considered. Extensive bone loss associated with chronic infection has been shown to decrease the rate of successful arthrodesis and a two-stage approach may allow for comprehensive treatment of defects following aggressive debridement.^{2, 65, 67-70} Reinfection is uncommon following arthrodesis of the knee performed for PJI. However, infections due to polymicrobial or resistant organisms have a higher propensity for recurrence of infection and failure when treated with a one-stage exchange arthroplasty protocol.^{2, 4, 7, 11-18, 40, 71-74} Eradication of infection prior to arthrodesis provides higher fusion rates and allows an expanded armamentarium for fixation, such as the use of intramedullary and plating devices.^{2, 73, 75-80}

One-stage arthrodesis, using external fixation device, is successful when conducted in cases of PJI caused by low-virulence organisms and minimal soft tissue compromise^{2, 18, 25, 65, 78, 81, 82}

Question 8: What are the indications for amputation?

Consensus: Amputation for treatment of PJI affecting the knee or the hip may be appropriate in selected cases involving a non-ambulatory patient, necrotizing fasciitis resistant to aggressive debridement, severe bone loss that precludes arthrodesis (knee), inadequate soft tissue coverage, and multiple failed attempts at staged exchange and resection arthroplasty, or peripheral vascular disease and neurovascular injury.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 98%, Disagree: 1%, Abstain: 1% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Salvage of a failed total joint arthroplasty in the setting of infection with recalcitrant necrotizing fasciitis, resistant organisms, failed arthrodesis, and bone loss is difficult and may not respond to further attempts at reconstruction.^{2, 7, 17, 18, 25, 56, 59, 83, 84} Amputation above the knee results in suboptimal functional outcomes and should be reserved for non-ambulatory patients unless other indications are present and all attempts at infection eradication have failed.^{3, 84, 85} Except in emergency cases, referral to a center with specialist experience in the management of PJI is advised before amputation is carried out, due to high mortality rates.^{45, 84, 85} Other indications not directly related to PJI include periprosthetic fracture, peripheral vascular disease, pain, or neuropathy.^{2, 84}

Other salvage operations for management of recalcitrant hip infection include excisional arthroplasty that is performed by some surgeons. Although functional outcome in these patients may not be optimal, excision arthroplasty can be very successful in the control of infection and allow for assisted ambulation.⁸⁶

References:

1. Casanova D, Hulard O, Zalta R, Bardot J, Magalon G. Management of wounds of exposed or infected knee prostheses. *Scand J Plast Reconstr Surg Hand Surg.* 2001;35(1):71-77.
2. Conway JD, Mont MA, Bezwada HP. Arthrodesis of the knee. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2004;86-A(4):835-848.
3. Hanssen AD, Trousdale RT, Osmon DR. Patient outcome with reinfection following reimplantation for the infected total knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1995(321):55-67.
4. Jackson WO, Schmalzried TP. Limited role of direct exchange arthroplasty in the treatment of infected total hip replacements. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2000(381):101-105.
5. Jansen E, Sheng P, Halonen P, et al. Spacer prostheses in two-stage revision of infected knee arthroplasty. *Int Orthop.* 2006;30(4):257-261.

6. Nahabedian MY, Orlando JC, Delanois RE, Mont MA, Hungerford DS. Salvage procedures for complex soft tissue defects of the knee. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1998(356):119-124.
7. Osmon DR, Berbari EF, Berendt AR, et al. Executive summary: diagnosis and management of prosthetic joint infection: clinical practice guidelines by the Infectious Diseases Society of America. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2013;56(1):1-10.
8. Parkinson RW, Kay PR, Rawal A. A case for one-stage revision in infected total knee arthroplasty? *Knee.* 2011;18(1):1-4.
9. Senthil S, Munro JT, Pitto RP. Infection in total hip replacement: meta-analysis. *Int Orthop.* 2011;35(2):253-260.
10. Winkler H, Stoiber A, Kaudela K, Winter F, Menschik F. One stage uncemented revision of infected total hip replacement using cancellous allograft bone impregnated with antibiotics. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2008;90(12):1580-1584.
11. Buechel FF, Femino FP, D'Alessio J. Primary exchange revision arthroplasty for infected total knee replacement: a long-term study. *Am J Orthop (Belle Mead NJ).* 2004;33(4):190-198; discussion 198.
12. Callaghan JJ, Katz RP, Johnston RC. One-stage revision surgery of the infected hip. A minimum 10-year followup study. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1999(369):139-143.
13. Cordero-Ampuero J, Esteban J, Garcia-Cimbrello E, Munuera L, Escobar R. Low relapse with oral antibiotics and two-stage exchange for late arthroplasty infections in 40 patients after 2-9 years. *Acta Orthop.* 2007;78(4):511-519.
14. Engesaeter LB, Dale H, Schrama JC, Hallan G, Lie SA. Surgical procedures in the treatment of 784 infected THAs reported to the Norwegian Arthroplasty Register. *Acta Orthop.* 2011;82(5):530-537.
15. Goksan SB, Freeman MA. One-stage reimplantation for infected total knee arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1992;74(1):78-82.
16. Kurd MF, Ghanem E, Steinbrecher J, Parvizi J. Two-stage exchange knee arthroplasty: does resistance of the infecting organism influence the outcome? *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2010;468(8):2060-2066.
17. Parvizi J, Adeli B, Zmistowski B, Restrepo C, Greenwald AS. Management of periprosthetic joint infection: the current knowledge: AAOS exhibit selection. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2012;94(14):e104.
18. Zimmerli W, Trampuz A, Ochsner PE. Prosthetic-joint infections. *N Engl J Med.* 2004;351(16):1645-1654.
19. Buchholz HW, Elson RA, Engelbrecht E, Lodenkamper H, Rottger J, Siegel A. Management of deep infection of total hip replacement. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1981;63-B(3):342-353.
20. Cordero-Ampuero J, Esteban J, Garcia-Cimbrello E. Oral antibiotics are effective for highly resistant hip arthroplasty infections. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2009;467(9):2335-2342.
21. Deirmengian C, Greenbaum J, Stern J, et al. Open debridement of acute gram-positive infections after total knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2003(416):129-134.
22. Huang R, Hu CC, Adeli B, Mortazavi J, Parvizi J. Culture-negative periprosthetic joint infection does not preclude infection control. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2012;470(10):2717-2723.
23. Leung F, Richards CJ, Garbuz DS, Masri BA, Duncan CP. Two-stage total hip arthroplasty: how often does it control methicillin-resistant infection? *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2011;469(4):1009-1015.
24. Mortazavi SM, Vegari D, Ho A, Zmistowski B, Parvizi J. Two-stage exchange arthroplasty for infected total knee arthroplasty: predictors of failure. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2011;469(11):3049-3054.

25. Rasouli MR, Tripathi MS, Kenyon R, Wetters N, Della Valle CJ, Parvizi J. Low rate of infection control in enterococcal periprosthetic joint infections. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2012;470(10):2708-2716.
26. Raut VV, Siney PD, Wroblewski BM. One-stage revision of infected total hip replacements with discharging sinuses. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 1994;76(5):721-724.
27. Rudelli S, Uip D, Honda E, Lima AL. One-stage revision of infected total hip arthroplasty with bone graft. *J Arthroplasty*. 2008;23(8):1165-1177.
28. Singer J, Merz A, Frommelt L, Fink B. High rate of infection control with one-stage revision of septic knee prostheses excluding MRSA and MRSE. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2012;470(5):1461-1471.
29. Ueng SW, Lee CY, Hu CC, Hsieh PH, Chang Y. What is the success of treatment of hip and knee candidal periprosthetic joint infection? *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2013;471(9):3002-3009.
30. Ure KJ, Amstutz HC, Nasser S, Schmalzried TP. Direct-exchange arthroplasty for the treatment of infection after total hip replacement. An average ten-year follow-up. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 1998;80(7):961-968.
31. Walls RJ, Roche SJ, O'Rourke A, McCabe JP. Surgical site infection with methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* after primary total hip replacement. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 2008;90(3):292-298.
32. Wongworawat MD. Clinical faceoff: One- versus two-stage exchange arthroplasty for prosthetic joint infections. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2013;471(6):1750-1753.
33. Yoo JJ, Kwon YS, Koo KH, Yoon KS, Kim YM, Kim HJ. One-stage cementless revision arthroplasty for infected hip replacements. *Int Orthop*. 2009;33(5):1195-1201.
34. Berend KR, Lombardi AV, Jr., Morris MJ, Bergeson AG, Adams JB, Sneller MA. Two-stage treatment of hip periprosthetic joint infection is associated with a high rate of infection control but high mortality. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2013;471(2):510-518.
35. Romano CL, Gala L, Logoluso N, Romano D, Drago L. Two-stage revision of septic knee prosthesis with articulating knee spacers yields better infection eradication rate than one-stage or two-stage revision with static spacers. *Knee Surg Sports Traumatol Arthrosc*. 2012;20(12):2445-2453.
36. Romano D, Drago L, Romano CL, Logoluso N. Does two-stage revision of septic hip prosthesis provides better infection eradication rate than one-stage? . Paper presented at: 14th EFFORT Congress, 2013; Istanbul.
37. Brandt CM, Duffy MC, Berbari EF, Hanssen AD, Steckelberg JM, Osmon DR. *Staphylococcus aureus* prosthetic joint infection treated with prosthesis removal and delayed reimplantation arthroplasty. *Mayo Clin Proc*. 1999;74(6):553-558.
38. Hanssen AD, Rand JA, Osmon DR. Treatment of the infected total knee arthroplasty with insertion of another prosthesis. The effect of antibiotic-impregnated bone cement. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1994(309):44-55.
39. Segawa H, Tsukayama DT, Kyle RF, Becker DA, Gustilo RB. Infection after total knee arthroplasty. A retrospective study of the treatment of eighty-one infections. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 1999;81(10):1434-1445.
40. Westrich GH, Walcott-Sapp S, Bornstein LJ, Bostrom MP, Windsor RE, Brause BD. Modern treatment of infected total knee arthroplasty with a 2-stage reimplantation protocol. *J Arthroplasty*. 2013;25(7):1015-1021, 1021 e1011-1012.
41. Joseph J, Raman R, Macdonald DA. Time interval between first and second stage revision hip arthroplasty for infection, the effect on outcome. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 2003;85-B(Suppl):58.
42. Ghanem E, Azzam K, Seeley M, Joshi A, Parvizi J. Staged revision for knee arthroplasty infection: what is the role of serologic tests before reimplantation? *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2009;467(7):1699-1705.

43. Kusuma SK, Ward J, Jacofsky M, Sporer SM, Della Valle CJ. What is the role of serological testing between stages of two-stage reconstruction of the infected prosthetic knee? *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2011;469(4):1002-1008.
44. Shukla SK, Ward JP, Jacofsky MC, Sporer SM, Paprosky WG, Della Valle CJ. Perioperative testing for persistent sepsis following resection arthroplasty of the hip for periprosthetic infection. *J Arthroplasty.* 2010;25(6 Suppl):87-91.
45. Springer BD, Lee GC, Osmon D, Haidukewych GJ, Hanssen AD, Jacofsky DJ. Systemic safety of high-dose antibiotic-loaded cement spacers after resection of an infected total knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2004(427):47-51.
46. Bozic KJ, Ries MD. The impact of infection after total hip arthroplasty on hospital and surgeon resource utilization. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2005;87(8):1746-1751.
47. Parvizi J, Pawasarat IM, Azzam KA, Joshi A, Hansen EN, Bozic KJ. Periprosthetic joint infection: the economic impact of methicillin-resistant infections. *J Arthroplasty.* 2010;25(6 Suppl):103-107.
48. Sculco TP. The economic impact of infected total joint arthroplasty. *Instr Course Lect.* 1993;42:349-351.
49. Gehrke T, Kendoff D. Peri-prosthetic hip infections: in favour of one-stage. *Hip Int.* 2012;22 Suppl 8:S40-45.
50. Kurtz SM, Lau E, Watson H, Schmier JK, Parvizi J. Economic burden of periprosthetic joint infection in the United States. *J Arthroplasty.* 2012;27(8 Suppl):61-65 e61.
51. Peel TN, Dowsey MM, Buising KL, Liew D, Choong PF. Cost analysis of debridement and retention for management of prosthetic joint infection. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2013;19(2):181-186.
52. Klouche S, Sariali E, Mamoudy P. Total hip arthroplasty revision due to infection: a cost analysis approach. *Orthop Traumatol Surg Res.* 2010;96(2):124-132.
53. De Man FH, Sendi P, Zimmerli W, Maurer TB, Ochsner PE, Ilchmann T. Infectiological, functional, and radiographic outcome after revision for prosthetic hip infection according to a strict algorithm. *Acta Orthop.* 2011;82(1):27-34.
54. Wolf CF, Gu NY, Doctor JN, Manner PA, Leopold SS. Comparison of one and two-stage revision of total hip arthroplasty complicated by infection: a Markov expected-utility decision analysis. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2011;93(7):631-639.
55. Filice GA, Nyman JA, Lexau C, et al. Excess costs and utilization associated with methicillin resistance for patients with *Staphylococcus aureus* infection. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* 2010;31(4):365-373.
56. Parvizi J, Azzam K, Ghanem E, Austin MS, Rothman RH. Periprosthetic infection due to resistant staphylococci: serious problems on the horizon. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2009;467(7):1732-1739.
57. Kalra KP, Lin KK, Bozic KJ, Ries MD. Repeat 2-stage revision for recurrent infection of total hip arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 2010;25(6):880-884.
58. Mortazavi SM, O'Neil JT, Zmistowski B, Parvizi J, Purtill JJ. Repeat 2-stage exchange for infected total hip arthroplasty: a viable option? *J Arthroplasty.* 2012;27(6):923-926 e921.
59. Azzam K, McHale K, Austin M, Purtill JJ, Parvizi J. Outcome of a second two-stage reimplantation for periprosthetic knee infection. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2009;467(7):1706-1714.
60. Bejon P, Berendt A, Atkins BL, et al. Two-stage revision for prosthetic joint infection: predictors of outcome and the role of reimplantation microbiology. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2010;65(3):569-575.
61. Kubista B, Hartzler RU, Wood CM, Osmon DR, Hanssen AD, Lewallen DG. Reinfection after two-stage revision for periprosthetic infection of total knee arthroplasty. *Int Orthop.* 2012;36(1):65-71.

62. Maheshwari AV, Gioe TJ, Kalore NV, Cheng EY. Reinfection after prior staged reimplantation for septic total knee arthroplasty: is salvage still possible? *J Arthroplasty*. 2010;25(6 Suppl):92-97.
63. Pagnano MW, Trousdale RT, Hanssen AD. Outcome after reinfection following reimplantation hip arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1997(338):192-204.
64. Husted H, Toftgaard Jensen T. Clinical outcome after treatment of infected primary total knee arthroplasty. *Acta Orthop Belg*. 2002;68(5):500-507.
65. Rand JA, Bryan RS, Chao EY. Failed total knee arthroplasty treated by arthrodesis of the knee using the Ace-Fischer apparatus. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 1987;69(1):39-45.
66. Knutson K, Lindstrand A, Lidgren L. Arthrodesis for failed knee arthroplasty. A report of 20 cases. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 1985;67(1):47-52.
67. Behr JT, Chmell SJ, Schwartz CM. Knee arthrodesis for failed total knee arthroplasty. *Arch Surg*. 1985;120(3):350-354.
68. Rothacker GW, Jr., Cabanela ME. External fixation for arthrodesis of the knee and ankle. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1983(180):101-108.
69. Wade PJ, Denham RA. Arthrodesis of the knee after failed knee replacement. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 1984;66(3):362-366.
70. Wilde AH, Stearns KL. Intramedullary fixation for arthrodesis of the knee after infected total knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1989(248):87-92.
71. Bengston S, Knutson K, Lidgren L. Treatment of infected knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1989(245):173-178.
72. Damron TA, McBeath AA. Arthrodesis following failed total knee arthroplasty: comprehensive review and meta-analysis of recent literature. *Orthopedics*. 1995;18(4):361-368.
73. Knutson K, Hovelius L, Lindstrand A, Lidgren L. Arthrodesis after failed knee arthroplasty. A nationwide multicenter investigation of 91 cases. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1984(191):202-211.
74. Schoifet SD, Morrey BF. Persistent infection after successful arthrodesis for infected total knee arthroplasty. A report of two cases. *J Arthroplasty*. 1990;5(3):277-279.
75. Ellingsen DE, Rand JA. Intramedullary arthrodesis of the knee after failed total knee arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 1994;76(6):870-877.
76. Harris CM, Froehlich J. Knee fusion with intramedullary rods for failed total knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1985(197):209-216.
77. Jorgensen PS, Torholm C. Arthrodesis after infected knee arthroplasty using long arthrodesis nail. A report of five cases. *Am J Knee Surg*. Summer 1995;8(3):110-113.
78. Lai KA, Shen WJ, Yang CY. Arthrodesis with a short Huckstep nail as a salvage procedure for failed total knee arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 1998;80(3):380-388.
79. Stiehl JB, Hanel DP. Knee arthrodesis using combined intramedullary rod and plate fixation. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1993(294):238-241.
80. Waldman BJ, Mont MA, Payman KR, et al. Infected total knee arthroplasty treated with arthrodesis using a modular nail. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1999(367):230-237.
81. Fern ED, Stewart HD, Newton G. Curved Kuntscher nail arthrodesis after failure of knee replacement. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 1989;71(4):588-590.
82. Puranen J, Kortelainen P, Jalovaara P. Arthrodesis of the knee with intramedullary nail fixation. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 1990;72(3):433-442.
83. Isiklar ZU, Landon GC, Tullos HS. Amputation after failed total knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1994(299):173-178.
84. Sierra RJ, Trousdale RT, Pagnano MW. Above-the-knee amputation after a total knee replacement: prevalence, etiology, and functional outcome. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2003;85-A(6):1000-1004.

85. Fedorka CJ, Chen AF, McGarry WM, Parvizi J, Klatt BA. Functional ability after above-the-knee amputation for infected total knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2011;469(4):1024-1032.
86. Zalavras CG, Rigopoulos N, Ahlmann E, Patzakis MJ. Hip disarticulation for severe lower extremity infections. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2009;467(7):1721-1726.

Workgroup 13: Management of Fungal or Atypical Periprosthetic Joint Infections

Liaison:

Matthias Gebauer MD

Leaders:

Lars Frommelt (International)

Delegates:

Pramod Achan MBBS, Tim N Board MD, Janet Conway MD, William Griffin MD, Nima Heidari MBBS, Glenn Kerr MD, Alex McLaren MD, Sandra Bliss Nelson MD, Marc Nijhof MD, Akos Zahar MD

Question 1: What is the definition of fungal or atypical periprosthetic joint infection (PJI)?

Consensus: A fungal or atypical PJI is an infection of a joint arthroplasty caused by fungi or atypical bacteria.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 89%, Disagree: 7%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Generally a fungal or atypical PJI is believed to exist when fungal organisms or atypical bacteria are isolated from the joint fluid or intraoperative tissue samples and these organisms are believed to be the dominant infecting agents in the prosthetic joint. Fungi may be moulds/molds, yeasts, or dimorphic fungi. Moulds are fungi that grow in the form of multicellular filaments called hyphae. The vast majority were *Candida* infections (which represent more than 80% of PJIs). In contrast, fungi that can adopt a single celled growth habit are called yeasts. Dimorphic fungi can exist as mold forms or as yeast. Atypical bacteria are bacteria that have deviations of one or more of the following characteristics of a typical bacterium: cell wall (containing peptidoglycan), cell membrane, no nuclear membrane, reproduction by cell fission, and susceptibility to antibiotics but not to antifungal agents.¹⁻³

Question 2: When should fungal organisms be considered as a cause of PJI?

Consensus: A PJI caused by fungi can be considered if fungal pathogens are isolated from periprosthetic tissue cultures or joint aspirations in a patient who has other signs or symptoms of PJI, such as abnormal serology and joint aspiration parameters (neutrophil count and differential). If clinical symptoms raise suspicion for a fungal PJI, repeated joint aspiration may be needed to isolate the infecting organism.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 94%, Disagree: 4%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: As there are no specifically evident clinical symptoms or laboratory signs for a fungal PJI, repeated joint aspiration is mandatory. In one third of the reported cases of a fungal PJI repeated (2 or 3) joint aspirations had to be performed to confirm the fungal PJI.⁴⁻¹⁰

Question 3: Which host factors (concomitant disease and other factors) predispose to fungal PJI?

Consensus: Predisposing host factors to fungal PJI are: immunosuppression (decreased cellular immunity, neutropenia, corticosteroids or other immunosuppressive drugs, history of organ transplantation, and acquired immunodeficiency syndrome), malignancy and/or the use of antineoplastic agents, drug abuse, prolonged use of antibiotics, presence of indwelling catheters (intravenous, urinary or parenteral hyperalimentation), diabetes mellitus, malnutrition, rheumatoid arthritis, history of multiple abdominal surgeries, severe burns, tuberculosis, and preceding bacterial infection of the prosthesis

Delegate Vote: Agree: 95%, Disagree: 2%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Fig. 1–Frequency of concomitant diseases in 46 reported fungal PJIs after total knee arthroplasty (data collected from 36 publications).

Concomitant diseases	Number of cases	Percentage
Diabetes	10	22
Autoimmune diseases	6	13
Prior PJI with prolonged antibiotic therapy	10	22
Immunosuppression caused by medication	7	15
Malignant diseases	4	9
HIV	1	2

Question 4: When fungal organisms are considered, what specimens should be collected and additional diagnostic tools should be used and how should they be processed to optimize diagnosis?

Consensus: Fungal selective media must be included and it should be observed that prolonged culture may be required. In specific cases one should expand diagnostic testing to include tissue samples for histological examination, especially in cases where there is a high index of clinical

suspicion. Resistance of *Candida* species to fluconazole has been reported in the literature and so susceptibility testing may be requested when resistance to fluconazole is suspected based on isolated species. Antifungal susceptibility testing remains less well developed and utilized than antibacterial testing.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 96%, Disagree: 2%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: In only 9 of the 59 articles published so far on the treatment of fungal PJIs (including 91 cases) the authors reported microbiological details about the number of cultures. In none of the studies was the growth medium or the time of incubation further specified. Although fungi can be non-fastidious and grow on most media, the growth requirements for fungi often differ from those for bacteria, most notably with regard to optimal growth temperature and media. Fungal selective media must be included and should have prolonged incubation according to national laboratory standards. Most routine manual and automated blood culture systems are able to support the growth of yeasts such as *Candida spp.* However, if suspicion is high for a fungal infection and routine cultures are negative, then it may be reasonable to consider a request for alternative test methods that are optimally designed to support the growth of most yeast. Moulds, especially dimorphic fungi, often grow poorly in typical instrumented blood culture systems. Alternative culture techniques include the lysis centrifugation method, in which the lysed and pelleted blood specimen can be used. Identification of the isolate to species level is mandatory because treatment may differ based on species. Samples from tissues and body fluids can be also investigated using alternative procedures. Among these are standard histology, immunohistochemistry, *in situ* hybridization, matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization time-of-flight (MALDI-TOF), mass spectrometry, and analysis of samples by polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-based procedures. These techniques have been positively evaluated in some studies, but they are not generally available, and third-party evaluation of their accuracy has not been carried out so far.¹⁴

Question 5: What is the best way to surgically manage fungal PJI: irrigation and debridement, one-stage exchange, two-stage exchange, or permanent resection arthroplasty?

Consensus: On the basis of the current literature, two-stage exchange arthroplasty is the recommended treatment option to manage fungal PJI. However, the success rate is lower than that of bacterial cases.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 95%, Disagree: 2%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: The reported initial surgical treatment of fungal periprosthetic knee infections is heterogeneous. As in bacterial PJI, treatment modalities for fungal PJI (retention of the implant, removal and reimplantation, or resection arthroplasty) depend to a large extent on the time of diagnosis of the infection after implantation, the results of eventual previous attempts to treat infection, and the presence of comorbidities.

To date 91 cases of fungal PJI have been reported. Resection arthroplasty was the initial intervention for 42 of these patients. Extensive and radical intraoperative debridement of all infected and necrotic tissue as well as removal of all cement was emphasized as highly important regarding the outcome. Permanent resection arthroplasty was the treatment of choice in 5 infected total hip arthroplasties (THAs) and in 2 infected total knee arthroplasties (TKAs). After initial resection arthroplasty 27 hips and 20 knees underwent a delayed reimplantation of the prosthesis (two-stage-procedure). Intraarticular spacers were used in 25 of the reported 91 patients. To prevent bacterial superinfection the spacers were impregnated with combined antimicrobial medication (gentamicin and vancomycin, tobramycin and vancomycin, teicoplanin and amphotericin B, vancomycin and amphotericin B, vancomycin, vancomycin and piperacillin, and cefamandole). The majority of the successful cases were managed with a two-stage exchange procedure.^{1, 8, 10-26}

Question 6: What are the optimal systemic antifungals administered (type and dose) in the treatment of fungal PJI?

Consensus: Well-established agents for a systemic treatment are the azoles and amphotericin products given either orally or intravenously for a minimum of 6 weeks. Resistance of certain *Candida* species to fluconazole has been reported in the literature and so susceptibility testing should be performed, in collaboration with the microbiologist.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 93%, Disagree: 5%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: There are few reports on local antifungal agent administration. Local antifungal medication during the primary surgical treatment was either applied by implanting an impregnated cement spacer as mentioned above, by placing intraarticular powder (100mg amphotericin B)^{8, 13} or by daily intraarticular lavage (fluconazole 200mg/d).^{17, 27}

A systemic antifungal agent was administered in all but one reported patient and the most frequent agents for a systemic treatment were fluconazole and amphotericin B given either orally or intravenously.

Additionally, in descending order, the following drugs have been administered: 5-flucytosine, itraconazole/ketoconazole/voriconazole, and caspofungin and other echinocandins. A combination of antifungal medication or a sequential antifungal therapy with exchange of medication was present in about 25% of the reported cases.^{1, 3, 8, 13, 15-17, 21, 22, 27-33}

Question 7: When treating fungal PJIs in a staged manner, which antifungal or antibacterial medications should be used for the cement spacer? What is the recommended dose?

Consensus: Recent literature confirms that antifungal agents are released in high amounts for local delivery, but there are no clinical studies yet to document the clinical effectiveness. The use of liposomal amphotericin B, loaded in bone cement, has more than an order of magnitude greater release than conventional amphotericin B deoxycholate. There is also controlled release data for azole antifungals, with specific data on the elution of voriconazole from bone cement. There should be a consideration for adding an antibacterial to the bone cement for local delivery in addition to the antifungal.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 94%, Disagree: 2%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Several studies have reported on the successful use of spacers loaded with antifungal drugs in fungal PJI treatment. Although release of these drugs from bone cement has been documented *in vitro*, limited data exist from *in vivo* studies.^{3, 18, 27, 29, 34} Similar to bacteria in biofilm there is higher resistance of fungi in biofilms, the surgical procedure that decreases the biofilm, and fungal load is probably the most important aspect of the treatment. Good results

have also been obtained by using no local delivery. When the surgeon decides to provide local delivery of antifungals in adjunct to systemic therapy, amphotericin B products or azole antifungals are reasonable selections. When voriconazole is chosen, loss of mechanical strength should be kept in mind when fabricating spacers.^{3, 18, 27, 29, 34-45}

Question 8: Which investigations are recommended to monitor fungal PJI and determine timing of reimplantation?

Consensus: C-reactive protein and erythrocyte sedimentation rate are recommended to monitor fungal PJI. There is no clear evidence for the timing of reimplantation based on laboratory tests.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 89%, Disagree: 8%, Abstain: 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Review of the current literature did not detect a laboratory test to specifically monitor fungal PJI. Thus the generally accepted laboratory tests that are used to monitor bacterial PJI are suggested.²⁸ The serum 1,3 β -D-glucan test for *Candida* has been used in non-orthopaedic settings and this may be an area that can be developed in the future for monitoring of effective treatment of candidal PJI.⁴⁶ Repeated aspiration prior to reimplantation may help the surgeon determine timing.

Question 9: What is the duration for systemic antimicrobial (antifungal) agent administration in the treatment of fungal PJI?

Consensus: Systemic antimicrobial (antifungal) agent administration in the treatment of fungal PJI should be started at the time of removal of the implants (stage one) and continued for at least 6 weeks. It should then be stopped before reimplantation (stage two) the timing of which is based on clinical judgment and laboratory tests. There are no good data to support antifungal agent administration after reimplantation.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 85%, Disagree: 10%, Abstain: 5% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Review of the reported cases on fungal PJI shows that there is a broad variation in the duration of perioperative systemic antimicrobial (antifungal) agent administration.

For the most frequently administered agents, fluconazole and amphotericin B, the following durations of systemic antifungal agent administration have been described:

Fluconazole: Duration varies from 3 to 6 weeks or longer (up to 26 weeks) before reimplantation, and from no treatment (in the majority of cases) after reimplantation up to 2 to 6 weeks or longer after reimplantation.

Amphotericin B: Duration is often 6 weeks, only before reimplantation.^{1, 3, 16, 18, 21, 22, 27-29, 31-33, 47}

It is important to note that IDSA guidelines on the treatment of invasive Candidiasis recommends treatment duration of 6 to 12 months for osteomyelitis.

References:

1. Azzam K, Parvizi J, Jungkind D, et al. Microbiological, clinical, and surgical features of fungal prosthetic joint infections: a multi-institutional experience. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2009;91 Suppl 6:142-149.
2. Kohli R, Hadley S. Fungal arthritis and osteomyelitis. *Infect Dis Clin North Am.* 2005;19(4):831-851.
3. Phelan DM, Osmon DR, Keating MR, Hanssen AD. Delayed reimplantation arthroplasty for candidal prosthetic joint infection: a report of 4 cases and review of the literature. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2002;34(7):930-938.
4. Darouiche RO, Hamill RJ, Musher DM, Young EJ, Harris RL. Periprosthetic candidal infections following arthroplasty. *Rev Infect Dis.* 1989;11(1):89-96.
5. Hennessy MJ. Infection of a total knee arthroplasty by *Candida parapsilosis*. A case report of successful treatment by joint reimplantation with a literature review. *Am J Knee Surg.* Summer 1996;9(3):133-136.
6. Koch AE. *Candida albicans* infection of a prosthetic knee replacement: a report and review of the literature. *J Rheumatol.* 1988;15(2):362-365.
7. Lambertus M, Thordarson D, Goetz MB. Fungal prosthetic arthritis: presentation of two cases and review of the literature. *Rev Infect Dis.* 1988;10(5):1038-1043.
8. Selmon GP, Slater RN, Shepperd JA, Wright EP. Successful 1-stage exchange total knee arthroplasty for fungal infection. *J Arthroplasty.* 1998;13(1):114-115.
9. Simonian PT, Brause BD, Wickiewicz TL. *Candida* infection after total knee arthroplasty. Management without resection or amphotericin B. *J Arthroplasty.* 1997;12(7):825-829.
10. Wada M, Baba H, Imura S. Prosthetic knee *Candida parapsilosis* infection. *J Arthroplasty.* 1998;13(4):479-482.
11. Austin KS, Testa NN, Luntz RK, Greene JB, Smiles S. *Aspergillus* infection of total knee arthroplasty presenting as a popliteal cyst. Case report and review of the literature. *J Arthroplasty.* 1992;7(3):311-314.
12. Badrul B, Ruslan G. *Candida albicans* infection of a prosthetic knee replacement: a case report. *Med J Malaysia.* 2000;55 Suppl C:93-96.
13. Brooks DH, Puppato F. Successful salvage of a primary total knee arthroplasty infected with *Candida parapsilosis*. *J Arthroplasty.* 1998;13(6):707-712.

14. Cardinal E, Braunstein EM, Capello WN, Heck DA. *Candida albicans* infection of prosthetic joints. *Orthopedics*. 1996;19(3):247-251.
15. Ceffa R, Andreoni S, Borre S, et al. Mucoraceae infections of antibiotic-loaded cement spacers in the treatment of bacterial infections caused by knee arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty*. 2002;17(2):235-238.
16. Dumaine V, Eyrolle L, Baixench MT, et al. Successful treatment of prosthetic knee *Candida glabrata* infection with caspofungin combined with flucytosine. *Int J Antimicrob Agents*. 2008;31(4):398-399.
17. Fukasawa N, Shirakura K. *Candida* arthritis after total knee arthroplasty--a case of successful treatment without prosthesis removal. *Acta Orthop Scand*. 1997;68(3):306-307.
18. Gaston G, Ogden J. *Candida glabrata* periprosthetic infection: a case report and literature review. *J Arthroplasty*. 2004;19(7):927-930.
19. Iskander MK, Khan MA. *Candida albicans* infection of a prosthetic knee replacement. *J Rheumatol*. 1988;15(10):1594-1595.
20. Lackner M, De Man FH, Eygendaal D, et al. Severe prosthetic joint infection in an immunocompetent male patient due to a therapy refractory *Pseudallescheria apiosperma*. *Mycoses*. 2011;54 Suppl 3:22-27.
21. Lazzarini L, Manfrin V, De Lalla F. Candidal prosthetic hip infection in a patient with previous candidal septic arthritis. *J Arthroplasty*. 2004;19(2):248-252.
22. Lerch K, Kalteis T, Schubert T, Lehn N, Grifka J. Prosthetic joint infections with osteomyelitis due to *Candida albicans*. *Mycoses*. 2003;46(11-12):462-466.
23. Levine M, Rehm SJ, Wilde AH. Infection with *Candida albicans* of a total knee arthroplasty. Case report and review of the literature. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1988(226):235-239.
24. Lim EV, Stern PJ. *Candida* infection after implant arthroplasty. A case report. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 1986;68(1):143-145.
25. MacGregor RR, Schimmer BM, Steinberg ME. Results of combined amphotericin B-5-fluorocytosine therapy for prosthetic knee joint infected with *Candida parapsilosis*. *J Rheumatol*. 1979;6(4):451-455.
26. Nayeri F, Cameron R, Chryssanthou E, Johansson L, Soderstrom C. *Candida glabrata* prosthesis infection following pyelonephritis and septicemia. *Scand J Infect Dis*. 1997;29(6):635-638.
27. Wu MH, Hsu KY. Candidal arthritis in revision knee arthroplasty successfully treated with sequential parenteral-oral fluconazole and amphotericin B-loaded cement spacer. *Knee Surg Sports Traumatol Arthrosc*. 2011;19(2):273-276.
28. Anagnostakos K, Kelm J, Schmitt E, Jung J. Fungal periprosthetic hip and knee joint infections clinical experience with a 2-stage treatment protocol. *J Arthroplasty*. 2012;27(2):293-298.
29. Marra F, Robbins GM, Masri BA, et al. Amphotericin B-loaded bone cement to treat osteomyelitis caused by *Candida albicans*. *Can J Surg*. 2001;44(5):383-386.
30. Ruhnke M, Rickerts V, Cornely OA, et al. Diagnosis and therapy of *Candida* infections: joint recommendations of the German Speaking Mycological Society and the Paul-Ehrlich-Society for Chemotherapy. *Mycoses*. 2011;54(4):279-310.
31. Wyman J, McGough R, Limbird R. Fungal infection of a total knee prosthesis: successful treatment using articulating cement spacers and staged reimplantation. *Orthopedics*. 2002;25(12):1391-1394; discussion 1394.
32. Yang SH, Pao JL, Hang YS. Staged reimplantation of total knee arthroplasty after *Candida* infection. *J Arthroplasty*. 2001;16(4):529-532.
33. Yilmaz M, Mete B, Ozaras R, et al. *Aspergillus fumigatus* infection as a delayed manifestation of prosthetic knee arthroplasty and a review of the literature. *Scand J Infect Dis*. 2011;43(8):573-578.

34. Gottesman-Yekutieli T, Shwartz O, Edelman A, Hendel D, Dan M. Pseudallescheria boydii infection of a prosthetic hip joint--an uncommon infection in a rare location. *Am J Med Sci.* 2011;342(3):250-253.
35. Buranapanitkit B, Oungbho K, Ingviya N. The efficacy of hydroxyapatite composite impregnated with amphotericin B. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2005(437):236-241.
36. Chandra J, Kuhn DM, Mukherjee PK, Hoyer LL, McCormick T, Ghannoum MA. Biofilm formation by the fungal pathogen *Candida albicans*: development, architecture, and drug resistance. *J Bacteriol.* 2001;183(18):5385-5394.
37. Deelstra JJ, Neut D, Jutte PC. Successful treatment of *Candida albicans*-infected total hip prosthesis with staged procedure using an antifungal-loaded cement spacer. *J Arthroplasty.* 2013;28(2):374 e375-378.
38. Goss B, Lutton C, Weinrauch P, Jabur M, Gillett G, Crawford R. Elution and mechanical properties of antifungal bone cement. *J Arthroplasty.* 2007;22(6):902-908.
39. Grimsrud C, Raven R, Fothergill AW, Kim HT. The in vitro elution characteristics of antifungal-loaded PMMA bone cement and calcium sulfate bone substitute. *Orthopedics.* 2011;34(8):e378-381.
40. Harmsen S, McLaren AC, Pauken C, McLemore R. Amphotericin B is cytotoxic at locally delivered concentrations. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2011;469(11):3016-3021.
41. Rouse MS, Heijink A, Steckelberg JM, Patel R. Are anidulafungin or voriconazole released from polymethylmethacrylate in vitro? *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2011;469(5):1466-1469.
42. Sealy PI, Nguyen C, Tucci M, Benghuzzi H, Cleary JD. Delivery of antifungal agents using bioactive and nonbioactive bone cements. *Ann Pharmacother.* 2009;43(10):1606-1615.
43. Silverberg D, Kodali P, Dipersio J, Acus R, Askew M. In vitro analysis of antifungal impregnated polymethylmethacrylate bone cement. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2002(403):228-231.
44. Cunningham B, McLaren AC, Pauken C, McLemore R. Liposomal formulation increases local delivery of amphotericin from bone cement: a pilot study. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2012;470(10):2671-2676.
45. Miller RB, McLaren AC, Pauken C, Clarke HD, McLemore R. Voriconazole is delivered from antifungal-loaded bone cement. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2013;471(1):195-200.
46. Ostrosky-Zeichner L, Alexander BD, Kett DH, et al. Multicenter clinical evaluation of the (1->3) beta-D-glucan assay as an aid to diagnosis of fungal infections in humans. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2005;41(5):654-659.
47. Fabry K, Verheyden F, Nelen G. Infection of a total knee prosthesis by *Candida glabrata*: a case report. *Acta Orthop Belg.* 2005;71(1):119-121.

Workgroup 14: Oral Antibiotic Therapy

Liaison:

Patrick O'Toole MD

Leaders:

Douglas Osmon MD (US), Alex Soriano DO (International)

Delegates:

Jan-Erik Berdal MD, Mathias Bostrum, Rafael Franco-Cendejas MD, DeYoung Huang PhD, Charles Nelson, F Nishisaka, Brian Roslund, Cassandra D Salgado, Robert Sawyer MD, John Segreti MD, Eric Senneville PhD, Xian Long Zhang

Introduction:

This panel has reviewed the indication and duration of oral antibiotics for periprosthetic joint infection (PJI) in the following situations:

- 1) Acute (early or late) PJI treated with debridement without implant removal and exchange of the modular components, whenever modular components can be safely removed. In general, these infections do not require suppressive antibiotic therapy (SAT).
- 2 Indications for the use of SAT include:
 - a) Patients who refuse surgical treatment.
 - b) Patients who cannot be surgically treated because of a high surgical risk due to comorbidities.
 - c) Patients treated with inadequate surgery such as: 1) debridement without implant removal in late chronic PJI or 2) debridement without implant removal in acute (early or late) PJI but without exchanging the modular components.
 - d) Patients who undergo optimal surgical treatment in acute PJI but receive suboptimal antibiotic treatment in the following situations: 1) not receiving rifampin in PJI due to *Staphylococcus spp*, 2) PJI due to methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA), 3) not receiving a fluoroquinolone in gram-negative infections, and 4) fungal infections.
 - e) Patients in whom it is suspected that the infection is not eradicated according to clinical, laboratory, or imaging data.

Question 1: What are the appropriate oral antibiotic or antibiotic combinations following adequate surgical treatment for acute (early or late) PJI in which the implant has been retained?

Consensus: Regimens containing rifampicin, when feasible, should be used in gram-positive PJI and fluoroquinolones in gram-negative PJI. There is no consensus as to when rifampicin should be started.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 87%, Disagree: 7%, Abstain: 6% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: In acute PJI, open debridement and implant retention is associated with a wide variation in success rates. Once the decision to switch to oral therapy is made, a combination of antibiotics should be used. The reasons for this discrepancy include: 1) characteristics of the patients,

2) surgical technique including the exchange of modular polyethylene liner, and 3) the type of antibiotic or combination of antibiotics administered, especially within the first month after debridement.^{1,2} There is concern with the use of rifampin during the first days of intravenous treatment in order to reduce the risk of selecting resistant mutants.⁵⁴ *Staphylococcus aureus* and coagulase negative staphylococcus for the most part is best treated with combination therapy.

In terms of antibiotic treatment, it is necessary to analyze the results according to the isolated microorganism. A review of the published literature where staphylococci was the main pathogen included 17 articles and 525 cases of PJI managed with open debridement and retention of the implant. The study showed a range of success from 14% to 83% with a mean rate of success of 48%³ and only 32% in patients with rheumatoid arthritis.⁴ A more recent review of the literature using Debridement, Antibiotics, and Implant Retention (DAIR), described a success rate below 50%.⁵ Of note, the majority of the articles included in these reviews did not use rifampin as part of the antibiotic treatment. In contrast, intravenous vancomycin or β -lactams for the first 4 weeks were the most common antibiotic therapies. *In vitro* data and experimental models on foreign-body infections have shown the poor activity of these antibiotics against bacterial biofilms and the importance of combining antibiotics, preferentially with rifampin.⁶⁻¹¹ Zimmerli et al. performed a double-blind study and found that acute staphylococcal orthopedic implant infections treated with an open debridement without removing the implant, followed by a combination of ciprofloxacin (750 mg/12 h) and rifampin (450 mg/12 h) administered for 3 months (for hip prosthesis and orthopedic implant infections) or 6 months (for knee prosthesis infections), was more effective than ciprofloxacin alone (cure rates of 100% and of 53% respectively, $p < 0.05$ after 35 months of follow-up). From 2005 up to now other case series have been published using antibiotic combinations with rifampin and support the effectiveness of this strategy, especially when PJI is due to methicillin- and fluoroquinolone-susceptible staphylococci (including *Staphylococcus aureus* and coagulase-negative staphylococci) and the oral therapy was made with rifampin combined with fluoroquinolones,^{2,12-21} with success rates, in general, over 70%. The dose of rifampin varied from 300 mg/8h, 450 mg/12h, 600 mg/24h, or 10 mg/Kg/12h. Rifampin is a concentration-dependent antibiotic and the best pharmacodynamic parameter related to its activity is $C_{max}/\text{minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC)}$. Rifampin administration in a 600mg monodose is easier to administer and well tolerated but also could result in a higher C_{max}/MIC than every 12h dosage. In addition, rifampin is added for killing biofilms and the doubling time of biofilm bacteria is significantly longer than the planktonic counterpart;²² therefore, the administration of rifampin once daily as for *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* infections appears reasonable. Ciprofloxacin and levofloxacin are the most widely used fluoroquinolones. Experience with ciprofloxacin is larger; however, levofloxacin has a higher oral bioavailability and it is more active against staphylococci. Moxifloxacin is more active than

levofloxacin for staphylococci but rifampin significantly reduces the moxifloxacin serum concentration.²³ Rifampin also reduces the serum concentration of clindamycin,²⁴ cotrimoxazol,²⁵ and linezolid;²⁶ therefore, close monitoring is necessary when these combinations are used.

The clinical experience when PJIs are due to methicillin-resistant strains is scarce but the available information suggests that the outcome of methicillin-resistant coagulase-negative staphylococci is associated with good results when rifampin combinations are used.²⁷ In contrast, experience with MRSA has shown a higher failure rate;^{14,28-30} however, the majority of these patients were treated with intravenous vancomycin. There is some clinical experience using linezolid with or without rifampin in patients with acute PJI due to MRSA treated with debridement and retention of the implant, with a mean success rate around 60%.³¹⁻³⁶ The toxicity associated with linezolid limits its administration for periods longer than 4-6 weeks; otherwise, serum levels are monitored.³⁷ Rifampin combined with fusidic acid or cotrimoxazol achieved a 67%³⁸ or 60%³⁹ success rate, respectively. Indeed, recent *in vitro* data show that combinations of oral antibiotics including linezolid, fusidic acid, rifampin, or minocyclin using concentrations similar to those achieved in serum⁴⁰ have a good activity against *S. aureus* biofilms *in vitro*; however, more clinical experience is needed.

PJI due to penicillin-susceptible streptococci treated with intravenous penicillin or ampicillin has been associated with a high success rate.⁴¹ In this article, only 2 out of 19 patients failed but both had PJI due to group B streptococci (n=7, failure rate of 28.5%). In contrast, a recent study that retrospectively reviewed 31 streptococcal PJI treated with DAIR described a failure rate of 67% that was similar to the rest of the cases of PJI, where the failure rate was 71%;⁴² however, details about antibiotic therapy were not provided. Clinical data on PJI due to enterococcus are limited to one article that described an 80% success rate using debridement, retention of the implant, and intravenous ampicillin with or without gentamicin.⁴³ The success rate was similar in the monotherapy and combination groups, but nephrotoxicity was significantly higher among those receiving aminoglycosides. Experience with oral antibiotics is scarce in streptococcal and enterococcal PJI but it is reasonable to use a β -lactam with a high oral bioavailability (amoxicillin for enterococci); and, since rifampin is active against streptococci, it is reasonable to recommend the addition of rifampin. Indeed, recent *in vitro* data showed that linezolid or ciprofloxacin combined with rifampin had better activity against enterococcal biofilms than ampicillin or ampicillin plus rifampin;⁴⁴ therefore, these combinations are potential alternatives.

Evidence of PJI due to gram-negative organisms is scarce but the available information suggests that when fluoroquinolones (oral or intravenous) are part of the antibiotic treatment the success rate is higher than 80%.^{45,46}

Overall, SAT is not a hugely successful treatment for PJI. As a summary, the selected antibiotic regimen after debridement is associated with the outcome of the infection. Clinical data from

observational studies suggest that regimens containing rifampin in PJI due to gram-positives and fluoroquinolones in PJI due to gram-negatives are associated with acceptable success rates. Clinical data are scarce about other antibiotic regimens for resistant bacteria or when the patient is allergic or develops adverse events. Some clinical data with linezolid,^{18,32-35} cotrimoxazole,³⁹ and moxifloxacin⁴⁷ as monotherapies for staphylococcal PJI have shown relatively good results. Sometimes the use of rifampin is not feasible e.g. drug interactions.

Question 2: How long should antibiotic treatment in acute PJI treated with debridement and retention of the implant be?

Consensus: The duration of intravenous and oral treatment is a question that remains unsolved and there is no clinical trial comparing different durations of antibiotic treatment.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 85%, Disagree: 11%, Abstain: 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Clinical experience with osteomyelitis, including orthopaedic implant infections, has demonstrated that oral therapy or an early switch to oral therapy is as effective as IV treatment.⁴⁸⁻⁵⁰ The majority of authors consider 2 to 6 weeks of specific IV treatment followed by 3 months of specific oral antibiotics in total hip arthroplasty or 6 months in total knee arthroplasty necessary.^{26,51,52} Taking into account the high bioavailability (>90%) of oral antibiotics such as rifampin, fluoroquinolones, cotrimoxazole, tetracyclines, fusidic acid, clindamycin, or linezolid, and the poor activity against bacterial biofilms of the most commonly used IV antibiotics such as β -lactams or glycopeptides,^{8,53} it is reasonable to recommend an IV period restricted to the first 5 to 10 days in order to reduce the bacterial inoculum in periprosthetic tissue. An early switch to oral therapy using potent antibiofilm agents with a high oral bioavailability is recommended. This regimen allows patient discharge from hospital and avoids problems associated with IV catheters. The 3 or 6 months total duration of antibiotic treatment is based on clinical experience^{14,17-19} and another large series used a mean duration of oral therapy of 1.5 years.¹⁴ In both cases the success rate was >70%. Other authors using a markedly shorter duration of antibiotic regimens (in general \leq 3 months) have also shown success rates >70%.^{3,22,54} This data suggest that more than 3 months do not improve the outcome of acute PJI treated with debridement and retention of the implant. A recent clinical trial randomized patients with early acute PJI due to staphylococci to receive 6 weeks (n=22) or 12

weeks (n=17) of levofloxacin plus rifampin (to be presented at the Interscience Conference on Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy, Denver 2013, by Lora-Tamayo) and no differences in failure rate after one year of follow-up were observed. C-reactive protein (CRP) did not accurately predict the outcome of patients after debridement.⁵⁵ Therefore, physical examination and clinical symptoms should guide the duration of antibiotic treatment. According to the literature, when an antibiotic regimen within the first month from debridement includes rifampin for a gram-positive infection^{1,13-22} or a fluoroquinolone for gram-negative infection,^{45,46} 3 months is associated with good results^{22,46,54} and some preliminary data suggest that an even shorter duration could be adequate. However, more information is needed to confirm this result.

Question 3: What is the role of antibiotic combinations for treatment of PJI managed without adequate surgical intervention?

Consensus: We do not recommend administration of antibiotics and open debridement alone without removing the implant in chronic PJI.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 84%, Disagree: 14%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Suppressive antibiotic therapy (SAT) is defined as the use of oral antibiotics for the prevention of relapsing symptoms and functional failure in those patients with hardware retention. Antibiotic treatment alone in documented PJI is associated with a high failure rate.⁵⁶ The rate of failure is markedly higher when the PJI fulfill the criteria of chronic infection, even when these patients undergo open debridement without implant removal.^{13,57} However, there is no other alternative when:

- a) Patients refuse surgical treatment.
- b) Patients cannot be surgically treated because of a high surgical risk due to comorbidities.
- c) Patients are treated with inadequate surgery, such as: 1) debridement without implant removal in late chronic PJI or 2) debridement without implant removal in acute (early or late) PJI but without exchanging the polyethylene modular components.
- d) Patients have an infection that has not been eradicated according to clinical, laboratory, or imaging data.

e) Functioning patient and implant will have an increased disability secondary to removal of the prosthesis.

In these cases, identifying the microorganism before starting any antibiotic regimen is strongly recommended. Taking into account the low probability of infection eradication and limited clinical experience, the authors recommend the following two phases of antibiotic treatment: 1) induction to remission and 2) chronic suppression. The initial recommendation is to start a potent oral or IV combination of antibiotics, examples of which are listed in Table 1, including rifampin in cases of gram-positive infection or fluoroquinolone in cases of gram-negative infection whenever possible. The first phase of antibiotic treatment should be maintained until clinical signs of infection disappear and systemic inflammatory parameters (e.g. C-reactive protein or erythrocyte sedimentation rate) improve for at least 3 months. After this period, chronic oral antibiotic suppression should be initiated using monotherapy of antibiotics with a good safety profile and high oral bioavailability.

Question 4: How long should suppressive therapy be administered?

Consensus: There is no consensus about the length of time that patients should receive suppressive antibiotic therapy, there is consensus that treatment should be individualized.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 94%, Disagree: 4%, Abstain: 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Ideally, suppressive therapy should be administered for the rest of the patient's life. There is no clinical experience about the consequences of stopping SAT and the risk of relapse or infection dissemination and secondary sepsis. However, experience from chronic osteomyelitis suggests that these infections are, in general, localized.

The average length of oral antibiotic suppression was approximately 23 months when different studies were compared. There are some published studies that used oral suppression for a range between 4 to 100 months in patients with chronic PJI,⁵⁸⁻⁶¹ with success rates >60% after prolonged follow-up periods; however, other authors did not observe similar results and reported a high rate of adverse events associated with chronic antibiotic therapy.

Question 5: What antibiotics could be useful for suppressive treatment based on type of organism?

Consensus: There is no consensus regarding appropriate antibiotics for suppression therapy. The antibiotic should be chosen according to the susceptibility pattern of the isolated microorganism, preferably obtained from deep samples by joint aspiration or surgical debridement. The list of potential antibiotics and their doses is provided.

Delegate Vote: Agree: 97%, Disagree: 3%, Abstain: 0% (Strong Consensus)

Table 1. Main oral antibiotics for treating prosthetic joint infections.

Antibiotic	BA (%)	Oral dose	Adverse effects
Penicillin V Amoxicillin Amoxicillin-clavulanate Cloxacillin Cephalexin Cephadroxil	60 80 75* 50-70 >90 >90	0.5-1 g/6-8h 1 g/8h 875-125 mg/8h 0.5-1 g/4-6h 0.5-1 g/6-8h 0.5-1 g/8-12h	Skin rash. Anaphylactic reactions. <i>Clostridium difficile</i> -associated diarrhea
Ciprofloxacin Levofloxacin	75 >95	500-750 mg/12h 500-750 mg/24h	Liver toxicity. Achilles tendinitis/ruptures Achilles, irreversible neuropathy. <i>Clostridium difficile</i> -associated diarrhea
Clindamycin	90	300 mg/8h	Gastrointestinal symptoms. <i>Clostridium difficile</i> -associated diarrhea.
Rifampin***	90**	10-20 mg/kg/24-12h	Liver toxicity. Skin rash. Gastrointestinal symptoms.
Doxycycline Minocycline	95 95	100 mg/12h 100 mg/12h	Skin hyperpigmentation. Liver toxicity.
Cotrimoxazole (trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole)	90/90	160/800 mg/8-12h	Hematological (leucopenia, anemia). Skin rash. Avoid with coumarinics.
Linezolid	100	600 mg/12h	Hematological. (thrombocytopenia, anemia). Avoid with tricyclic antidepressants.
Fusidic acid ****	90	0.5-1 g/8-12h	Liver toxicity.
Fluconazole	>90	400 mg/24h	Liver toxicity. Inhibits CYP3A4.

BA=bioavailability. PB=protein binding.

*Referring to clavulanate. **When taken with an empty stomach. ***Always use in combination therapy. ****Not available in the United States.

References:

1. Lora-Tamayo J, Murillo O, Iribarren JA, et al. A large multicenter study of methicillin-susceptible and methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* prosthetic joint infections managed with implant retention. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2012;56(2):182-194.
2. Silva M, Tharani R, Schmalzried TP. Results of direct exchange or debridement of the infected total knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2002;(404):125-131.
3. Achermann Y, Eigenmann K, Ledergerber B, et al. Factors associated with rifampin resistance in staphylococcal periprosthetic joint infections (PJI): a matched case-control study. *Infection*. 2013;41(2):431-437.
4. Sia IG, Berbari EF, Karchmer AW. Prosthetic joint infections. *Infect Dis Clin North Am*. 2005;19(4):885-914.
5. Berbari EF, Osmon DR, Duffy MC, et al. Outcome of prosthetic joint infection in patients with rheumatoid arthritis: the impact of medical and surgical therapy in 200 episodes. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2006;42(2):216-223.
6. Fehring TK, Odum SM, Berend KR, et al. Failure of irrigation and debridement for early postoperative periprosthetic infection. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2012;471(1):250-257.
7. Baldoni D, Haschke M, Rajacic Z, Zimmerli W, Trampuz A. Linezolid alone or combined with rifampin against methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in experimental foreign-body infection. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2009;53(3):1142-1148.
8. Ceri H, Olson ME, Stremick C, Read RR, Morck D, Buret A. The Calgary Biofilm Device: new technology for rapid determination of antibiotic susceptibilities of bacterial biofilms. *J Clin Microbiol*. 1999;37(6):1771-1776.
9. Garrigos C, Murillo O, Euba G, et al. Efficacy of usual and high doses of daptomycin in combination with rifampin versus alternative therapies in experimental foreign-body infection by methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2010;54(12):5251-5256.
10. Monzon M, Oteiza C, Leiva J, Lamata M, Amorena B. Biofilm testing of *Staphylococcus epidermidis* clinical isolates: low performance of vancomycin in relation to other antibiotics. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2002;44(4):319-324.
11. Saleh-Mghir A, Muller-Serieys C, Dinh A, Massias L, Cremieux AC. Adjunctive rifampin is crucial to optimizing daptomycin efficacy against rabbit prosthetic joint infection due to methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2011;55(10):4589-4593.
12. Zimmerli W, Frei R, Widmer AF, Rajacic Z. Microbiological tests to predict treatment outcome in experimental device-related infections due to *Staphylococcus aureus*. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 1994;33(5):959-967.
13. Barberan J, Aguilar L, Carroquino G, et al. Conservative treatment of staphylococcal prosthetic joint infections in elderly patients. *Am J Med*. 2006;119(11):993 e997-910.
14. Byren I, Bejon P, Atkins BL, et al. One hundred and twelve infected arthroplasties treated with 'DAIR' (debridement, antibiotics and implant retention): antibiotic duration and outcome. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2009;63(6):1264-1271.
15. Cobo J, Miguel LG, Euba G, et al. Early prosthetic joint infection: outcomes with debridement and implant retention followed by antibiotic therapy. *Clin Microbiol Infect*. 2011;17(11):1632-1637.
16. El Helou OC, Berbari EF, Lahr BD, et al. Efficacy and safety of rifampin containing regimen for staphylococcal prosthetic joint infections treated with debridement and retention. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2010;29(8):961-967.
17. Giulieri SG, Graber P, Ochsner PE, Zimmerli W. Management of infection associated with total hip arthroplasty according to a treatment algorithm. *Infection*. 2004;32(4):222-228.

18. Laffer RR, Graber P, Ochsner PE, Zimmerli W. Outcome of prosthetic knee-associated infection: evaluation of 40 consecutive episodes at a single centre. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2006;12(5):433-439.
19. Senneville E, Joulie D, Legout L, et al. Outcome and predictors of treatment failure in total hip/knee prosthetic joint infections due to *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2011;53(4):334-340.
20. Soriano A, Garcia S, Bori G, et al. Treatment of acute post-surgical infection of joint arthroplasty. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2006;12(9):930-933.
21. Soriano A, Garcia S, Ortega M, et al. [Treatment of acute infection of total or partial hip arthroplasty with debridement and oral chemotherapy]. *Med Clin (Barc).* 2003;121(3):81-85.
22. Vilchez F, Martinez-Pastor JC, Garcia-Ramiro S, et al. Outcome and predictors of treatment failure in early post-surgical prosthetic joint infections due to *Staphylococcus aureus* treated with debridement. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2011;17(3):439-444.
23. Anderl JN, Zahller J, Roe F, Stewart PS. Role of nutrient limitation and stationary-phase existence in *Klebsiella pneumoniae* biofilm resistance to ampicillin and ciprofloxacin. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2003;47(4):1251-1256.
24. Nijland HM, Ruslami R, Suroto AJ, et al. Rifampicin reduces plasma concentrations of moxifloxacin in patients with tuberculosis. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2007;45(8):1001-1007.
25. Zeller V, Dzeing-Ella A, Kitzis MD, Ziza JM, Mamoudy P, Desplaces N. Continuous clindamycin infusion, an innovative approach to treating bone and joint infections. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2010;54(1):88-92.
26. Gandelman K, Zhu T, Fahmi OA, et al. Unexpected effect of rifampin on the pharmacokinetics of linezolid: in silico and in vitro approaches to explain its mechanism. *J Clin Pharmacol.* 2011;51(2):229-236.
27. Tornero E, Garcia-Oltra E, Garcia-Ramiro S, et al. Prosthetic joint infections due to *Staphylococcus aureus* and coagulase-negative staphylococci. *Int J Artif Organs.* 2012;35(10):884-892.
28. Bradbury T, Fehring TK, Taunton M, et al. The fate of acute methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* periprosthetic knee infections treated by open debridement and retention of components. *J Arthroplasty.* 2009;24(6 Suppl):101-104.
29. Ferry T, Uckay I, Vaudaux P, et al. Risk factors for treatment failure in orthopedic device-related methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* infection. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis.* 2010;29(2):171-180.
30. Salgado CD, Dash S, Cantey JR, Marculescu CE. Higher risk of failure of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* prosthetic joint infections. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2007;461:48-53.
31. Bassetti M, Vitale F, Melica G, et al. Linezolid in the treatment of Gram-positive prosthetic joint infections. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2005;55(3):387-390.
32. Gomez J, Canovas E, Banos V, et al. Linezolid plus rifampin as a salvage therapy in prosthetic joint infections treated without removing the implant. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2011;55(9):4308-4310.
33. Rao N, Hamilton CW. Efficacy and safety of linezolid for Gram-positive orthopedic infections: a prospective case series. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis.* 2007;59(2):173-179.
34. Rao N, Ziran BH, Hall RA, Santa ER. Successful treatment of chronic bone and joint infections with oral linezolid. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2004;(427):67-71.
35. Razonable RR, Osmon DR, Steckelberg JM. Linezolid therapy for orthopedic infections. *Mayo Clin Proc.* 2004;79(9):1137-1144.
36. Soriano A, Gomez J, Gomez L, et al. Efficacy and tolerability of prolonged linezolid therapy in the treatment of orthopedic implant infections. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis.* 2007;26(5):353-356.

37. Pea F, Furlanut M, Cojutti P, et al. Therapeutic drug monitoring of linezolid: a retrospective monocentric analysis. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2010;54(11):4605-4610.
38. Peel TN, Buising KL, Dowsey MM, et al. Outcome of debridement and retention in prosthetic joint infections by methicillin-resistant staphylococci, with special reference to rifampin and fusidic acid combination therapy. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2012;57(1):350-355.
39. Stein A, Bataille JF, Drancourt M, et al. Ambulatory treatment of multidrug-resistant *Staphylococcus*-infected orthopedic implants with high-dose oral co-trimoxazole (trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole). *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 1998;42(12):3086-3091.
40. Wu WS, Chen CC, Chuang YC, et al. Efficacy of combination oral antimicrobial agents against biofilm-embedded methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *J Microbiol Immunol Infect.* 2013;46(2):89-95.
41. Meehan AM, Osmon DR, Duffy MC, Hanssen AD, Keating MR. Outcome of penicillin-susceptible streptococcal prosthetic joint infection treated with debridement and retention of the prosthesis. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2003;36(7):845-849.
42. Odum SM, Fehring TK, Lombardi AV, et al. Irrigation and debridement for periprosthetic infections: does the organism matter? *J Arthroplasty.* 2011;26(6 Suppl):114-118.
43. El Helou OC, Barbari EF, Marculescu CE, et al. Outcome of enterococcal prosthetic joint infection: is combination systemic therapy superior to monotherapy? *Clin Infect Dis.* 2008;47(7):903-909.
44. Holmberg A, Morgelin M, Rasmussen M. Effectiveness of ciprofloxacin or linezolid in combination with rifampicin against *Enterococcus faecalis* in biofilms. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2012;67(2):433-439.
45. Aboltins CA, Dowsey MM, Buising KL, et al. Gram-negative prosthetic joint infection treated with debridement, prosthesis retention and antibiotic regimens including a fluoroquinolone. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2011;17(6):862-867.
46. Martinez-Pastor JC, Munoz-Mahamud E, Vilchez F, et al. Outcome of acute prosthetic joint infections due to gram-negative bacilli treated with open debridement and retention of the prosthesis. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2009;53(11):4772-4777.
47. San Juan R, Garcia-Reyne A, Caba P, et al. Safety and efficacy of moxifloxacin monotherapy for treatment of orthopedic implant-related staphylococcal infections. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2010;54(12):5161-5166.
48. Daver NG, Shelburne SA, Atmar RL, et al. Oral step-down therapy is comparable to intravenous therapy for *Staphylococcus aureus* osteomyelitis. *J Infect.* 2007;54(6):539-544.
49. Euba G, Murillo O, Fernandez-Sabe N, et al. Long-term follow-up trial of oral rifampin-cotrimoxazole combination versus intravenous cloxacillin in treatment of chronic staphylococcal osteomyelitis. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2009;53(6):2672-2676.
50. Karamanis EM, Matthaiou DK, Moraitis LI, Falagas ME. Fluoroquinolones versus beta-lactam based regimens for the treatment of osteomyelitis: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976).* 2008;33(10):E297-304.
51. Osmon DR, Barbari EF, Berendt AR, et al. Diagnosis and management of prosthetic joint infection: clinical practice guidelines by the Infectious Diseases Society of America. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2013;56(1):e1-e25.
52. Zimmerli W, Trampuz A, Ochsner PE. Prosthetic-joint infections. *N Engl J Med.* 2004;351(16):1645-1654.
53. Edmiston CE, Jr., Goheen MP, Seabrook GR, et al. Impact of selective antimicrobial agents on staphylococcal adherence to biomedical devices. *Am J Surg.* 2006;192(3):344-354.
54. Bernard L, Legout L, Zurcher-Pfund L, et al. Six weeks of antibiotic treatment is sufficient following surgery for septic arthroplasty. *J Infect.* 2010;61(2):125-132.
55. Bejon P, Byren I, Atkins BL, et al. Serial measurement of the C-reactive protein is a poor predictor of treatment outcome in prosthetic joint infection. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2011;66(7):1590-1593.

56. Bengtson S, Knutson K. The infected knee arthroplasty. A 6-year follow-up of 357 cases. *Acta Orthop Scand*. 1991;62(4):301-311.
57. Koyonos L, Zmistowski B, Della Valle CJ, Parvizi J. Infection control rate of irrigation and debridement for periprosthetic joint infection. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2011;469(11):3043-3048.
58. Lentino JR. Prosthetic joint infections: bane of orthopedists, challenge for infectious disease specialists. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2003;36(9):1157-1161.
59. Marculescu CE, Berbari EF, Hanssen AD, et al. Outcome of prosthetic joint infections treated with debridement and retention of components. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2006;42(4):471-478.
60. Rao N, Crossett LS, Sinha RK, Le Frock JL. Long-term suppression of infection in total joint arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2003(414):55-60.
61. Segreti J, Nelson JA, Trenholme GM. Prolonged suppressive antibiotic therapy for infected orthopedic prostheses. *Clin Infect Dis*. 1998;27(4):711-713.

Workgroup 15: Prevention of Late PJI

Liaison:

Antonia Chen MD, MBA

Leaders:

Fares Haddad Mb, ChB, FRCS (International) and Paul Lachiewicz MD (US)

Delegates:

Michael Bolognesi MD, Luis E Cortes MD, Massimo Franceschini MD, Jiri Gallo MD, Aaron Glynn MD, Alejandro Gonzalez Della Valle MD, Aydin Gahramanov MD, Monti Khatod MD, Stergios Lazarinis MD, PhD, Guenther Lob MD, Arvind Nana MD, Peter Ochsner MD, Ibrahim Tuncay MD, Tobias Winkler MD, YiRong Zeng MD

Note:

This workgroup overlaps with other groups. For more detailed and/or alternative views on specific concepts, please refer to the other workgroups indicated:

Risk factors for infection	Workgroup 1: Mitigation and Education
Diagnostic procedures and thresholds	Workgroup 7: Diagnosis of Periprosthetic Joint Infection

Question 1: What is the definition of a late periprosthetic joint infection (PJI)?

Consensus: Late PJI can be defined as a PJI that develops at a variable length of time after an index arthroplasty procedure. The late PJI occurs after an initially successful index procedure with no clinical or radiographic signs of PJI. Risk factors for late PJI are similar to those described for PJI (Workgroup 1).

Delegate Vote: Agree 56%, Disagree 39%, Abstain 5% (Weak Consensus)

Justification: The definition of late PJI is variable in literature. Majority of the members of the consensus felt that any infection occurring after one year should be considered as late. Coventry et al. defined stages of PJI, where Stage I is an acute infection that occurred within 3 months of the index procedure, Stage II is a delayed infection that occurred between 3 months to 2 years after the index procedure where there was no pain-free interval, and Stage III is a hematogenous infection where there is a pain-free stage.¹ Garvin and Hanssen defined a late chronic PJI as one that occurred 4 weeks after the index procedure with an insidious clinical onset.² McPherson et al. defined a chronic infection as one that had symptoms for 4 weeks or longer.³ In Sweden, a late PJI is defined as one that occurs 2 years after the index procedure. Due to the huge variation in time frames, we did not find consensus in defining a timeframe for a late PJI. However, we classified late PJI as late hematogenous PJI, where there was an asymptomatic period followed by clinical and/or radiographical signs of infection. The workgroup feels that late PJI arises as a result of bacteremia at a later stage and should be distinguished with infections arising as a result of intraoperative contamination. Risk factors for late PJI are similar to those described for PJI in Workgroup 1 (Please see Question 1, Workgroup 1).

Question 2: Which diagnostic procedures have to be done to verify late PJI?

Consensus: The workup of patients with painful joint and suspected (late) PJI should follow the algorithm provided in Workgroup 7.

Delegate Vote: Agree 89%, Disagree 9%, Abstain 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Late PJI can present as pain and may not be obvious in all circumstances. For the preoperative diagnosis of late PJI, a systematic approach for workup of these patients must be considered. This workgroup proposes the following workup for patients suspected of having late PJI. The diagnostic workup includes ordering laboratory tests followed by aspiration of the joint with the patient not on antibiotics for two weeks if serology is abnormal or for patients at high index of suspicion for PJI. The serological test should include ESR and CRP. An ESR > 30mm/hour and a CRP >13.5mg/dL is concerning for PJI affecting total hip arthroplasty (THA) and an ESR > 46.5 mm/hour and a CRP > 23.5 mg/DL is concerning for PJI affecting total knee arthroplasty (TKA).⁵ A synovial fluid sample should be drawn from the joint prior to the initiation of antibiotics or when the patient is off antibiotics for 2 weeks. A diagnosis of late PJI should be based on synovial fluid leukocyte counts that are greater than 3,000 cells/ μ l with a neutrophil differential greater than 80%. In the light of systemic manifestation, blood cultures can be considered. Nuclear medicine imaging techniques may be used as an adjunct for diagnosing late PJI.⁶⁻¹⁸ Tissue biopsies can be performed preoperatively to obtain a diagnosis.

For intraoperative diagnosis of PJI, microbiology culture is still the gold standard. We recommend that a minimum of 3 tissue samples should be obtained.¹⁹ Histology should be considered as part of the diagnostic criteria.²⁰ Gram stains should not be used for diagnosing late PJIs.²¹ Adjunct diagnostic methods, including sonication of implants, polymerase chain reaction (PCR), reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR), mass spectrometry, microarray identification, and fluorescence in situ hybridization, may assist with determining the organism present if available, especially in culture-negative patients. Removed implants should be transported under low-oxygen conditions to the microbiology laboratory where they can be immediately processed. The interpretation of cultures for late PJIs is the same as for early PJI. Multiple studies have determined that elevated inflammatory serum laboratory tests such as ESR and CRP are highly sensitive for detecting PJIs.²²⁻²⁵ CRP is a more specific laboratory test than ESR, although both can be elevated in light of other infectious/inflammatory processes. There is also some evidence that serum IL-6 can be useful in the diagnosis of PJI.^{5, 26} Synovial fluid can be tested for multiple factors to determine if there is a late PJI. The most common method is to measure the leukocyte cell count and the neutrophil differential. Besides that, synovial fluid can be tested for culture, CRP, leukocyte esterase, and other molecular markers. The threshold for the leukocyte cell count and neutrophil differential from synovial fluid has varied with time. A study conducted by Kersey et al. determined thresholds to rule out infection and demonstrated that a leukocyte cell count of less than 2,000 cells/ μ L and less than 50%

polymorphonuclear leukocytes had a 98% negative predictive value.²⁷ Mason et al. conducted one of the first studies to determine a cut-off value suggestive of PJI in TKA patients. They determined that a leukocyte count greater than 2,500 cells/ μ L and greater than 60% polymorphonuclear leukocytes was suggestive for infection.²⁸ A study examining revision TKA determined that leukocyte counts greater than 1,700 cells/ μ L and neutrophil differentials greater than 65% was highly sensitive and specific for PJI.²⁹ For revision TKA, a synovial fluid white count greater than 3,000 cells/ μ L with elevated ESR and CRP had 100% sensitivity, 98% specificity, and 99% accuracy.³⁰

In the setting of revision THA for infection, greater than 3,000 white blood cells/ μ L provided the greatest combined sensitivity, specificity, and positive and negative predictive value in patients with elevated ESR and CRP.^{23,31, 32} CRP is a commonly-tested inflammatory marker in serum that can also be found in synovial fluid.

Recent studies have evaluated the role of synovial molecular markers for the diagnosis of PJI.^{5, 33} The leukocyte esterase test that is used for detecting bacteria in urine was found to be 80.6% sensitive and 100% specific for detecting infection in prosthetic joints.³⁴ These values also correlate with elevated polymorphonuclear leukocytes, total white blood cell count, ESR, and CRP. Some other markers that have been found to be elevated in patients with PJI includes synovial IL-6, Interleukin-8, α (2)-macroglobulin, CRP, and vascular endothelial growth factor. One study demonstrated that measuring CRP in synovial fluid using a multiple assay was a more sensitive marker than serum CRP (84 vs 76%).^{5, 33}

The diagnosis of late PJI can be confounded by culture-negative results. Extending the incubation of culture (7 to 14 days) can help minimize this situation. In one study the detection rate of infecting organisms after 7 days of incubation was 73.6% and this increased greatly when cultures were incubated for 13 days.³⁵ Additionally, if a synovial fluid aspirate yields a culture-negative result, taking synovial tissue for testing instead of an aspirate yields a sensitivity of 82% and a specificity of 98%.³⁶

Advanced diagnostic methods can also be employed to identify organisms responsible for infection.³⁷ The use of sonication to remove bacteria from explanted prostheses has been shown to increase the sensitivity of detecting bacteria (60.8% sensitivity with tissue culture and 78.5% sensitivity with sonicated fluid culture), but both tests have similar specificities.³⁸

Additionally, there were 14 patients whose bacteria were detected by sonicated fluid culture but not by tissue culture.

Other advanced diagnostic methods can be used to amplify bacteria that are present within the

tissue or from sonicated samples. PCR³⁹⁻⁴² amplifies existing bacteria DNA, while RT-PCR^{43, 44} amplifies RNA. This increases the sensitivity of detection if there is a small amount of bacteria present.⁴⁵

Question 3: Does the type, dose, and length of anticoagulation for prophylaxis influence the incidence of surgical site infection (SSI) following total joint arthroplasty (TJA)?

Consensus: Yes. The type, dose, and length of administration of anticoagulation drugs for prophylaxis against venous thromboembolism influence the incidence of SSI following TJA.

Delegate Vote: Agree 76%, Disagree 9%, Abstain 15% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Multiple high-level studies have compared different methods of anticoagulation for prophylaxis after TJA. Most studies concluded that there were no differences between different anticoagulation methods and SSI, or parameters associated with surgical infections (eg wound infection, wound dehiscence, and wound hematoma). However, not many of these studies were powered to detect a difference in SSI and they were conducted mostly for the assessment of the efficacy of anticoagulation. The more effective an anticoagulation agent is the more likely it is for the patient to develop a hematoma or have excess wound drainage, both of which are associated with SSI.

The risk for these adverse events could be based on the type, dose, and length of administration of anticoagulation. An extensive search of the literature was performed to identify studies that evaluated hematoma formation, wound drainage, SSI, and/or PJI formation with administration of anticoagulation. There is a wide variability in the incidence of later adverse events in all of these studies. Some studies show no difference in the incidence of hematoma formation when Dextran-70, warfarin (15mg loading, 5mg subsequent, for 3 weeks), and low-dose heparin (5000IU twice a day (BID) for 3 weeks) were utilized.⁴⁶ Another study did not find a difference in the incidence of deep wound infections when aspirin, warfarin, or injectable anticoagulation was utilized.⁴⁷ The dose of prophylactic injectables and the length of administration were variable in the latter study. Another study comparing enoxaparin versus control/graduated compression stockings/ intermittent pneumatic compression did not find a difference in the incidence of superficial infections.⁴⁸ In one study earlier administration of low molecular-weight heparin (LMWH) was found to have no correlation with SSI when compared to

a control group of uninfected patients.⁴⁹ On the other hand, anticoagulation resulting in an INR greater than 1.5 was found to result in a higher likelihood of wound-related problems that had a greater chance of developing into an infection. All patients received deep vein thrombosis prophylaxis with warfarin for 6 weeks.⁵⁰ Another study showed that administration of LMWH resulted in a high incidence of hematoma formation and return to the operating room.⁵¹

One consideration with regard to the amount of anticoagulation is the ability to reverse these agents. Drugs such as warfarin can be reversed with vitamins and LMWH can be reversed with protamine. Unfortunately, there are no direct agents to reverse fondaparinux, rivaroxaban, or dabigatran. Administration of Factor VII is the only available modality to deal with the excessive bleeding that may occur as a result of using the latter anticoagulation agents.

Question 4: Should a patient with TJA be given routine dental antibiotic prophylaxis?

Consensus: The use of dental antibiotic prophylaxis in patients with TJA should be individualized based on patient risk factors and the complexity of the dental procedure to be performed.

Delegate Vote: Agree 81%, Disagree 16%, Abstain 3% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Based on the available literature, within which there is no consensus, there is increased bacteremia after dental procedures, and providing antibiotic prophylaxis before dental work can reduce the burden of the bacteria load. Additionally, most PJIs occur within the first 2 years after surgery.⁵²⁻⁵⁴ One study found that the use of antibiotic prophylaxis did not reduce the risk of infection, independent of the dental procedure performed in a 2-year period.⁵⁵ Dental procedures may not be associated with the development of PJIs.⁵⁶ However, many studies demonstrate that there is increased bacteremia after dental procedures, as the incidence of bacteremia from oral procedures ranged from 5 to 65%.^{57-77,78-98} Thus, we conclude that using antibiotic prophylaxis for dental procedures after TJA to decrease the risk of bacteremia following dental procedures is justifiable to decrease the risk of sustaining a PJI within the first 2 years after surgery.

Consensus: We recommend that high-risk patients receive lifetime dental antibiotic prophylaxis after TJA.

Justification: The risk factors for PJI after dental procedures are patient-dependent and the risk for infection is higher in patients who receive dental work.

The orthopaedic and dental literature both detail groups of patients that are at higher risk for developing a PJI after dental procedures and who could benefit from the use of antibiotic prophylaxis. The patients that could receive the greatest benefits include those with:

- Inflammatory arthropathies (eg rheumatoid arthritis).^{53, 99-101}
- Immunosuppression (drug- or radiation-induced immunosuppression—including oncology or transplant patients and HIV patients).^{102, 103}
- Insulin-dependent diabetes.¹⁰³
- A major systemic infection.¹⁰⁴
- Hemophilia.¹⁰⁵
- The following factors are to be determined by a dental care provider:
 - High gingival score and gingival index.^{72, 106, 107}
 - High plaque score and plaque index.^{72, 106, 108}
 - Gum probing depth.^{72, 106}
 - Periodonitis.⁷²

Consensus: We recommend that an oral antibiotic be given at the following dosages for only one dose prior to dental procedures.

Justification: Using oral antibiotics can reduce the burden of bacteria that is released during dental procedures. The following oral antibiotics are recommended as prophylaxis prior to dental procedures:

- Amoxicillin 2 gm, 1 hour prior to procedure.^{81, 109-114}
- Azithromycin 500mg, 30 minutes to 1 hour prior to procedure.¹¹⁵
- Cefaclor 1 gm 1 hour prior to procedure.¹¹⁶
- Cefalexin 2 gm, 30 minutes to 1 hour prior to procedure.¹¹⁵
- Clindamycin 600 mg, 1-1.5 hours prior to procedure.^{109, 115, 117, 118}
- Erythromycin 1.5 gm, 1-1.5 hours prior to procedure.^{119, 120}
- Moxifloxacin 400 mg 1-2 hours prior to procedure.¹⁰⁹
- Penicillin 2 gm, 1 hour prior to procedure.^{62, 113, 121, 122}

Consensus: We recommend that one of the following IV or intramuscular antibiotics be given at the following dosages for only one dose prior to dental procedures.

Justification: Using IV antibiotics can reduce the burden of bacteria that is released during dental procedures. The following IV antibiotics are recommended as prophylaxis prior to dental procedures:

- IV Ampicillin 2 gm, 30 minutes to 1 hour prior to procedure.
- IV Cefazolin 1 gm, 30 minutes to 1 hour prior to procedure.¹¹⁵
- IV Cefuroxime 1.5 gm, 10 minutes before procedure.¹²³
- IV Ceftriaxone 1 gm, 30 minutes to 1 hour prior to procedure.¹¹⁵
- IV Teicoplanin 400 mg, immediately before procedure.^{111, 124}

Question 5: Should patients at high risk of late PJI be given prophylactic antibiotics during viral illnesses?

Consensus: There is no role for the administration of oral antibiotics to patients with TJA who develop viral illnesses.

Delegate Vote: Agree 98%, Disagree 2%, Abstain 0% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Patients with late risk factors for bacterial infections, such as those undergoing an invasive procedure that produce bacteremia, may benefit from prophylactic antibiotic administration. However, preventative antibiotics for conditions such as viral infections only contribute to emerging antibiotic-resistant organisms and should be avoided in clinical practice. Patients with late risk factors for bacterial infections are those who are susceptible to infection. These risk factors include but are not limited to the following:

- Immunocompromization or immunosuppression (drug-induced, radiation-induced, diabetes, hepatitis, HIV, malignancy).¹²⁵⁻¹²⁷
- Social habits (smoking and drinking alcohol)^{126, 128} and inflammatory arthritis.^{128, 129}
- Obesity.^{126, 129-131}
- Malnourishment.¹²⁶
- Previous joint infection (not currently on suppression antibiotics).

Often, antibiotics are unnecessarily prescribed, especially in conditions such as rhinosinusitis.¹³² One study demonstrated that antibiotics were only prescribed in a justified manner in 13.5% of upper respiratory infection cases.¹³³

Finally, taking antibiotics for conditions such as viral infections can result in increased antibiotic resistance.¹³⁴ This reduces the effectiveness of treatment for potential PJIs.

Question 6: Can transient bacteremia be minimized during endoscopic procedures such as colonoscopy to prevent late PJI?

Consensus: The influence of transient bacteremia can be minimized during minor surgical procedures by administering prophylactic antibiotics to individualized patients and especially to high-risk patients.

Delegate Vote: Agree 85%, Disagree 13%, Abstain 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Transient bacteremia can result from gastrointestinal (GI) and genitourinary (GU) procedures, and this bacterial burden can be decreased by administering prophylactic antibiotics. However, GI societies recommend against giving prophylactic antibiotics for minor surgical procedures such as upper endoscopies, sigmoidoscopies, or colonoscopies, while GU societies are mixed on their stance on antibiotic prophylaxis.

GI procedures such as upper endoscopy, sigmoidoscopy, or colonoscopy can produce transient bacteremia. Studies throughout the literature have demonstrated mixed results, but they predominantly support the idea that GI procedures result in increased bacteremia. Prophylactic administration of antibiotics before these procedures can decrease transient bacteremia, especially in high-risk patients. One of the earliest published studies found that there was transient bacteremia when rigid sigmoidoscopies were performed as measured by blood cultures 5 minutes, 10 minutes, 15 minutes, and 30 minutes after the procedure.¹³⁵ Three older studies evaluating bacteremia in colonoscopies found the burden of bacteria in the blood to be very low, except in immunocompromised patients, such as those with severe liver disease or carcinomatosis.¹³⁶⁻¹³⁸ During the same time frame, other studies demonstrated up to 15% bacteremia after colonoscopies.^{139, 140} Of note, these studies varied at the time points at which they collected the blood samples and not every study collected blood at the peak of bacteremia (5 minutes after the end of the procedure).

A subsequent study by Kumar et al. demonstrated that there was limited bacteremia from colonoscopies in low-risk patients, even when polypectomies or biopsies were performed.¹⁴¹ This was also found to be true in proctosigmoidoscopies.¹⁴² Based on these studies, GI endoscopic societies such as the American Society for Gastrointestinal Endoscopy and The American Society of Colon and Rectal Surgeons recommend against the use of prophylactic antibiotics prior to colonoscopies and other lower GI endoscopies.^{143, 144} In a survey of infectious disease program directors, 50% stated that they would not give prophylactic antibiotics before colonoscopies and polypectomies.¹⁴⁵ However, other studies have demonstrated that there is increased bacteremia from colonoscopies (10%) and the highest rate of bacteremia came from endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography (39%).¹⁴⁶ A review paper by Nelson¹⁴⁷ demonstrated that postprocedure bacteremia differed depending on the procedure, including 0.5% for flexible sigmoidoscopies, 2.2% for colonoscopies, 4.2% for esophagogastroduodenoscopies, 8.9% for variceal ligation, 11% for endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography, 15.4% for variceal sclerotherapy, and 22.8% for esophageal dilation.

Bacteremia can also result from exogenous sources such as the equipment being used in the procedure. One systematic review evaluated GI endoscopy and found that salmonella, mycobacterium, and pseudomonas are common organisms that are transmitted by these procedures.¹⁴⁸ Another systematic review demonstrated that esophagogastroduodenoscopy can also be responsible for transmission of serious organisms, such as HIV, salmonella, pseudomonas, *H. pylori*, and hepatitis.¹⁴⁹

In the orthopaedic literature, there have been some reports of PJI that presented after GI procedures. One case report described a patient who developed a *listeria monocytogenes* PJI after a routine colonoscopy without receiving prophylactic antibiotics.¹⁵⁰ One study reported a 1.9% infection rate in prosthetic joints¹⁵¹ and another reported that one patient with a prosthetic knee and cirrhosis out of 16 patients developed a serious infection after an endoscopic procedure.¹⁵² Coelho-Prabhu et al. reported that there is an increased risk of PJI associated with esophago-gastro-duodenoscopies performed with biopsies.¹⁵³

Thus antibiotic prophylaxis may be administered to high-risk patients undergoing GI procedures or peritoneal dialysis.^{154, 155} In addition, high-risk cardiac patients, such as those who have artificial heart valves, acquired valvular dysfunction, vascular grafts, surgical pulmonary shunts, complex congenital cardiac disease, and a history of endocarditis, have a higher likelihood for developing endocarditis and may benefit from antibiotic prophylaxis prior to GI procedures.¹⁵⁶ Immunocompromised patients may also benefit from routine prophylaxis.¹⁵⁷

GU procedures are similar to GI procedures; prostatic biopsies and cystoscopies can produce bacteremia and/or bacteriuria. Studies have demonstrated that bacteriuria correlates with bacteremia.^{158, 159} Most of the studies on GU procedures encourage the use of prophylactic antibiotics without exacerbating bacterial resistance.¹⁶⁰ However, in contrast to the GI literature, professional GU societies encourage the use of routine antibiotic prophylaxis.

An early study by Sullivan et al. demonstrated the following rates of bacteremia for certain procedures: 31% for transurethral resection of the prostate, 17% for cystoscopy, 24% for urethral dilation, and 8% for urethral catheterization.¹⁶¹ *Enterococci* and *Klebsiella pneumonia* were the two most common organisms. These anaerobes were also found to be present after transrectal prostatic biopsies,¹⁶² as well as *Escherichia coli*.¹⁶³ *Candida albicans* has also been found in bloodstream infections in patients who have undergone ureteroscopy and ureteral stenting.¹⁶⁴ When evaluating transrectal prostate biopsies, it is recommended that patients receive antibiotic prophylaxis. Ultrasound-guided transrectal biopsies were found to have a rate of 43% *Escherichia coli* bacteremia post-procedure.¹⁶⁵ A study by Thompson et al. demonstrated that when a transrectal prostate biopsy was combined with cystoscopy, the incidence of bacteremia was very high at 73% compared to 13% for cystoscopy alone.¹⁶⁶ The highest rate of bacteremia after transrectal prostate biopsy was reported as 100% by the same group,¹⁶⁷ of which 87% had a postoperative urinary tract infection and 27% were symptomatic. There was a significant reduction in bacteremia when cefamandole, a second generation cephalosporin, was administered as antibiotic prophylaxis. A Cochrane review on the use of antibiotic prophylaxis for transrectal prostate biopsies found that the use of antibiotics for at least 3 days could prevent infectious complications after the procedure.¹⁶⁸ One report described a case of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* periprosthetic knee infection secondary to a prostatectomy for prostatic carcinoma.¹⁶⁹

Patients who underwent transurethral surgery of the prostate developed subsequent bacteremia that was shown to lead to a 6%-60% incidence of urinary tract infections in patients who did not receive antibiotic prophylaxis.^{170, 171}

Patients who underwent extracorporeal shock wave lithotripsy had a 5% incidence of bacteremia¹⁷² and a case report described a patient who developed enterococcal endocarditis after this procedure.¹⁷³ For women, there is increased bacteremia during labor¹⁷⁴ and with placement of intrauterine devices.¹⁷⁵ Patients who undergo chorionic villus sampling, especially transcervically, have increased rates of bacteremia.¹⁷⁶ Based on these studies, the American Urological Association determined that antibiotic prophylaxis should be administered in specific situations depending on the patient population.¹⁷⁷ For example, patients who undergo

cystography should only receive a fluoroquinolone or trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole if they are at high risk, but all patients who undergo transrectal prostate biopsy should receive fluoroquinolone antibiotic prophylaxis. Alternatively, the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists recommends against antibiotic prophylaxis.¹⁷⁸

Question 7: What is the role of herbal supplements, probiotics, and alternative medicine in decreasing translocation of bacteria across the intestinal wall?

Consensus: There is insufficient evidence that supports the use of herbal supplements, probiotics, and alternative medicine to decrease translocation of bacteria across the intestinal wall to prevent late PJIs.

Delegate Vote: Agree 95%, Disagree 3%, Abstain 2% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: While certain herbal supplements, probiotics, and alternative medications have demonstrated decreasing translocation of bacteria across the intestinal wall, most of the studies are animal studies and none have level I evidence. Thus, we do not recommend using any of the alternative medicine products for preventing bacteremia from entering the gut to prevent late PJIs, but these products may be considered for general health purposes.

Herbal supplements: vitamin C (ascorbic acid) and vitamin E (alpha-tocopherol) have been shown to reduce bacterial translocation from the intestine and decreases mucosal lipid peroxidation in common bile duct ligation and chronic portal hypertension in rats.¹⁷⁹ Glutamine has been shown to be an effective amino acid for reducing the translocation of bacterial across intestinal walls in animal models.^{180, 181} The mechanism of action is proposed to be an increase of secretory IgA (sIgA), an increase of villous height, and an increase in mucosal thickness to improve the intestinal barrier and decrease bacterial translocation and adherence. An older study by White et al. demonstrated that the enteral administration of glutamine resulted in decreased bacterial translocation to extra-intestinal sites and that glutamine can reduce intestinal permeability.¹⁸² The protective effects of glutamine also include reduced bacterial translocation in blood. This study was supported a murine acute graft vs. host disease model that demonstrated the use of oral glutamine reduced gastrointestinal permeability, reduced TNF- α expression, increased occluding, and resulted in less apoptotic cells in the crypt of the intestine.¹⁸³ Arginine is another amino acid that has also been shown to decrease bacterial

translocation, as measured by the decreased level of bacteria in mesenteric lymph nodes in rats.¹⁸⁴ Curcumin is a member of the ginger family that is related to turmeric spice. A study by Karatepe et al. demonstrated that curcumin was able to reduce the amount of intestinal bacterial translocation into blood in a rat model.¹⁸⁵

Chinese herbal supplements have demonstrated positive effects on gut flora and enhance the immune system. One study by Huang et al. demonstrated that the use of Chinese medicine herbs such as Panax ginseng, Dioscoreaceae opposite, *Atractylodes macrocephala*, *Glycyrrhiza uralensis*, *Ziziphus jujube*, and *Platycodon grandiflorum* can increase lactobacilli counts in the ileum and decrease coliform counts in the colon. The immune activities of polymorphonuclear leucocytes were also enhanced, including enhancement of the respiratory burst, in weanling pigs.¹⁸⁶ Fermented dietary herbs, such as *Rhizoma Atractylodis Macrocephalae*, *Massa Medicata Fermentata*, and *Dolichoris Semen*, have been shown to protect against lipopolysaccharide, an endotoxin that triggers the systemic inflammatory response.¹⁸⁷ Phosphatidylcholine is a phospholipid that is a component of biological membranes. Studies have shown that the use of phosphatidylcholine supplementation can protect against bacterial translocation in a colitis rat model.^{188, 189}

Probiotics: *Lactobacillus* is a naturally-occurring bacterium that resides in human digestive and GU tracts.¹⁸⁴ It is also present in fermented foods such as yogurt and dietary supplements. *Lactobacillus plantarum* has been shown to be effective at adhering to gut mucosa and reducing endotoxin and microbacterial translocation out of the digestive tract.¹⁹⁰ *Lactobacillus plantarum* and *lactobacillus reuteri* reduced bacterial translocation, recreated intestinal microbiology, and decreased enzyme myeloperoxidase in the intestine.¹⁹¹ *Saccharomyces boulardii*, a beneficial baker's yeast, stimulates host defense mechanisms and increases IgA, which has been shown to decrease the translocation of *Candida* from the gut to the mesenteric lymph nodes in animal models.¹⁹²⁻¹⁹⁴

Alternative medicine: Growth hormone, when combined with glutamine, improved the intestinal barrier in portal hypertension patients by decreasing intestinal permeability and improving mucosal integrity.¹⁹⁵ Cellulose fiber has been demonstrated to decrease bacterial translocation, but did not prevent bacterial overgrowth.¹⁹⁶⁻¹⁹⁸

Question 8: Is there a role for post-surgical monitoring of methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus (MRSA) colonization in the asymptomatic patient?

Consensus: We recommend against post-surgical monitoring of MRSA colonization in the asymptomatic patient.

Delegate Vote: Agree 98%, Disagree 2%, Abstain 0% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Post-surgical monitoring of MRSA colonization has not been shown to lead to reduced SSIs. The rate of *Staphylococcus aureus* colonization has been reported as high as 33% in the 3-30 month postoperative period after total joint arthroplasty (TJA)¹⁹⁹ and most of the bacteria have unchanged antibiotic sensitivity. Although these organisms may persist, *Staphylococcus aureus* colonization in the postoperative period has not been correlated with increased risk of SSI. Thus, monitoring and decolonizing patients who are *Staphylococcus aureus*-colonized may not prove an efficacious method for infection prevention and should not be encouraged until further studies are performed.

Consensus: We recommend that patients undergo repeat screening for *Staphylococcus aureus* and decolonization prior to additional arthroplasty.

Justification: Because decolonization does not persist in the postoperative phase, we recommend that patients be rescreened and decolonized for subsequent arthroplasty procedures after the index procedure. One study demonstrated that there was 70% persistent decolonization of MRSA and methicillin-sensitive *Staphylococcus aureus* (MSSA) at an average of 156 days after the index procedure.²⁰⁰ However, at 213 days, 30% of the patients were no longer decolonized. Repeat testing indicated that two new patients developed MRSA and 35 new patients developed MSSA. Thus, rescreening and decolonization of *Staphylococcus aureus*-colonized patients is recommended prior to any repeat arthroplasty procedures.

Question 9: What are the methods to identify extra-articular sources of late PJI?

Consensus: Extra-articular sources that contribute to late PJI should be identified by obtaining history, performing a thorough physical exam, laboratory testing, and imaging of suspected areas of infection.

Delegate Vote: Agree 92%, Disagree 3%, Abstain 5% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: To identify the source of infection, performing a proper history and physical examination can narrow down the region of interest. Once the area of suspected infection is identified, laboratory testing, imaging, and examination by specialists can further refine the source and provide a solution for eradicating the infection. The strongest evidence for an extra-articular source of PJI is cultures of the same pathogen that are found intra-articularly and from the extra-articular source of infection.

The most common method of acquiring a late PJI is by hematogenous spread.^{201, 202} Thus, most organs that are infected in the body can become an extra-articular source of a late PJI. The main sources of extra-articular PJIs by body systems are as follows: dental, cardiac, lungs, GI, GU, integumentary, and blood stream.

Dental abscesses can also be sources of extra-articular infection. *Actinomyces israelii* is an organism responsible for dental carriers and this organism has been isolated in PJI.²⁰³

Actinomyces naeslundii is another organism that has been identified in late PJI secondary to routine dental work on a molar tooth.²⁰⁴ Patients who have a high suspicion for dental infection should be seen by a dentist and appropriate repairs (eg dental extraction) should be performed.

For cardiac issues such as infective endocarditis,^{205, 206} an echocardiogram can identify vegetations. Patients who are IV drug users have a higher likelihood of developing infective endocarditis that can produce septic emboli. IV antibiotics are the treatment of choice.

For the lungs, infectious conditions such as pneumonia can be an extra-articular source of infection.²⁰⁷ Pneumonia can also be superimposed on chronic conditions such as chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and asthma. The use of imaging such as a chest x-ray or computed tomography (CT) scan can identify pneumonia, or pulmonary testing can diagnose chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. Sputum cultures can be used to identify the appropriate organisms to treat with IV antibiotics.

Inflammatory conditions in the GI system²⁰⁸ such as cholecystitis and cholangitis can seed the prosthesis with bacteria.²⁰⁹ Other diseases such as diverticulitis can also predispose patients to PJIs, as well as chronic conditions such as liver disease (eg hepatitis).²¹⁰ Imaging modalities, such as CT scans with oral contrast, can elucidate GI pathology, in addition to direct visualization using endoscopy. However, endoscopy is not benign, as the performance of health maintenance tests, such as routine colonoscopies, can result in PJIs. One case report described a patient who developed a *Listeria monocytogenes* infection in a total knee arthroplasty.¹⁵⁰

There are multiple conditions within the GU system that can provide an extra-articular source for a PJI. Systemic bacteremia is increased with routine procedures such as a transrectal prostate

biopsy.¹⁶⁷ Performing a prostatectomy for prostatic carcinoma lead to the development of a *Klebsiella pneumoniae* periprosthetic knee infection in one patient.¹⁶⁹ The bacteria from sexually transmitted diseases, such as gonorrhea,²¹¹ can also infect TJA implants. Infections of the urinary tract, including cystitis and pyuria, are extra-articular sources of infection that are associated with increased risk of PJI.^{212, 213} If a urinary tract infection is suspected, a urine sample should be sent for urinalysis and culture. However, treatment of asymptomatic bacteriuria is controversial.²¹⁴ Advance imaging using ultrasound or CT can be preformed to identify the source of infection. Microbiology testing of discharged bodily fluids may also provide cultures by which to guide antibiotic management.

Skin lesions from immunocompromised skin such as with psoriasis²¹⁵ or chronic venous ulcers can be a source of extra-articular bacterial leading to PJI; however, some studies have demonstrated that there is no association.^{216, 217} Thorough checks for breaks in the skin can identify wounds that can be treated by wound care specialists and dermatology consultations. Direct seeding of the bloodstream with bacteria, as in the use of IV drugs, can result in hematogenous spread to the prosthesis.²¹⁸ Catheters can become colonized by skin flora and can directly seed the blood stream.^{219, 220} Removal of catheters can reduce the risk of infection and culturing the catheter tips can provide an organism to treat.

Question 10: When should further workup for postoperative fevers be performed after TJA?

Consensus: We recommend against the routine workup of fevers greater than 38.5°C in the immediate postoperative period. However, the workup of persistent fevers after postoperative day 3 may be warranted.

Delegate Vote: Agree 81%, Disagree 15%, Abstain 4% (Strong Consensus)

Justification: Fevers in the immediate postoperative period are common after TJA. However, when patients present with temperatures greater than 39.0°C, especially for multiple days and after postoperative day 3, a workup that includes urinalysis, urine culture, blood culture, and chest x-ray are warranted. Additionally, examination for deep vein thrombosis, infected IV lines, and drug-related fevers should be included in the workup if there is high clinical suspicion. Treating these infections may reduce the risk of causing a late PJI.

In the immediate postoperative period after TJA, patients commonly sustain elevated body temperatures due to the invasion of surgery.²²¹⁻²²³ This associated with increased tissue, joint fluid, and serum concentrations of inflammatory molecules, including IL-1 β from drain fluid and IL-6, which can be detected in serum and joint fluid.²²⁴ Postoperative fevers may be routine in the postoperative period or can be caused by a multitude of factors, including urinary tract infections, blood borne infections, pneumonia, deep vein thrombosis, pulmonary emboli, SSIs, IV line infections, or drug fevers. These are often evaluated by urinalysis, urine culture, blood cultures, chest x-rays, doppler ultrasounds, wound or joint cultures, IV line cultures, or ceasing the administration of certain drugs. However, multiple studies within the orthopaedic literature have demonstrated that a postoperative fever, especially within the first 3 days, has a low association with the development of PJI. Kennedy et al. demonstrated that none of the patients that exhibited a temperature greater than 39°C developed a PJI and that postoperative fevers were correlated with a drop in hematocrit or a subsequent transfusion within 5 days after surgery.²²⁵ Guinn et al. demonstrated that 14/158 (8.9%) TKAs developed a postoperative fever that could be attributed to laboratory findings. Their study demonstrated that unilateral TKA patients were more likely to sustain a complication and that urinalysis, aggressive pulmonary toilet, and repeat physical exams were helpful with diagnosis.²²⁶ Shaw and Chung demonstrated that out of 100 TKAs and 100 THAs none developed a PJI and that positive urine cultures did not correlate with a febrile response.²²⁷ Postoperative temperatures were greatest on postoperative day 1. When using fever ($\leq 38^{\circ}\text{C}$) as a diagnostic test for developing PJI, the sensitivity was 0.286 (95% confidence interval (CI)=0.084-0.581), the specificity was 0.628 (95% CI=0.548-0.704) and the positive predictive value was 0.065 (95% CI=0.018-0.157).²²⁸ Blood cultures have low utility when working up postoperative fevers. In a study by Bindelglass and Pellegrino, blood cultures were drawn on 40/240 TKAs and 31/124 THAs, of which only 2 patients came back with positive results. Both of these results were thought to be contaminants. Performing routine blood cultures to work up postoperative fevers was not found to be cost-effective.²²⁹ A study conducted by Tai et al. demonstrated that patients who were diagnosed with PJIs had peak body temperatures reported on postoperative day 4 and these fevers were often sustained for 3 to 4 days.²³⁰ Thus, postoperative fever workups were recommended in patients who sustained later and prolonged fevers. Additionally, working up all postoperative fevers can be expensive and the cost may not be warranted. A study by Ward et al. demonstrated that the routine evaluation of postoperative fever ($>38.5^{\circ}\text{C}$) over a 2-year period was \$73,878, which amounted to a charge of \$959.45 for a fever evaluation per patient.²³¹ However, fevers that occurred after postoperative day 3 were sustained for multiple events (<1)

and had a temperature > 39.0°C were more likely to be associated with a positive workup. Thus, in this patient population, a febrile workup after TJA may be warranted.

References:

1. Coventry MB. Treatment of infections occurring in total hip surgery. *Orthop Clin North Am.* 1975;6(4):991-1003.
2. Garvin KL, Hanssen AD. Infection after total hip arthroplasty. Past, present, and future. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1995;77(10):1576-1588.
3. McPherson EJ, Woodson C, Holtom P, Roidis N, Shufelt C, Patzakis M. Periprosthetic total hip infection: outcomes using a staging system. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2002(403):8-15.
4. Sendi P, Banderet F, Graber P, Zimmerli W. Clinical comparison between exogenous and haematogenous periprosthetic joint infections caused by *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2011;17(7):1098-1100.
5. Cipriano CA, Brown NM, Michael AM, Moric M, Sporer SM, Della Valle CJ. Serum and synovial fluid analysis for diagnosing chronic periprosthetic infection in patients with inflammatory arthritis. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2012;94(7):594-600.
6. Chryssikos T, Parvizi J, Ghanem E, Newberg A, Zhuang H, Alavi A. FDG-PET imaging can diagnose periprosthetic infection of the hip. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2008;466(6):1338-1342.
7. Delank KS, Schmidt M, Michael JW, Dietlein M, Schicha H, Eysel P. The implications of 18F-FDG PET for the diagnosis of endoprosthetic loosening and infection in hip and knee arthroplasty: results from a prospective, blinded study. *BMC Musculoskelet Disord.* 2006;7:20.
8. Gemmel F, Van den Wyngaert H, Love C, Welling MM, Gemmel P, Palestro CJ. Prosthetic joint infections: radionuclide state-of-the-art imaging. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging.* 2012;39(5):892-909.
9. Glithero PR, Grigoris P, Harding LK, Hesslewood SR, McMinn DJ. White cell scans and infected joint replacements. Failure to detect chronic infection. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1993;75(3):371-374.
10. Graute V, Feist M, Lehner S, et al. Detection of low-grade prosthetic joint infections using 99mTc-antigranulocyte SPECT/CT: initial clinical results. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging.* 2010;37(9):1751-1759.
11. Kobayashi N, Inaba Y, Choe H, et al. Use of F-18 fluoride PET to differentiate septic from aseptic loosening in total hip arthroplasty patients. *Clin Nucl Med.* 2011;36(11):e156-161.
12. Love C, Marwin SE, Tomas MB, et al. Diagnosing infection in the failed joint replacement: a comparison of coincidence detection 18F-FDG and 111In-labeled leukocyte/99mTc-sulfur colloid marrow imaging. *J Nucl Med.* 2004;45(11):1864-1871.
13. Magnuson JE, Brown ML, Hauser MF, Berquist TH, Fitzgerald RH, Jr., Klee GG. In-111-labeled leukocyte scintigraphy in suspected orthopedic prosthesis infection: comparison with other imaging modalities. *Radiology.* 1988;168(1):235-239.
14. Nagoya S, Kaya M, Sasaki M, Tateda K, Yamashita T. Diagnosis of peri-prosthetic infection at the hip using triple-phase bone scintigraphy. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2008;90(2):140-144.
15. Savarino L, Baldini N, Tarabusi C, Pellacani A, Giunti A. Diagnosis of infection after total hip replacement. *J Biomed Mater Res B Appl Biomater.* 2004;70(1):139-145.
16. Scher DM, Pak K, Lonner JH, Finkel JE, Zuckerman JD, Di Cesare PE. The predictive value of indium-111 leukocyte scans in the diagnosis of infected total hip, knee, or resection arthroplasties. *J Arthroplasty.* 2000;15(3):295-300.

17. Segura AB, Munoz A, Brulles YR, et al. What is the role of bone scintigraphy in the diagnosis of infected joint prostheses? *Nucl Med Commun.* 2004;25(5):527-532.
18. Sousa R, Massada M, Pereira A, Fontes F, Amorim I, Oliveira A. Diagnostic accuracy of combined ^{99m}Tc-sulesomab and ^{99m}Tc-nanocolloid bone marrow imaging in detecting prosthetic joint infection. *Nucl Med Commun.* 2011;32(9):834-839.
19. Aggarwal VK, Higuera C, Deirmengian G, Parvizi J, Austin MS. Swab Cultures Are Not As Effective As Tissue Cultures for Diagnosis of Periprosthetic Joint Infection. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* Apr 9 2013. Epub before print.
20. Tsaras G, Maduka-Ezeh A, Inwards CY, et al. Utility of intraoperative frozen section histopathology in the diagnosis of periprosthetic joint infection: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 19;94(18):1700-1711.
21. Della Valle C, Parvizi J, Bauer TW, et al. American Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons clinical practice guideline on: the diagnosis of periprosthetic joint infections of the hip and knee. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 20 2010;93(14):1355-1357.
22. Parvizi J, Ghanem E, Menashe S, Barrack RL, Bauer TW. Periprosthetic infection: what are the diagnostic challenges? *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2006;88 Suppl 4:138-147.
23. Schinsky MF, Della Valle CJ, Sporer SM, Paprosky WG. Perioperative testing for joint infection in patients undergoing revision total hip arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2008;90(9):1869-1875.
24. Spangehl MJ, Masri BA, O'Connell JX, Duncan CP. Prospective analysis of preoperative and intraoperative investigations for the diagnosis of infection at the sites of two hundred and two revision total hip arthroplasties. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1999;81(5):672-683.
25. Spangehl MJ, Masterson E, Masri BA, O'Connell JX, Duncan CP. The role of intraoperative gram stain in the diagnosis of infection during revision total hip arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 1999;14(8):952-956.
26. Deirmengian C, Hallab N, Tarabishy A, et al. Synovial fluid biomarkers for periprosthetic infection. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2010;468(8):2017-2023.
27. Kersey R, Benjamin J, Marson B. White blood cell counts and differential in synovial fluid of aseptically failed total knee arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 2000;15(3):301-304.
28. Mason JB, Fehring TK, Odum SM, Griffin WL, Nussman DS. The value of white blood cell counts before revision total knee arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 2003;18(8):1038-1043.
29. Trampuz A, Hanssen AD, Osmon DR, Mandrekar J, Steckelberg JM, Patel R. Synovial fluid leukocyte count and differential for the diagnosis of prosthetic knee infection. *Am J Med.* 2004;117(8):556-562.
30. Della Valle CJ, Sporer SM, Jacobs JJ, Berger RA, Rosenberg AG, Paprosky WG. Preoperative testing for sepsis before revision total knee arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 2007;22(6 Suppl 2):90-93.
31. Ghanem E, Parvizi J, Burnett RS, et al. Cell count and differential of aspirated fluid in the diagnosis of infection at the site of total knee arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2008;90(8):1637-1643.
32. Parvizi J, Ghanem E, Sharkey P, Aggarwal A, Burnett RS, Barrack RL. Diagnosis of infected total knee: findings of a multicenter database. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2008;466(11):2628-2633.
33. Jacovides CL, Parvizi J, Adeli B, Jung KA. Molecular markers for diagnosis of periprosthetic joint infection. *J Arthroplasty.* 2011;26(6 Suppl):99-103 e101.
34. Parvizi J, Jacovides C, Antoci V, Ghanem E. Diagnosis of periprosthetic joint infection: the utility of a simple yet unappreciated enzyme. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2011;93(24):2242-2248.
35. Schafer P, Fink B, Sandow D, Margull A, Berger I, Frommelt L. Prolonged bacterial culture to identify late periprosthetic joint infection: a promising strategy. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2008;47(11):1403-1409.

36. Fink B, Gebhard A, Fuerst M, Berger I, Schafer P. High diagnostic value of synovial biopsy in periprosthetic joint infection of the hip. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2013;471(3):956-964.
37. Corvec S, Portillo ME, Pasticci BM, Borens O, Trampuz A. Epidemiology and new developments in the diagnosis of prosthetic joint infection. *Int J Artif Organs.* 2012;35(10):923-934.
38. Trampuz A, Piper KE, Jacobson MJ, et al. Sonication of removed hip and knee prostheses for diagnosis of infection. *N Engl J Med.* 2007;357(7):654-663.
39. De Man FH, Graber P, Luem M, Zimmerli W, Ochsner PE, Sendi P. Broad-range PCR in selected episodes of prosthetic joint infection. *Infection.* 2009;37(3):292-294.
40. Mariani BD, Levine MJ, Booth RE, Jr., Tuan RS. Development of a novel, rapid processing protocol for polymerase chain reaction-based detection of bacterial infections in synovial fluids. *Mol Biotechnol.* 1995;4(3):227-237.
41. Mariani BD, Martin DS, Levine MJ, Booth RE, Jr., Tuan RS. The Coventry Award. Polymerase chain reaction detection of bacterial infection in total knee arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1996(331):11-22.
42. Levine MJ, Mariani BA, Tuan RS, Booth RE, Jr. Molecular genetic diagnosis of infected total joint arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty.* 1995;10(1):93-94.
43. Bergin PF, Doppelt JD, Hamilton WG, et al. Detection of periprosthetic infections with use of ribosomal RNA-based polymerase chain reaction. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2010;92(3):654-663.
44. Birmingham P, Helm JM, Manner PA, Tuan RS. Simulated joint infection assessment by rapid detection of live bacteria with real-time reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2008;90(3):602-608.
45. Cazanave C, Greenwood-Quaintance KE, Hanssen AD, et al. Rapid molecular microbiologic diagnosis of prosthetic joint infection. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2013;51(7):2280-2287.
46. Barber HM, Feil EJ, Galasko CS, et al. A comparative study of dextran-70, warfarin and low-dose heparin for the prophylaxis of thrombo-embolism following total hip replacement. *Postgrad Med J.* 1977;53(617):130-133.
47. Bozic KJ, Vail TP, Pekow PS, Maselli JH, Lindenauer PK, Auerbach AD. Does aspirin have a role in venous thromboembolism prophylaxis in total knee arthroplasty patients? *J Arthroplasty.* 2010;25(7):1053-1060.
48. Chin PL, Amin MS, Yang KY, Yeo SJ, Lo NN. Thromboembolic prophylaxis for total knee arthroplasty in Asian patients: a randomised controlled trial. *J Orthop Surg (Hong Kong).* 2009;17(1):1-5.
49. Asensio A, Antolin FJ, Sanchez-Garcia JM, et al. Timing of DVT prophylaxis and risk of postoperative knee prosthesis infection. *Orthopedics.* 2010;33(11):800.
50. Parvizi J, Ghanem E, Joshi A, Sharkey PF, Hozack WJ, Rothman RH. Does "excessive" anticoagulation predispose to periprosthetic infection? *J Arthroplasty.* 2007;22(6 Suppl 2):24-28.
51. Burnett RS, Clohisy JC, Wright RW, et al. Failure of the American College of Chest Physicians-1A protocol for lovenox in clinical outcomes for thromboembolic prophylaxis. *J Arthroplasty.* 2007;22(3):317-324.
52. Kurtz SM, Ong KL, Lau E, Bozic KJ, Berry D, Parvizi J. Prosthetic joint infection risk after TKA in the Medicare population. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2010;468(1):52-56.
53. LaPorte DM, Waldman BJ, Mont MA, Hungerford DS. Infections associated with dental procedures in total hip arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1999;81(1):56-59.
54. Ong KL, Kurtz SM, Lau E, Bozic KJ, Berry DJ, Parvizi J. Prosthetic joint infection risk after total hip arthroplasty in the Medicare population. *J Arthroplasty.* 2009;24(6 Suppl):105-109.
55. Berbari EF, Osmon DR, Carr A, et al. Dental procedures as risk factors for prosthetic hip or knee infection: a hospital-based prospective case-control study. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2010;50(1):8-16.

56. Skaar DD, O'Connor H, Hodges JS, Michalowicz BS. Dental procedures and subsequent prosthetic joint infections: findings from the Medicare Current Beneficiary Survey. *J Am Dent Assoc.* 2011;142(12):1343-1351.
57. Ali MT, Tremewen DR, Hay AJ, Wilkinson DJ. The occurrence of bacteraemia associated with the use of oral and nasopharyngeal airways. *Anaesthesia.* 1992;47(2):153-155.
58. Baumgartner JC, Heggors JP, Harrison JW. The incidence of bacteremias related to endodontic procedures. I. Nonsurgical endodontics. *J Endod.* 1976;2(5):135-140.
59. Bender IB, Seltzer S, Tashman S, Meloff G. Dental procedures in patients with rheumatic heart disease. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol.* 1963;16:466-473.
60. Berger SA, Weitzman S, Edberg SC, Casey JI. Bacteremia after the use of an oral irrigation device. A controlled study in subjects with normal-appearing gingiva: comparison with use of toothbrush. *Ann Intern Med.* 1974;80(4):510-511.
61. Brown AR, Papasian CJ, Shultz P, Theisen FC, Shultz RE. Bacteremia and intraoral suture removal: can an antimicrobial rinse help? *J Am Dent Assoc.* 1998;129(10):1455-1461.
62. Casolari C, Neglia R, Forabosco A, Galetti R, Fabio U. Incidence of oral bacteremia and antimicrobial prophylaxis. *J Chemother.* 1989;1(4 Suppl):968-971.
63. Cherry M, Daly CG, Mitchell D, Highfield J. Effect of rinsing with povidone-iodine on bacteraemia due to scaling: a randomized-controlled trial. *J Clin Periodontol.* 2007;34(2):148-155.
64. Crasta K, Daly CG, Mitchell D, Curtis B, Stewart D, Heitz-Mayfield LJ. Bacteraemia due to dental flossing. *J Clin Periodontol.* 2009;36(4):323-332.
65. Daly C, Mitchell D, Grossberg D, Highfield J, Stewart D. Bacteraemia caused by periodontal probing. *Aust Dent J.* 1997;42(2):77-80.
66. Daly CG, Mitchell DH, Highfield JE, Grossberg DE, Stewart D. Bacteremia due to periodontal probing: a clinical and microbiological investigation. *J Periodontol.* 2001;72(2):210-214.
67. De Leo AA, Schoenknecht FD, Anderson MW, Peterson JC. The incidence of bacteremia following oral prophylaxis on pediatric patients. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol.* 1974;37(1):36-45.
68. Dinner M, Tjeuw M, Artusio JF, Jr. Bacteremia as a complication of nasotracheal intubation. *Anesth Analg.* 1987;66(5):460-462.
69. Enabuele OI, Aluyi HSA, Omokao O. Incidence of bacteraemia following teerh extraction at the dental clinic of the University of Benin Teaching Hospital. *African Journal of Biotechnology.* 2008;10:1390-1393.
70. Erverdi N, Kadir T, Ozkan H, Acar A. Investigation of bacteremia after orthodontic banding. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop.* 1999;116(6):687-690.
71. Felix JE, Rosen S, App GR. Detection of bacteremia after the use of an oral irrigation device in subjects with periodontitis. *J Periodontol.* 1971;42(12):785-787.
72. Forner L, Nielsen CH, Bendtzen K, Larsen T, Holmstrup P. Increased plasma levels of IL-6 in bacteremic periodontitis patients after scaling. *J Clin Periodontol.* 2006;33(10):724-729.
73. Gurel HG, Basciftci FA, Arslan U. Transient bacteremia after removal of a bonded maxillary expansion appliance. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop.* 2009;135(2):190-193.
74. Hansen CP, Westh H, Brok KE, Jensen R, Bertelsen S. Bacteraemia following orotracheal intubation and oesophageal balloon dilatation. *Thorax.* 1989;44(8):684-685.
75. Heimdahl A, Hall G, Hedberg M, et al. Detection and quantitation by lysis-filtration of bacteremia after different oral surgical procedures. *J Clin Microbiol.* 1990;28(10):2205-2209.
76. Josefsson K, Heimdahl A, von Konow L, Nord CE. Effect of phenoxymethylpenicillin and erythromycin prophylaxis on anaerobic bacteraemia after oral surgery. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 1985;16(2):243-251.
77. Khairat O. The non-aerobes of post-extraction bacteremia. *J Dent Res.* 1966;45(4):1191-1197.

78. King RC, Crawford JJ, Small EW. Bacteremia following intraoral suture removal. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol.* 1988;65(1):23-28.
79. Lafaurie GI, Mayorga-Fayad I, Torres MF, et al. Periodontopathic microorganisms in peripheral blood after scaling and root planing. *J Clin Periodontol.* 2007;34(10):873-879.
80. Lineberger LT, De Marco TJ. Evaluation of transient bacteremia following routine periodontal procedures. *J Periodontol.* 1973;44(12):757-762.
81. Lockhart PB, Brennan MT, Sasser HC, Fox PC, Paster BJ, Bahrani-Mougeot FK. Bacteremia associated with toothbrushing and dental extraction. *Circulation.* 2008;117(24):3118-3125.
82. Lofthus JE, Waki MY, Jolkovsky DL, et al. Bacteremia following subgingival irrigation and scaling and root planing. *J Periodontol.* 1991;62(10):602-607.
83. Lucartorto FM, Franker CK, Maza J. Postscaling bacteremia in HIV-associated gingivitis and periodontitis. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol.* 1992;73(5):550-554.
84. Morozumi T, Kubota T, Abe D, Shimizu T, Komatsu Y, Yoshie H. Effects of irrigation with an antiseptic and oral administration of azithromycin on bacteremia caused by scaling and root planing. *J Periodontol.* 2010;81(11):1555-1563.
85. Oncag O, Cokmez B, Aydemir S, Balcioglu T. Investigation of bacteremia following nasotracheal intubation. *Paediatr Anaesth.* 2005;15(3):194-198.
86. Pineiro A, Tomas I, Blanco J, Alvarez M, Seoane J, Diz P. Bacteraemia following dental implants' placement. *Clin Oral Implants Res.* 2010;21(9):913-918.
87. Ramadan AE, Zaki SA, Nour ZM. A study of transient bacteremia following the use of dental floss silk and interdental stimulators. *Egypt Dent J.* 1975;21(4):19-28.
88. Rogosa M, Hampp EG, Nevin TA, Wagner HN, Jr., Driscoll EJ, Baer PN. Blood sampling and cultural studies in the detection of postoperative bacteremias. *J Am Dent Assoc.* 1960;60:171-180.
89. Romans AR, App GR. Bacteremia, a result from oral irrigation in subjects with gingivitis. *J Periodontol.* 1971;42(12):757-760.
90. Savarrio L, Mackenzie D, Riggio M, Saunders WP, Bagg J. Detection of bacteraemias during non-surgical root canal treatment. *J Dent.* 2005;33(4):293-303.
91. Sconyers JR, Albers DD, Kelly R. Relationship of bacteremia to toothbrushing in clinically healthy patients. *Gen Dent.* 1979;27(3):51-52.
92. Sconyers JR, Crawford JJ, Moriarty JD. Relationship of bacteremia to toothbrushing in patients with periodontitis. *J Am Dent Assoc.* 1973;87(3):616-622.
93. Takai S, Kuriyama T, Yanagisawa M, Nakagawa K, Karasawa T. Incidence and bacteriology of bacteremia associated with various oral and maxillofacial surgical procedures. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod.* 2005;99(3):292-298.
94. Valdes C, Tomas I, Alvarez M, Limeres J, Medina J, Diz P. The incidence of bacteraemia associated with tracheal intubation. *Anaesthesia.* 2008;63(6):588-592.
95. Wada K, Tomizawa M, Sasaki I. Study on bacteremia in patients with pyorrhea alveolaris caused by surgical operations. *J Nihon Univ Sch Dent.* 1968;10(2):52-57.
96. Waki MY, Jolkovsky DL, Otomo-Corgel J, et al. Effects of subgingival irrigation on bacteremia following scaling and root planing. *J Periodontol.* 1990;61(7):405-411.
97. Wampole HS, Allen AL, Gross A. The incidence of transient bacteremia during periodontal dressing change. *J Periodontol.* 1978;49(9):462-464.
98. Wank HA, Levison ME, Rose LF, Cohen DW. A quantitative measurement of bacteremia and its relationship to plaque control. *J Periodontol.* 1976;47(12):683-686.
99. Friedlander AH. Antibiotic prophylaxis after total joint replacement. *Hong Kong Med J.* 2010;16(4):320; author reply 321.
100. Jacobson JJ, Patel B, Asher G, Woolliscroft JO, Schaberg D. Oral staphylococcus in older subjects with rheumatoid arthritis. *J Am Geriatr Soc.* 1997;45(5):590-593.

101. Poss R, 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(182):117-126.
102. Berbari EF, Hanssen AD, Duffy MC, et al. Risk factors for prosthetic joint infection: case-control study. *Clin Infect Dis*. 1998;27(5):1247-1254.
103. Jacobson JJ, Millard HD, Plezia R, Blankenship JR. Dental treatment and late prosthetic joint infections. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol*. 1986;61(4):413-417.
104. Murray RP, Bourne MH, Fitzgerald RH, Jr. Metachronous infections in patients who have had more than one total joint arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 1991;73(10):1469-1474.
105. Nadlacan LM, Hirst P. Infected total knee replacement following a dental procedure in a severe haemophiliac. *Knee*. 2001;8(2):159-161.
106. Lockhart PB, Brennan MT, Thornhill M, et al. Poor oral hygiene as a risk factor for infective endocarditis-related bacteremia. *J Am Dent Assoc*. 2009;140(10):1238-1244.
107. Silver JG, Martin AW, McBride BC. Experimental transient bacteraemias in human subjects with varying degrees of plaque accumulation and gingival inflammation. *J Clin Periodontol*. 1977;4(2):92-99.
108. Bhanji S, Williams B, Sheller B, Elwood T, Mancl L. Transient bacteremia induced by toothbrushing a comparison of the Sonicare toothbrush with a conventional toothbrush. *Pediatr Dent*. 2002;24(4):295-299.
109. Diz Dios P, Tomas Carmona I, Limeres Posse J, Medina Henriquez J, Fernandez Feijoo J, Alvarez Fernandez M. Comparative efficacies of amoxicillin, clindamycin, and moxifloxacin in prevention of bacteremia following dental extractions. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2006;50(9):2996-3002.
110. Lockhart PB, Brennan MT, Kent ML, Norton HJ, Weinrib DA. Impact of amoxicillin prophylaxis on the incidence, nature, and duration of bacteremia in children after intubation and dental procedures. *Circulation*. 2004;109(23):2878-2884.
111. Maskell JP, Carter JL, Boyd RB, Williams RJ. Teicoplanin as a prophylactic antibiotic for dental bacteraemia. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 1986;17(5):651-659.
112. Roberts GJ, Radford P, Holt R. Prophylaxis of dental bacteraemia with oral amoxycillin in children. *Br Dent J*. 1987;162(5):179-182.
113. Shanson DC, Cannon P, Wilks M. Amoxycillin compared with penicillin V for the prophylaxis of dental bacteraemia. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 1978;4(5):431-436.
114. Vergis EN, Demas PN, Vaccarello SJ, Yu VL. Topical antibiotic prophylaxis for bacteremia after dental extractions. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod*. 2001;91(2):162-165.
115. Wilson W, Taubert KA, Gewitz M, et al. Prevention of infective endocarditis: guidelines from the American Heart Association: a guideline from the American Heart Association Rheumatic Fever, Endocarditis, and Kawasaki Disease Committee, Council on Cardiovascular Disease in the Young, and the Council on Clinical Cardiology, Council on Cardiovascular Surgery and Anesthesia, and the Quality of Care and Outcomes Research Interdisciplinary Working Group. *Circulation*. 2007;116(15):1736-1754.
116. Hall G, Heimdahl A, Nord CE. Effects of prophylactic administration of cefaclor on transient bacteremia after dental extraction. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis*. 1996;15(8):646-649.
117. Aitken C, Cannell H, Sefton AM, et al. Comparative efficacy of oral doses of clindamycin and erythromycin in the prevention of bacteraemia. *Br Dent J*. 1995;178(11):418-422.
118. deVries J, Francis LE, Lang D. Control of post-extraction bacteraemias in the penicillin-hypersensitive patient. *J Can Dent Assoc (Tor)*. 1972;38(2):63-66.
119. Cannell H, Kerawala C, Sefton AM, et al. Failure of two macrolide antibiotics to prevent post-extraction bacteraemia. *Br Dent J*. 1991;171(6):170-173.

120. Shanson DC, Akash S, Harris M, Tadayon M. Erythromycin stearate, 1.5 g, for the oral prophylaxis of streptococcal bacteraemia in patients undergoing dental extraction: efficacy and tolerance. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 1985;15(1):83-90.
121. Head TW, Bentley KC, Millar EP, deVries JA. A comparative study of the effectiveness of metronidazole and penicillin V in eliminating anaerobes from postextraction bacteremias. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol.* 1984;58(2):152-155.
122. Jokinen MA. Bacteremia following dental extraction and its prophylaxis. *Suom Hammaslaak Toim.* 1970;66(3):69-100.
123. Wahlmann U, Al-Nawas B, Jutte M, Wagner W. Clinical and microbiological efficacy of single dose cefuroxime prophylaxis for dental surgical procedures. *Int J Antimicrob Agents.* 1999;12(3):253-256.
124. Shanson DC, Shehata A, Tadayon M, Harris M. Comparison of intravenous teicoplanin with intramuscular amoxycillin for the prophylaxis of streptococcal bacteraemia in dental patients. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 1987;20(1):85-93.
125. Lehman CR, Ries MD, Paiement GD, Davidson AB. Infection after total joint arthroplasty in patients with human immunodeficiency virus or intravenous drug use. *J Arthroplasty.* 2001;16(3):330-335.
126. Peersman G, Laskin R, Davis J, Peterson M. Infection in total knee replacement: a retrospective review of 6489 total knee replacements. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2001;(392):15-23.
127. Pour AE, Matar WY, Jafari SM, Purtill JJ, Austin MS, Parvizi J. Total joint arthroplasty in patients with hepatitis C. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2011;93(15):1448-1454.
128. Bozic KJ, Ong K, Lau E, et al. Estimating risk in Medicare patients with THA: an electronic risk calculator for periprosthetic joint infection and mortality. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2013;471(2):574-583.
129. Bozic KJ, Lau E, Kurtz S, et al. Patient-related risk factors for periprosthetic joint infection and postoperative mortality following total hip arthroplasty in Medicare patients. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2012;94(9):794-800.
130. Everhart JS, Altneu E, Calhoun JH. Medical Comorbidities Are Independent Preoperative Risk Factors for Surgical Infection After Total Joint Arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* Mar 22 2013. Epub before print.
131. Pulido L, Ghanem E, Joshi A, Purtill JJ, Parvizi J. Periprosthetic joint infection: the incidence, timing, and predisposing factors. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2008;466(7):1710-1715.
132. Young J, De Sutter A, Merenstein D, et al. Antibiotics for adults with clinically diagnosed acute rhinosinusitis: a meta-analysis of individual patient data. *Lancet.* 2008;371(9616):908-914.
133. Reyes H, Guiscafre H, Munoz O, Perez-Cuevas R, Martinez H, Gutierrez G. Antibiotic noncompliance and waste in upper respiratory infections and acute diarrhea. *J Clin Epidemiol.* 1997;50(11):1297-1304.
134. Okeke IN, Lamikanra A, Edelman R. Socioeconomic and behavioral factors leading to acquired bacterial resistance to antibiotics in developing countries. *Emerg Infect Dis.* 1999;5(1):18-27.
135. LeFrock JL, Ellis CA, Turchik JB, Weinstein L. Transient bacteremia associated with sigmoidoscopy. *N Engl J Med.* 1973;289(9):467-469.
136. Coughlin GP, Butler RN, Alp MH, Grant AK. Colonoscopy and bacteraemia. *Gut.* 1977;18(8):678-679.
137. Dickman MD, Farrell R, Higgs RH, et al. Colonoscopy associated bacteremia. *Surg Gynecol Obstet.* 1976;142(2):173-176.
138. Norfleet RG, Mulholland DD, Mitchell PD, Philo J, Walters EW. Does bacteremia follow colonoscopy? *Gastroenterology.* 1976;70(1):20-21.
139. Geraci K, Simfendorfer C, Rosenthal M. Does bacteraemia follow colonoscopy. *Gastroenterology.* 1976;70:1189.

140. Leiberman TR. Bacteraemia and fibreoptic endoscopy. *Gastrointest Endosc.* 1976;23:36-37.
141. Kumar S, Abcarian H, Prasad ML, Lakshmanan S. Bacteremia associated with lower gastrointestinal endoscopy, fact or fiction? I. Colonoscopy. *Dis Colon Rectum.* 1982;25(2):131-134.
142. Kumar S, Abcarian H, Prasad ML, Lakshmanan S. Bacteremia associated with lower gastrointestinal endoscopy: fact or fiction? II. Proctosigmoidoscopy. *Dis Colon Rectum.* 1983;26(1):22-24.
143. Hirota WK, Petersen K, Baron TH, et al. Guidelines for antibiotic prophylaxis for GI endoscopy. *Gastrointest Endosc.* 2003;58(4):475-482.
144. Practice parameters for antibiotic prophylaxis to prevent infective endocarditis or infected prosthesis during colon and rectal endoscopy. The Standards Task Force. The American Society of Colon and Rectal Surgeons. *Dis Colon Rectum.* 2000;43(9):1193.
145. Meyer GW, Artis AL. Antibiotic prophylaxis for orthopedic prostheses and GI procedures: report of a survey. *Am J Gastroenterol.* 1997;92(6):989-991.
146. Barragan Casas JM, Hernandez Hernandez JM, Garcinuno Jimenez MA, et al. Bacteremia caused by digestive system endoscopy. *Rev Esp Enferm Dig.* 1999;91(2):105-116.
147. Nelson DB. Infectious disease complications of GI endoscopy: Part I, endogenous infections. *Gastrointest Endosc.* 2003;57(4):546-556.
148. Spach DH, Silverstein FE, Stamm WE. Transmission of infection by gastrointestinal endoscopy and bronchoscopy. *Ann Intern Med.* 1993;118(2):117-128.
149. Nelson DB. Infection control during gastrointestinal endoscopy. *J Lab Clin Med.* 2003;141(3):159-167.
150. Cornelius LK, Reddix RN, Jr., Carpenter JL. Periprosthetic knee joint infection following colonoscopy. A case report. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2003;85-A(12):2434-2436.
151. Zuckerman GR, O'Brien J, Halsted R. Antibiotic prophylaxis in patients with infectious risk factors undergoing gastrointestinal endoscopic procedures. *Gastrointest Endosc.* 1994;40(5):538-543.
152. Schlaeffer F, Riesenberk K, Mikolich D, Sikuler E, Niv Y. Serious bacterial infections after endoscopic procedures. *Arch Intern Med.* 1996;156(5):572-574.
153. Coelho-Prabhu N, Oxentenko AS, Osmon DR, et al. Increased risk of prosthetic joint infection associated with esophago-gastro-duodenoscopy with biopsy. *Acta Orthop.* 2013;84(1):82-86.
154. Bac DJ, van Blankenstein M, de Marie S, Fieren MW. Peritonitis following endoscopic polypectomy in a peritoneal dialysis patient: the need for antibiotic prophylaxis. *Infection.* 1994;22(3):220-221.
155. Lin YC, Lin WP, Huang JY, Lee SY. Polymicrobial peritonitis following colonoscopic polypectomy in a peritoneal dialysis patient. *Intern Med.* 2012;51(14):1841-1843.
156. Dajani AS, Taubert KA, Wilson W, et al. Prevention of bacterial endocarditis: recommendations by the American Heart Association. *Clin Infect Dis.* 1997;25(6):1448-1458.
157. Ainscow DA, Denham RA. The risk of haematogenous infection in total joint replacements. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1984;66(4):580-582.
158. Chihara S, Popovich KJ, Weinstein RA, Hota B. Staphylococcus aureus bacteriuria as a prognosticator for outcome of Staphylococcus aureus bacteremia: a case-control study. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2010;10:225.
159. Muder RR, Brennen C, Rihs JD, et al. Isolation of Staphylococcus aureus from the urinary tract: association of isolation with symptomatic urinary tract infection and subsequent staphylococcal bacteremia. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2006;42(1):46-50.
160. Bhanot N, Sahud AG, Sepkowitz D. Best practice policy statement on urologic surgery antimicrobial prophylaxis. *Urology.* 2009;74(1):236-237.

161. Sullivan NM, Sutter VL, Carter WT, Attebery HR, Finegold SM. Bacteremia after genitourinary tract manipulation: bacteriological aspects and evaluation of various blood culture systems. *Appl Microbiol.* 1972;23(6):1101-1106.
162. Breslin JA, Turner BI, Faber RB, Rhamy RK. Anaerobic infection as a consequence of transrectal prostatic biopsy. *J Urol.* 1978;120(4):502-503.
163. Edson RS, Van Scoy RE, Leary FJ. Gram-negative bacteremia after transrectal needle biopsy of the prostate. *Mayo Clin Proc.* 1980;55(8):489-491.
164. Gross M, Winkler H, Pitlik S, Weinberger M. Unexpected candidemia complicating ureteroscopy and urinary stenting. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis.* 1998;17(8):583-586.
165. Hedelin H, Claesson BE, Wilpart A. Febrile reactions after transrectal ultrasound-guided prostatic biopsy: a retrospective study. *Scand J Urol Nephrol.* 2011;45(6):393-396.
166. Thompson PM, Talbot RW, Packham DA, Dulake C. Transrectal biopsy of the prostate and bacteraemia. *Br J Surg.* 1980;67(2):127-128.
167. Thompson PM, Pryor JP, Williams JP, et al. The problem of infection after prostatic biopsy: the case for the transperineal approach. *Br J Urol.* 1982;54(6):736-740.
168. Zani EL, Clark OA, Rodrigues Netto N, Jr. Antibiotic prophylaxis for transrectal prostate biopsy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2011(5):CD006576.
169. Pepke W, Lehner B, Bekeredjian-Ding I, Egermann M. Haematogenous infection of a total knee arthroplasty with *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. *BMJ Case Rep.* 2013;2013.
170. Madsen PO, Larsen EH, Dorflinger T. Infectious complications after instrumentation of urinary tract. *Urology.* 1985;26(1 Suppl):15-17.
171. Vivien A, Lazard T, Rauss A, Laisne MJ, Bonnet F. Infection after transurethral resection of the prostate: variation among centers and correlation with a long-lasting surgical procedure. *Association pour la Recherche en Anesthesie-Reanimation. Eur Urol.* 1998;33(4):365-369.
172. Roth RA, Beckmann CF. Complications of extracorporeal shock-wave lithotripsy and percutaneous nephrolithotomy. *Urol Clin North Am.* 1988;15(2):155-166.
173. Zimhony O, Goland S, Malnick SD, Singer D, Geltner D. Enterococcal endocarditis after extracorporeal shock wave lithotripsy for nephrolithiasis. *Postgrad Med J.* 1996;72(843):51-52.
174. Tiozzi CL, Rodrigues FO, Santos AR, Franken RA, Mimica L, Tedesco JJ. [Bacteremia induced by labor. Is prophylaxis for infective endocarditis necessary?]. *Arq Bras Cardiol.* 1994;62(2):91-94.
175. Murray S, Hickey JB, Houang E. Significant bacteremia associated with replacement of intrauterine contraceptive device. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1987;156(3):698-700.
176. Silverman NS, Sullivan MW, Jungkind DL, Weinblatt V, Beavis K, Wapner RJ. Incidence of bacteremia associated with chorionic villus sampling. *Obstet Gynecol.* 1994;84(6):1021-1024.
177. Wolf JS, Jr., Bennett CJ, Dmochowski RR, Hollenbeck BK, Pearle MS, Schaeffer AJ. Best practice policy statement on urologic surgery antimicrobial prophylaxis. *J Urol.* 2008;179(4):1379-1390.
178. American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists Committee on Obstetric Practice. ACOG Committee Opinion No. 421, November 2008: antibiotic prophylaxis for infective endocarditis. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2008;112(5):1193-1194.
179. Schimpl G, Pesendorfer P, Steinwender G, Feierl G, Ratschek M, Hollwarth ME. The effect of vitamin C and vitamin E supplementation on bacterial translocation in chronic portal hypertensive and common-bile-duct-ligated rats. *Eur Surg Res.* 1997;29(3):187-194.
180. Gianotti L, Alexander JW, Gennari R, Pyles T, Babcock GF. Oral glutamine decreases bacterial translocation and improves survival in experimental gut-origin sepsis. *JPEN J Parenter Enteral Nutr.* 1995;19(1):69-74.
181. Zhang W, Frankel WL, Bain A, Choi D, Klurfeld DM, Rombeau JL. Glutamine reduces bacterial translocation after small bowel transplantation in cyclosporine-treated rats. *J Surg Res.* 1995;58(2):159-164.

182. White JS, Hoper M, Parks RW, Clements WD, Diamond T. Glutamine improves intestinal barrier function in experimental biliary obstruction. *Eur Surg Res.* 2005;37(6):342-347.
183. Noth R, Hasler R, Stuber E, et al. Oral glutamine supplementation improves intestinal permeability dysfunction in a murine acute graft-vs.-host disease model. *Am J Physiol Gastrointest Liver Physiol.* 2013;304(7):G646-654.
184. Gurbuz AT, Kunzelman J, Ratzner EE. Supplemental dietary arginine accelerates intestinal mucosal regeneration and enhances bacterial clearance following radiation enteritis in rats. *J Surg Res.* 1998;74(2):149-154.
185. Karatepe O, Acet E, Battal M, et al. Effects of glutamine and curcumin on bacterial translocation in jaundiced rats. *World J Gastroenterol.* 2010;16(34):4313-4320.
186. Huang CW, Lee TT, Shih YC, Yu B. Effects of dietary supplementation of Chinese medicinal herbs on polymorphonuclear neutrophil immune activity and small intestinal morphology in weanling pigs. *J Anim Physiol Anim Nutr (Berl).* 2012;96(2):285-294.
187. Bose S, Song MY, Nam JK, Lee MJ, Kim H. In vitro and in vivo protective effects of fermented preparations of dietary herbs against lipopolysaccharide insult. *Food Chem.* 2012;134(2):758-765.
188. Fabia R, Ar'Rajab A, Willen R, et al. Effects of phosphatidylcholine and phosphatidylinositol on acetic-acid-induced colitis in the rat. *Digestion.* 1992;53(1-2):35-44.
189. Wang XD, Andersson R, Soltesz V, Wang WQ, Ar'Rajab A, Bengmark S. Phospholipids prevent enteric bacterial translocation in the early stage of experimental acute liver failure in the rat. *Scand J Gastroenterol.* 1994;29(12):1117-1121.
190. Mangiante G, Canepari P, Colucci G, et al. [A probiotic as an antagonist of bacterial translocation in experimental pancreatitis]. *Chir Ital.* 1999;51(3):221-226.
191. Mao Y, Nobaek S, Kasravi B, et al. The effects of *Lactobacillus* strains and oat fiber on methotrexate-induced enterocolitis in rats. *Gastroenterology.* 1996;111(2):334-344.
192. Berg R, Bernasconi P, Fowler D, Gautreaux M. Inhibition of *Candida albicans* translocation from the gastrointestinal tract of mice by oral administration of *Saccharomyces boulardii*. *J Infect Dis.* 1993;168(5):1314-1318.
193. Caetano JA, Parames MT, Babo MJ, et al. Immunopharmacological effects of *Saccharomyces boulardii* in healthy human volunteers. *Int J Immunopharmacol.* 1986;8(3):245-259.
194. Catanzarro JA, Green L. Microbial ecology and probiotics in human medicine (Part II). *Alt Med Rev.* 1997;2:245-259.
195. Tang ZF, Ling YB, Lin N, Hao Z, Xu RY. Glutamine and recombinant human growth hormone protect intestinal barrier function following portal hypertension surgery. *World J Gastroenterol.* 2007;13(15):2223-2228.
196. Berg RD. Bacterial translocation from the gastrointestinal tract. *J Med.* 1992;23(3-4):217-244.
197. Spaeth G, Berg RD, Specian RD, Deitch EA. Food without fiber promotes bacterial translocation from the gut. *Surgery.* 1990;108(2):240-246; discussion 246-247.
198. Spaeth G, Specian RD, Berg RD, Deitch EA. Bulk prevents bacterial translocation induced by the oral administration of total parenteral nutrition solution. *JPEN J Parenter Enteral Nutr.* 1990;14(5):442-447.
199. Economedes DM, Deirmengian GK, Deirmengian CA. *Staphylococcus aureus* Colonization among Arthroplasty Patients Previously Treated by a Decolonization Protocol: A Pilot Study. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* Mar 5 2013. Epub before print.
200. Immerman I, Ramos NL, Katz GM, Hutzler LH, Phillips MS, Bosco JA, 3rd. The persistence of *Staphylococcus aureus* decolonization after mupirocin and topical chlorhexidine: implications for patients requiring multiple or delayed procedures. *J Arthroplasty.* 2012;27(6):870-876.

201. Rodriguez D, Pigrau C, Euba G, et al. Acute haematogenous prosthetic joint infection: prospective evaluation of medical and surgical management. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2010;16(12):1789-1795.
202. Schmalzried TP, Amstutz HC, Au MK, Dorey FJ. Etiology of deep sepsis in total hip arthroplasty. The significance of hematogenous and recurrent infections. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1992(280):200-207.
203. Strazzeri JC, Anzel S. Infected total hip arthroplasty due to *Actinomyces israelii* after dental extraction. A case report. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1986(210):128-131.
204. Wust J, Steiger U, Vuong H, Zbinden R. Infection of a hip prosthesis by *Actinomyces naeslundii*. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2000;38(2):929-930.
205. Meehan AM, Osmon DR, Duffy MC, Hanssen AD, Keating MR. Outcome of penicillin-susceptible streptococcal prosthetic joint infection treated with debridement and retention of the prosthesis. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2003;36(7):845-849.
206. Sapico FL, Liqueste JA, Sarma RJ. Bone and joint infections in patients with infective endocarditis: review of a 4-year experience. *Clin Infect Dis.* 1996;22(5):783-787.
207. Han Z, Burnham CA, Clohisy J, Babcock H. *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* periprosthetic joint infection identified by 16S ribosomal RNA gene amplification and sequencing: a case report. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2011;93(18):e103.
208. Cordero-Ampuero J, de Dios M. What are the risk factors for infection in hemiarthroplasties and total hip arthroplasties? *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2010;468(12):3268-3277.
209. Fabry K, Verheyden F, Nelen G. Infection of a total knee prosthesis by *Candida glabrata*: a case report. *Acta Orthop Belg.* 2005;71(1):119-121.
210. Szabados F, Anders A, Kaase M, et al. Late Periprosthetic Joint Infection due to *Staphylococcus lugdunensis* Identified by Matrix-Assisted Laser Desorption/Ionisation Time of Flight Mass Spectrometry: A Case Report and Review of the Literature. *Case Rep Med.* 2011;2011:608919.
211. O'Brien JP, Goldenberg DL, Rice PA. Disseminated gonococcal infection: a prospective analysis of 49 patients and a review of pathophysiology and immune mechanisms. *Medicine (Baltimore).* 1983;62(6):395-406.
212. Ollivere BJ, Ellahee N, Logan K, Miller-Jones JC, Allen PW. Asymptomatic urinary tract colonisation predisposes to superficial wound infection in elective orthopaedic surgery. *Int Orthop.* 2009;33(3):847-850.
213. Brumfitt W. Urinary Cell Counts and Their Value. *J Clin Pathol.* 1965;18:550-555.
214. Trautner BW. Asymptomatic bacteriuria: when the treatment is worse than the disease. *Nat Rev Urol.* 1997;9(2):85-93.
215. Drancourt M, Argenson JN, Tissot Dupont H, Aubaniac JM, Raoult D. Psoriasis is a risk factor for hip-prosthesis infection. *Eur J Epidemiol.* 1997;13(2):205-207.
216. Beyer CA, Hanssen AD, Lewallen DG, Pittelkow MR. Primary total knee arthroplasty in patients with psoriasis. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1991;73(2):258-259.
217. Iofin I, Levine B, Badlani N, Klein GR, Jaffe WL. Psoriatic arthritis and arthroplasty: a review of the literature. *Bull NYU Hosp Jt Dis.* 2008;66(1):41-48.
218. Zaman R, Abbas M, Burd E. Late prosthetic hip joint infection with *Actinomyces israelii* in an intravenous drug user: case report and literature review. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2002;40(11):4391-4392.
219. Pascual A, Fleer A, Westerdal NA, Verhoef J. Modulation of adherence of coagulase-negative staphylococci to Teflon catheters in vitro. *Eur J Clin Microbiol.* 1986;5(5):518-522.
220. Raad I, Darouiche R. Catheter-related septicemia: risk reduction. *Infect Med.* 1996;13:807-823.

221. Athanassious C, Samad A, Avery A, Cohen J, Chalnack D. Evaluation of fever in the immediate postoperative period in patients who underwent total joint arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty*. 2011;26(8):1404-1408.
222. Czaplicki AP, Borger JE, Politi JR, Chambers BT, Taylor BC. Evaluation of postoperative fever and leukocytosis in patients after total hip and knee arthroplasty. *J Arthroplasty*. 2011;26(8):1387-1389.
223. Summersell PC, Turnbull A, Long G, et al. Temperature trends in total hip arthroplasty: a retrospective study. *J Arthroplasty*. 2003;18(4):426-429.
224. Andres BM, Taub DD, Gurkan I, Wenz JF. Postoperative fever after total knee arthroplasty: the role of cytokines. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2003(415):221-231.
225. Kennedy JG, Rodgers WB, Zurakowski D, et al. Pyrexia after total knee replacement. A cause for concern? *Am J Orthop (Belle Mead NJ)*. 1997;26(8):549-552, 554.
226. Guinn S, Castro FP, Jr., Garcia R, Barrack RL. Fever following total knee arthroplasty. *Am J Knee Surg*. Summer 1999;12(3):161-164.
227. Shaw JA, Chung R. Febrile response after knee and hip arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1999(367):181-189.
228. Ghosh S, Charity RM, Haidar SG, Singh BK. Pyrexia following total knee replacement. *Knee*. 2006;13(4):324-327.
229. Anderson JT, Osland JD. Blood cultures for evaluation of fever after total joint arthroplasty. *Am J Orthop (Belle Mead NJ)*. 2009;38(8):E134-136.
230. Tai TW, Chang CW, Lin CJ, Lai KA, Yang CY. Elevated temperature trends after total knee arthroplasty. *Orthopedics*. 2009;32(12):886.
231. Ward DT, Hansen EN, Takemoto SK, Bozic KJ. Cost and effectiveness of postoperative fever diagnostic evaluation in total joint arthroplasty patients. *J Arthroplasty*. 2010;25(6 Suppl):43-48.

Future Research

The workgroup has identified the following as potential topics in need of further research.

- Influence of immunosuppression/immunosuppressive state on the incidence of PJI/SSI
- Influence of HIV and/or IV drug abuse on the incidence of SSI/PJI?
- Role of routine urinary tract screening in patients undergoing elective arthroplasty
- Optimal timing for elective arthroplasty for patients with prior septic arthritis
- The threshold for synovial cell count and neutrophil differential indicative of no active infection in patients with prior septic arthritis
- The threshold for synovial cell count and neutrophil differential indicative of active infection in patients with suspected PJI
- The role of preoperative showering or skin wipes for lowering SSI/PJI
- The role of terminal cleansing of hand with alcohol prior to surgery
- Duration of hand wash prior to surgery
- Cross reactivity of cephalosporins in patients with penicillin allergy
- Use of dual antibiotics for prevention of PJI
- The indications for administration of vancomycin for patients undergoing elective joint arthroplasty
- Studies to explore association between patients with preoperative abnormal urine tests and subsequent SSI /PJI
- MRSA screening and decolonization: efficacy of decolonization, incidence of recolonization/persistence of colonization, what element of decolonization (nasal decontamination, skin decontamination or prophylactic antibiotic) are the most effective strategy for prevention of PJI?
- The role of newly introduced agents (such as betadine based products) for decolonization of patients with MRSA prior to elective arthroplasty
- Investigation of newer methods (other than conventional) culture for identification of MRSA colonized patients
- The appropriate prophylactic antibiotic for patients undergoing megaprosthesis/tumor surgery
- Does the use of laminar flow room reduce the incidence of subsequent SSI/PJI following total joint arthroplasty?
- Does the use of body exhaust system reduce the incidence of subsequent SSI/PJI following total joint arthroplasty?
- Should patients wear a face mask during TJA?
- Can an uninfected elective arthroplasty be done after a prior infected case in the operating room?
- The best method of operating room decontamination
- How often should gloves be changed during joint arthroplasty?
- Should incise draping be used during TJA?
- Type/volume/ timing of irrigation solution
- Use of dilute betadine during TJA for prevention of SSI. Determine optimal dose and duration of irrigation
- Does type of draping (disposable vs non-disposable) affect the incidence of SSI/PJI?
- Use of autologous blood derived products for reduction of blood loss and subsequent SSI/PJI
- Best method of skin closure in patients undergoing elective total joint arthroplasty

- Best method of skin closure in patients undergoing surgical treatment for PJI
- Does the use of silver impregnated dressing reduce the incidence of SSI/PJI?
- The best method of hand cleansing prior to surgery
- Use of vancomycin powder in the wound for prevention of PJI in patients undergoing TJA
- Sonication of prosthesis for diagnosis of PJI (reproducing results)
- Study to determine the indications for aspiration of joints prior to revision for assumed aseptic failures
- Risk factors for failure of irrigation and debridement
- Use of resorbable material for delivery of antibiotics for prevention/treatment of PJI
- Randomized study to determine the success of one stage versus two stage
- Study to determine the optimal timing of reimplantation
- Study to identify proper serum or synovial tests to determine timing of reimplantation
- Study to determine the optimal length of antibiotic treatment between two stages
- Indications and length of treatment for suppressive ABx therapy following surgical managements of PJI
- Dental prophylaxis for those with TJA
- The role of maintaining normothermia during orthopedic procedures
- Study to determine if prophylactic antibiotics are needed for patients undergoing colonoscopy or other minor procedures.