

# 1 **New WHO recommendations on intraoperative and postoperative measures for** 2 **surgical site infection prevention: an evidence-based global perspective**

3 This is the second in a Series of two papers about surgical site infections.

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#### 47 **1 Table and 1 Figure**

48 **Table 1:** Summary of the WHO recommendations for intraoperative and postoperative measures to  
49 prevent SSIs\*

50 **Figure 1:** Patient receiving oxygen in the immediate postoperative period. Courtesy of Shutterstock.

51 **ABSTRACT**

52 Surgical site infections (SSIs) are the most common health-care-associated infections in developing  
53 countries, but they also represent a substantial epidemiological burden in high-income countries.  
54 The prevention of these infections is complex and requires the integration of a range of preventive  
55 measures before, during, and after surgery. No international guidelines are available and  
56 inconsistencies in the interpretation of evidence and recommendations in national guidelines have  
57 been identified. Considering the prevention of SSIs as a priority for patient safety, WHO has  
58 developed evidence-based and expert consensus-based recommendations on the basis of an  
59 extensive list of preventive measures. We present in this Review 16 recommendations specific to the  
60 intraoperative and postoperative periods. The WHO recommendations were developed with a global  
61 perspective and they take into account the balance between benefits and harms, the evidence  
62 quality level, cost and resource use implications, and patient values and preferences.

63

64 **INTRODUCTION**

65 Surgical site infections (SSIs) are largely preventable, but they represent a considerable burden for  
66 health-care systems, particularly in low-income and middle-income countries. For these reasons, and  
67 the fact that no general set of international recommendations exists, WHO prioritised the  
68 development of evidence-based global guidelines for the prevention of SSIs. A panel of international  
69 experts developed recommendations on the basis of predetermined research questions and the  
70 results of related systematic literature reviews. The description of the intended audience for these  
71 recommendations, the methods used, and the first group of recommendations regarding  
72 preoperative preventive measures are provided in paper 1 of this Series,<sup>1</sup> which should be read in  
73 conjunction with this Review. We present here the recommendations (table) to be applied in the  
74 intraoperative and postoperative periods. Important topics such as asepsis in the operating room  
75 and sterilisation are not mentioned because they were not the object of formal recommendations,

76 but they are included and extensively reviewed in the WHO guidelines, as cornerstones of SSI  
77 prevention.

78

#### 79 **RECOMMENDATION 1: PERIOPERATIVE OXYGENATION**

80 The panel recommends that adult patients undergoing general anaesthesia with endotracheal  
81 intubation for surgical procedures should receive an 80% fraction of inspired oxygen (FiO<sub>2</sub>)  
82 intraoperatively and, if feasible, in the immediate postoperative period for 2–6 h, to reduce the risk  
83 of SSI (strong recommendation, moderate quality of evidence).

84 Adequate surgical site tissue oxygenation is thought to have a role in preventing SSIs. A high partial  
85 pressure of oxygen in the blood achieved through the administration of high-concentration oxygen  
86 (hyperoxia, defined as oxygen at 80% FiO<sub>2</sub>) provides more adequate oxygenation at the surgical  
87 incision—particularly at infected tissue,<sup>4</sup> which has a lower oxygen tension than non-infected  
88 tissue<sup>5</sup>—and might enhance oxidative killing by neutrophils.<sup>6</sup> We did a systematic review to assess  
89 the effect of high FiO<sub>2</sub> (80%) compared with standard FiO<sub>2</sub> (30–35%) for the prevention of SSI.  
90 We identified 15 randomised controlled trials (RCTs)<sup>7–21</sup> comparing the perioperative administration  
91 of 80% FiO<sub>2</sub> with 30–35% FiO<sub>2</sub> in adults. We did a meta-analysis that included studies in which  
92 patients underwent general anaesthesia with endo tracheal intubation and mechanical ventilation.<sup>7–</sup>  
93 <sup>17</sup> Ventilation control (and therefore the actual administration of FiO<sub>2</sub>) with a facemask or nasal  
94 cannulae in neuraxial anaesthesia was considered to be a different intervention from mechanical  
95 ventilation. Furthermore, a meta-regression analysis showed that the type of anaesthesia  
96 independently modified the effect of hyperoxygenation. The 11 RCTs included in the meta-analysis  
97 showed that increased perioperative FiO<sub>2</sub> is beneficial in reducing SSI compared with standard  
98 perioperative FiO<sub>2</sub> (odds ratio [OR] 0.72; 95% CI 0.55–0.94). The quality of the evidence was rated as  
99 moderate.

100 On the basis of this evidence, patients undergoing general anaesthesia with endotracheal intubation  
101 for surgical procedures should receive 80% FiO<sub>2</sub> intraoperatively and, if feasible, for 2–6 h in the

102 immediate postoperative period. The expert panel noted that the benefits of this intervention can  
103 be observed only when implemented by both intubation during the operation, and using a high-flux  
104 mask in the immediate postoperative period (figure). The benefits are also maximised when  
105 normothermia and normovolaemia are maintained. In low-resource settings in which medical  
106 oxygen is scarce and its increased use could place a burden on available resources, this  
107 recommendation might not be considered as a priority by policymakers.

108

## 109 **RECOMMENDATION 2: MAINTAINING NORMAL BODY TEMPERATURE (NORMOTHERMIA)**

110 The panel suggests the use of warming devices in the operating room and during the surgical  
111 procedure for patient body warming with the purpose of reducing SSI (conditional recommendation,  
112 moderate quality of evidence).

113 Hypothermia is defined as a core temperature less than 36°C. It commonly occurs during and after  
114 surgical procedures lasting more than 2 h because of impairment of thermoregulation by anaesthesia,  
115 combined with exposure to a cold environment (the operating room).<sup>22,23</sup> Unintended hypothermia is  
116 considered to be an adverse event of general and regional anaesthesia and might be associated with  
117 increased cardiac complications, blood loss due to impaired coagulation, impaired wound healing,  
118 decreased drug metabolism, decreased immune function, and an increased risk of SSI.<sup>22,24–27</sup> We did a  
119 systematic review to assess the effectiveness of perioperative body warming on the prevention of  
120 SSIs.

121 We found two RCTs<sup>28,29</sup> comparing the effect of preoperative and intraoperative body warming on SSIs  
122 in adults with no body warming. Meta-analysis showed that body warming was significantly associated  
123 with a reduced risk of SSIs (OR 0.33; 95% CI 0.17–0.62); the quality of the evidence was rated as  
124 moderate. However, in developing countries, the equipment and maintenance costs of electrical  
125 body-warming equipment represent a substantial financial burden, and availability and procurement  
126 are additional issues. Blankets can be considered as a low-cost, effective option in low-resource  
127 settings.

128

129 **RECOMMENDATION 3: USE OF INTENSIVE PROTOCOLS FOR PERIOPERATIVE BLOOD GLUCOSE**  
130 **CONTROL**

131 The panel suggests the use of protocols for intensive perioperative blood glucose control for both  
132 diabetic and non-diabetic adults undergoing surgical procedures, to reduce the risk of SSI (conditional  
133 recommendation, low quality of evidence).

134 A rise in blood glucose concentration is commonly observed in the operative and postoperative  
135 periods because of a surgical stress response, resulting in increased secretion of catabolic hormones  
136 (eg, catecholamines or cortisol), inhibition of insulin secretion, and insulin resistance.<sup>30</sup> Observational  
137 studies have shown that hyperglycaemia is associated with an increased risk of SSIs in both diabetic  
138 and non-diabetic patients.<sup>31–33</sup> Although the importance of perioperative blood glucose control is  
139 agreed upon, there is controversy regarding the best treatment options, the optimal target  
140 concentration of blood glucose, and the optimal timing of glucose control. The concern is due to the  
141 risk of developing hypoglycaemia, which is also associated with increased morbidity and mortality.<sup>34–</sup>

142 <sup>37</sup> We did a systematic review to investigate whether the use of intensive protocols for perioperative  
143 blood glucose control is more effective in reducing the risk of SSI in both diabetic and non-diabetic  
144 patients than conventional protocols with less stringent target blood glucose concentrations.

145 We identified 15 RCTs<sup>38–52</sup> in adults. Overall, an intensive protocol with strict blood glucose target  
146 concentrations was associated with significantly decreased SSI incidence compared with a  
147 conventional protocol (OR 0.43; 95% CI 0.29–0.64). Because of the heterogeneity of the timing of  
148 application of the protocols (intraoperative vs intraoperative-and-postoperative vs postoperative),  
149 study population (patients with diabetes vs patients without diabetes vs mixed population), and the  
150 upper limit of the target concentration of blood glucose ( $\leq 110$  mg/dL [6.1 mmol/L] vs 110–150 mg/dL  
151 [6.1–8.3 mmol/L]), we decided to do separate meta-analyses for each of these comparisons. No  
152 significant difference in the effect on SSI reduction was observed between studies of patients with  
153 and without diabetes in meta-regression analyses ( $p=0.590$ ). There was some evidence that the SSI

154 reduction effect was smaller in studies that used intensive blood glucose control intraoperatively only  
155 (OR 0.88; 0.45–1.74) compared with studies that used intensive blood glucose controls  
156 postoperatively or both intra operatively and postoperatively (OR 0.37; 0.25–0.55;  $p=0.049$  for  
157 difference between these ORs).

158 No significant difference was observed ( $p=0.328$ ) between studies that used low upper limit target  
159 blood glucose concentrations ( $\leq 110$  mg/dL; 6.1 mmol/L), versus studies with high upper limit  
160 concentrations (110–150 mg/dL; 6.1–8.3 mmol/L). The overall quality of the evidence was rated as  
161 low. Further analysis of adverse events showed no difference between the use of an intensive protocol  
162 and a conventional protocol in the risk of death (OR 0.74; 95% CI 0.45–1.23;  $p=0.2$ ) or stroke (OR 1.37;  
163 0.26–7.20;  $p=0.7$ ). However, there was an overall increased risk of hypoglycaemia (OR 5.55; 2.58–  
164 11.96). Meta-regression analyses showed no difference in the risk of hypoglycaemia between studies  
165 that used low or high upper limit target blood glucose concentrations ( $p=0.413$ ).

166 In conclusion, using a protocol with strict blood glucose target concentrations is associated with a  
167 substantial benefit for the reduction of SSI prevalence, but neither the optimal blood glucose target  
168 concentration nor the perioperative timing of glucose control could be defined. However, it should be  
169 noted that hypoglycaemia is a possible serious side-effect associated with these intensive protocols  
170 and close reliable monitoring of blood glucose concentrations is crucial for this intervention.

171

172 **RECOMMENDATION 4: MAINTENANCE OF ADEQUATE CIRCULATING VOLUME CONTROL**  
173 **(NORMOVOLAEMIA)**

174 The panel suggests the use of goal-directed fluid therapy (GDFT) intraoperatively to reduce the risk of  
175 SSI (conditional recommendation, low quality of evidence).

176 Adequate intravascular volume is an essential component of tissue perfusion and an important aspect  
177 of tissue oxygenation.<sup>53</sup> In unbalanced fluid states—ie, hypovolaemia and hypervolaemia—tissue  
178 oxygenation is compromised and might increase the risk of SSI.<sup>54</sup> The optimal type of fluid (colloid or  
179 crystalloid) or strategy of fluid management (goal-directed, liberal, or restrictive) remain controversial

180 topics, partly because of the absence of a universal definition of normovolaemia or a standardised  
181 method for its assessment. We did a systematic review to assess whether specific fluid management  
182 strategies for the maintenance of normovolaemia are more effective in reducing the risk of SSI than  
183 standard fluid regimens administered during surgery.

184 We identified 24 RCTs<sup>55-78</sup> comparing specific strategies of fluid management with standard  
185 management. Because of substantial heterogeneity in the type of specific fluid management strategy  
186 used, separate meta-analyses were done for GDFT or restrictive fluid regimens versus standard  
187 regimens in the preoperative, intraoperative, and postoperative periods. GDFT refers to a  
188 haemodynamic treatment based on the titration of fluid and inotropic drugs according to cardiac  
189 output or similar parameters. Restrictive fluid management refers to the administration of a regimen  
190 with a reduced volume of fluids in the bolus or over time, compared with local standard fluid  
191 maintenance. A meta-analysis of 14 RCTs<sup>55-68</sup> showed that intraoperative GDFT was significantly  
192 associated with lower incidence of SSIs than standard intraoperative fluid management (OR 0.56; 95%  
193 CI 0.35-0.88). Meta-analysis of five RCTs<sup>69-73</sup> showed that restrictive intraoperative fluid management  
194 did not significantly affect SSI incidence compared with standard intraoperative management (OR  
195 0.73; 0.41-1.28). Meta-analysis of two RCTs<sup>76,77</sup> showed that postoperative GDFT was associated  
196 with a decreased risk of SSI compared with standard postoperative management (OR 0.24; 0.11-0.52).  
197 One RCT<sup>74</sup> showed that preoperative GDFT did not significantly affect SSI incidence compared with  
198 standard preoperative management (OR 0.47; 0.13-1.72).

199 Considering the evidence (rated as low quality), the panel suggested the use of GDFT intraoperatively  
200 to prevent SSI. Its postoperative use might also be beneficial to reduce SSI. However, restrictive fluid  
201 management and preoperative GDFT were not associated with the reduction of SSI compared with  
202 standard fluid management.

203

204 **RECOMMENDATION 5 AND 6: DRAPS AND GOWNS**



205 The panel suggests that either sterile disposable non-woven or sterile reusable woven drapes and  
206 surgical gowns be used during surgical operations for the purpose of preventing SSI (conditional  
207 recommendation, moderate to very low quality of evidence); and suggests that plastic adhesive incise  
208 drapes with or without antimicrobial properties should not be used (conditional recommendation,  
209 low to very low quality of evidence).

210 Drapes and gowns are available for single-use or multiple-use, with varying compositions. Adhesive  
211 plastic incise drapes are used on a patient's skin after surgical site preparation, with or without  
212 antimicrobial impregnation, and the surgeon performs the incision of the drape and the skin  
213 simultaneously. In available guidelines, there are conflicting recommendations on the use of plastic  
214 adhesive drapes, mainly discouraging their use.<sup>79</sup> There are no recommendations on the use of single-  
215 use or reusable drapes and gowns for the purpose of SSI prevention. We did a systematic review to  
216 investigate the use of sterile disposable or reusable drapes and surgical gowns, and separately the use  
217 of plastic adhesive incise drapes, for the purpose of SSI prevention.

218 We identified 11 studies<sup>80–90</sup> (four RCTs<sup>81,86,89,90</sup>). Meta-analysis of five studies (one RCT,<sup>81</sup> one quasi-  
219 RCT,<sup>82</sup> and three observational studies<sup>80,83,84</sup>) comparing sterile disposable non-woven drapes and  
220 gowns with sterile reusable woven drapes and gowns showed no difference in the SSI risk (RCTs,  
221 moderate quality evidence: OR 0.85; 95% CI 0.66–1.09; observational studies, very low quality  
222 evidence: OR 1.56; 0.89–2.72). Meta-analysis of four studies (one RCT,<sup>86</sup> one quasi-RCT,<sup>85</sup> and two  
223 observational studies<sup>87,88</sup>) comparing adhesive iodine-impregnated incise drapes with no drapes  
224 showed no difference in the SSI risk (RCTs: OR 2.62; 0.68–10.04; observational studies: OR 0.49; 0.16–  
225 1.49). Similarly, meta-analysis of two RCTs<sup>89,90</sup> comparing non-impregnated adhesive incise drapes  
226 to no drapes showed no difference in the SSI risk (OR 1.10; 0.68–1.78). The quality of the evidence  
227 was rated low to very low.

228 Considering the evidence, including potential issues of availability and costs in low-resource settings  
229 and the ecological effect, the expert panel suggested that either sterile disposable non-woven or

230 sterile reusable woven drapes and gowns can be used. However, adhesive incise drapes (with or  
231 without antimicrobial properties) should not be used for the purpose of preventing SSI.

232

### 233 **RECOMMENDATION 7: WOUND-PROTECTOR DEVICES**

234 The panel suggests considering the use of wound-protector devices in clean-contaminated,  
235 contaminated, and dirty abdominal surgical procedures for the purpose of reducing the rate of SSIs  
236 (conditional recommendation, very low quality of evidence).

237 Wound-protector devices (or wound-edge protectors) are comprised of a non-adhesive plastic sheath  
238 attached to a single or double rubber ring that firmly secures the sheath to the wound edges. They  
239 facilitate the retraction of the incision during surgery and are aimed at reducing wound-edge  
240 contamination to a minimum during abdominal surgical procedures. Notably, they have been on the  
241 market despite scarce evidence supporting their usefulness. We did a systematic review to assess the  
242 effectiveness of wound-protector devices for the reduction of SSI risk compared with conventional  
243 wound protection in abdominal surgery.

244 We found 11 studies (ten RCTs,<sup>91–100</sup> and one prospective controlled trial<sup>101</sup>) in adults. Meta-analysis  
245 showed that the use of a wound-protector device (single-ring or double-ring) was associated with a  
246 significantly lower risk of SSI than with conventional wound protection (OR 0.42; 95% CI 0.28–0.62).  
247 Meta-regression analyses showed no evidence of a difference in the effect between single-ring and  
248 double-ring wound-protector devices or between clean-contaminated, contaminated, or dirty surgery  
249 and other surgery.

250 Considering the evidence (rated as very low quality), the panel suggests the use of wound-protector  
251 devices in clean-contaminated, contaminated, and dirty abdominal surgical procedures for the  
252 prevention of SSI. The panel highlighted that wound-protector device use should not always be  
253 prioritised in low-resource settings over other interventions that prevent SSI, because of their scarce  
254 availability and associated costs.

255

256 **RECOMMENDATION 8 AND 9: INCISIONAL WOUND IRRIGATION**

257 The panel suggests considering the use of irrigation of the incisional wound with an aqueous povidone-  
258 iodine solution before closure for the purpose of preventing SSI, particularly in clean and clean-  
259 contaminated wounds (conditional recommendation, low quality of evidence); but the panel suggests  
260 that antibiotic incisional wound irrigation before closure should not be done (conditional  
261 recommendation, low quality of evidence); insufficient evidence was available to recommend for or  
262 against saline irrigation of incisional wounds before closure for the purpose of preventing SSIs.

263 Intraoperative wound irrigation refers to the flow of a solution across the surface of an open wound.  
264 It is a widely practised procedure and considered to help prevent SSIs.<sup>102–104</sup> Among other benefits,  
265 wound irrigation is intended to physically remove cellular debris, surface bacteria, and body fluids, to  
266 dilute possible contamination, and to function as a local antibacterial agent when an antiseptic or  
267 antibiotic agent is used. Practices vary depending on the patient population, the surface of application,  
268 and solutions used. We did a systematic review to investigate whether intraoperative wound irrigation  
269 (with or without active agents or pressured application) affects the incidence of SSI. Studies  
270 investigating the topical application of antibiotics or antiseptics (eg, powder, gels, sponges) were not  
271 included. We also excluded studies in which surgical antibiotic prophylaxis was not administered  
272 appropriately (ie, preoperatively and intravenous) or wound irrigation represented a therapeutic  
273 intervention for a pre-existent infection rather than a prophylactic measure.

274 We identified 21 RCTs<sup>105–125</sup> comparing wound irrigation with no wound irrigation in patients  
275 undergoing various surgical procedures, and the results were substantially heterogeneous. The panel  
276 decided to restrict the recommendation to incisional wound irrigation, because too little (and  
277 heterogeneous) evidence was available to address other applications of irrigation—ie, intraperitoneal  
278 or mediastinal irrigation.

279 Moderate to very low quality evidence from four studies using irrigation with a saline solution  
280 administered with different methods provided conflicting results.<sup>110,113,115,117</sup> Irrigation with saline  
281 solution using pulse pressure or applied with force had a marked benefit in terms of SSI

282 reduction.<sup>110,115,117</sup> A meta-analysis of seven RCTs<sup>105–108</sup> showed a significant benefit of irrigation of the  
283 incisional wound with aqueous povidone-iodine solutions in different concentrations compared with  
284 irrigation with a saline solution (OR 0·31; 95% CI 0·13–0·73; p=0·007). Further stratification according  
285 to the wound contamination class and povidone-iodine solution showed that the effect was  
286 attributable to incisional wound irrigation in clean and clean-contaminated procedures with povidone-  
287 iodine 10% and povidone-iodine 0·35%. A meta-analysis of five studies<sup>119–121,123,124</sup> showed no  
288 significant difference between antibiotic irrigation of the incisional wound and no irrigation or  
289 irrigation with a saline solution (OR 1·16; 0·64–2·12; p=0·63).

290 The panel concluded that the evidence was insufficient to recommend for or against saline irrigation  
291 of incisional wounds for the purpose of preventing SSIs. By contrast, incisional wound irrigation with  
292 an aqueous povidone-iodine solution might have a benefit, particularly in clean and clean-  
293 contaminated wounds. Finally, antibiotic incisional wound irrigation before closure should not be used  
294 for the purpose of preventing SSI. The expert panel strongly emphasised that this practice is associated  
295 with an unnecessary risk of antimicrobial resistance.

296 Allergic reactions and metabolic adverse events should be considered as potential harms of iodine  
297 uptake. Although the panel recognises that saline and povidoneiodine solutions are readily available  
298 in most settings, sterile products might be scarce in low-income and middle-income countries. In many  
299 settings, the availability and costs of pulse-pressure devices represent a high financial burden,  
300 including not only their purchase, but also waste disposal, procurement, energy, and machine  
301 maintenance.

302

### 303 **RECOMMENDATION 10: PROPHYLACTIC NEGATIVE-PRESSURE WOUND THERAPY**

304 The panel suggests the use of prophylactic negative-pressure wound therapy (pNPWT) on primarily  
305 closed surgical incisions in high-risk wounds, for the purpose of preventing SSI, while taking resources  
306 into account (conditional recommendation, low quality of evidence).

307 pNPWT consists of a closed sealed system connected to a vacuum pump, which maintains negative  
308 pressure on the wound surface. Although used for several other purposes since the late 1990s, it is  
309 also applied on primarily closed surgical incisions to prevent SSIs. We did a systematic review to  
310 establish whether the use of pNPWT is more effective in reducing the risk of SSIs than the use of  
311 conventional wound dressings.

312 We identified 19 publications describing 20 studies (six RCTs<sup>126–130</sup> and 14 observational studies<sup>131–144</sup>).  
313 Overall, meta-analyses of RCTs and observational studies showed that pNPWT has a significant benefit  
314 in reducing the risk of SSI in patients with a primarily closed surgical incision compared with  
315 conventional postoperative wound dressings (RCTs: OR 0.56; 95% CI 0.32–0.96; observational studies:  
316 OR 0.30; 0.22–0.42). When stratified by type of surgery, this effect was observed in abdominal (nine  
317 observational studies;<sup>132–136,140,141,143,144</sup> OR 0.31; 0.19–0.49) and cardiac (two observational  
318 studies;<sup>137,138</sup> OR 0.29; 0.12–0.69) surgery, but it was not statistically significant in orthopaedic or  
319 trauma surgery. Stratification by wound contamination class showed a significant benefit in reducing  
320 SSI prevalence with the use of pNPWT in clean surgery (eight observational studies;<sup>131,135,137–  
321 139,141,142,144</sup> OR 0.27; 95% CI 0.17–0.42) and in clean-contaminated surgery (eight observational  
322 studies;<sup>132–134,136,140,141,143,144</sup> OR 0.29; 0.17–0.50).

323 On the basis of the low-quality evidence available, the panel suggests the use of pNPWT on primarily  
324 closed surgical incisions in high-risk conditions (eg, poor tissue perfusion due to surrounding soft tissue  
325 or skin damage, decreased blood flow, bleeding or haematoma, dead space, or intraoperative  
326 contamination) for the purpose of the prevention of SSIs, taking available resources into account. The  
327 panel highlighted that the use of pNPWT might not be prioritised in low-resource settings compared  
328 with other interventions to prevent SSI considering its poor availability and potential associated costs.

329

### 330 **RECOMMENDATION 11: ANTIMICROBIAL-COATED SUTURES**

331 The panel suggests the use of triclosan-coated sutures to reduce the risk of SSIs, independent of the  
332 type of surgery (conditional recommendation, moderate quality of evidence).

333 Sutures with antimicrobial properties were developed with the aim to prevent microbial colonisation  
334 of the suture material in operative incisions. Early studies showed a reduction of the number of  
335 bacteria in vitro and wound infections in animals<sup>145–147</sup> using triclosan-coated sutures and this effect  
336 was subsequently confirmed in clinical studies. Several novel antimicrobial coatings are now available,  
337 but still no clinical studies have been done that compare the efficacy with non-coated sutures.<sup>148,149</sup>  
338 We did a systematic review to assess whether the use of antimicrobial-coated sutures is more effective  
339 in reducing the risk of SSIs than the use of non-coated sutures.  
340 We found 18 studies (13 RCTs<sup>150–162</sup> and five cohort studies<sup>163–167</sup>). All studies investigated triclosan-  
341 coated sutures and focused on adult patients, apart from one<sup>152</sup> done in a paediatric population. The  
342 overall meta-analysis showed that antimicrobial-coated sutures have a significant benefit in reducing  
343 SSI incidence in patients undergoing surgical procedures compared with non-coated sutures (RCTs: OR  
344 0.72; 95% CI 0.59–0.88; observational studies: OR 0.58; 0.40–0.83). When considering specific types  
345 of sutures, only the meta-analyses of the studies comparing triclosan-coated polyglactin 910 suture  
346 with polyglactin 910 suture featuring a braided suture construction showed that the use of  
347 antimicrobial-coated sutures significantly reduces SSI prevalence compared with the non-coated  
348 sutures (OR 0.62; 0.44–0.88 for RCTs; OR 0.58; 0.37–0.92 for observational studies). In meta-  
349 regression analysis, we found no evidence that the effect of antimicrobial coating of sutures differed  
350 between braided and monofilament sutures ( $p=0.380$ ), or between clean ( $p=0.690$ ), cardiac ( $p=0.900$ ),  
351 or abdominal ( $p=0.832$ ) surgeries and other surgical procedures.  
352 We highlighted that the quality of the evidence was moderate to low and that many studies had  
353 several limitations, including industry sponsorship or conflicts of interest with a commercial entity. On  
354 the basis of the evidence but also considering these limitations, the panel suggests the use of  
355 antimicrobial-coated sutures for the purpose of reducing the risk of SSI. Because the effect appears to  
356 be independent of the type of procedure or wound contamination classification, this recommendation  
357 applies to any type of surgery. Availability and costs should be considered in low-income and middle-

358 income countries. Further studies are needed also on sutures coated with an alternative antimicrobial  
359 agent to triclosan.

360

361 **RECOMMENDATION 12: LAMINAR AIRFLOW VENTILATION SYSTEMS IN THE CONTEXT OF**  
362 **OPERATING ROOM VENTILATION**

363 The panel suggests that laminar airflow ventilation systems should not be used to reduce the risk of  
364 SSIs for patients undergoing total arthroplasty surgery (conditional recommendation, low to very low  
365 quality of evidence).

366 Conventional ventilation systems pass air with a mixed or turbulent flow into the operating room.  
367 These systems aim to homogenise the fresh air, the air, and aerosols and particles within the room.  
368 Laminar airflow systems pass the fresh air unidirectionally with a steady velocity and approximately  
369 parallel streamlines to create a zone in which the air, aerosols, and particles within the room are driven  
370 out. Systems with laminar airflow are frequently used in an environment where contamination with  
371 particles is a serious adverse event—eg, orthopaedic implant surgery. However, laminar airflow  
372 systems are complex and expensive and require careful maintenance. In many settings in low-income  
373 countries, neither conventional nor laminar flow systems are affordable or maintained effectively on  
374 a regular basis and often, natural ventilation is the only option.

375 We did a systematic review to assess whether a laminar airflow ventilation system is more effective  
376 in reducing the risk of SSI than a conventional ventilation system. We also investigated whether fans  
377 or cooling devices and natural ventilation are acceptable alternatives to conventional ventilation for  
378 the prevention of SSI. We only identified one observational study<sup>168</sup> that compared natural ventilation  
379 with conventional ventilation in the operating room. No difference was observed in the risk of SSI  
380 following both total hip and knee arthroplasty. One systematic review<sup>169</sup> and eight observational  
381 studies<sup>168,170–176</sup> comparing laminar airflow with conventional ventilation were identified. Most studies  
382 focused on total hip and knee arthroplasty and only a few single studies were available for other types  
383 of surgery.<sup>170,171,173</sup> Meta-analyses showed that laminar airflow ventilation has no benefit compared

384 with conventional ventilation in reducing the SSI incidence in total hip (OR 1.29; 95% CI 0.98–1.71) or  
385 knee (OR 1.08; 0.77–1.52) arthroplasty. The quality of the evidence was rated as very low. Considering  
386 these results and associated costs, the expert panel decided to suggest that laminar airflow ventilation  
387 systems should not be used as a preventive measure to reduce the risk of SSI in patients undergoing  
388 total arthroplasty surgery.

389

390 **RECOMMENDATION 13 AND 14: ANTIMICROBIAL PROPHYLAXIS IN THE PRESENCE OF A DRAIN AND**  
391 **OPTIMAL TIMING FOR WOUND DRAIN REMOVAL**

392 The panel suggests not continuing perioperative antibiotic prophylaxis because of the presence of a  
393 wound drain (conditional recommendation, low quality of evidence). They also suggest removing the  
394 wound drain when clinically indicated, but they found no evidence to recommend an optimal time for  
395 wound drain removal (conditional recommendation, very low quality of evidence).

396 Drainage tubes are widely used in surgery to remove any fluid or blood that collects in the wounds  
397 and cavities created by the surgical procedure and thus might cause complications. However, drains  
398 might adversely affect surgical outcomes—eg, affecting anastomotic healing by causing infection in  
399 the anastomotic area and the abdominal wound. Many systematic reviews investigating the effect of  
400 drains on the related infection risk compared with no wound drainage have been published with  
401 conflicting results. The optimal time for drain removal after surgery might influence this risk, but it  
402 remains unknown. Furthermore, in most cases, antibiotic prophylaxis is continued postoperatively  
403 when a drain is used, but this practice is not evidence-based and raises serious concerns in terms of  
404 contributing to the emergence of antimicrobial resistance. We did a systematic review to investigate  
405 whether prolonged antibiotic prophylaxis in the presence of a wound drain is more effective in  
406 reducing the risk of SSIs than standard perioperative prophylaxis alone. The review also assessed  
407 whether the early removal of wound drains more effectively prevents SSIs than late removal.

408 Regarding the first question, seven RCTs<sup>177–183</sup> were identified. The meta-analysis showed that  
409 prolonged antibiotic prophylaxis in the presence of a wound drain has no benefit in reducing SSI



410 compared with perioperative prophylaxis alone (OR 0.79; 95% CI 0.53–1.20). We identified 11  
411 RCTs<sup>184–194</sup> comparing early with late removal of closed wound drains. However, there was  
412 heterogeneity in the study definitions for early and late drain removal. For the purposes of the  
413 analysis, early removal was considered to be from postoperative day 1 to day 5. Two main groups  
414 were identified for defining late wound drain removal—ie, drain removal at postoperative day 6 or  
415 later (three studies<sup>187,189,192</sup>) and removal on the basis of drainage volume (six studies<sup>184–</sup>  
416 <sup>187,188,190,191</sup>). Studies not falling into these categories were excluded from the analysis. The meta-  
417 analysis showed that early drain removal does not affect SSI incidence compared with late removal  
418 (OR 0.86; 0.49–1.50).

419 On the basis of this low to very low quality evidence, the panel suggests that antibiotic prophylaxis  
420 should not be continued in the presence of a wound drain for the purpose of preventing SSI. Given  
421 the results and very low quality of the evidence about optimal timing for removal, wound drains  
422 should be removed when clinically indicated.

423

#### 424 **RECOMMENDATION 15: WOUNDS DRESSINGS**

425 The panel suggests not using any type of advanced dressing over a standard dressing on primarily  
426 closed surgical wounds for the purpose of preventing SSIs (conditional recommendation, low quality  
427 of evidence).

428 A wide variety of wound dressings are available. Advanced dressings are mainly hydrocolloid,  
429 hydrogels, fibrous hydrocolloid, or polyurethane matrix hydrocolloid dressings and vapour-permeable  
430 films. A Cochrane review<sup>195</sup> and its update<sup>196</sup> on the effect of dressings for the prevention of SSI found  
431 no evidence to suggest that one dressing type was better than any other. We did a systematic review  
432 to assess whether the use of advanced dressings is more effective in reducing the risk of SSIs than  
433 standard wound dressings.

434 We identified ten RCTs<sup>197–206</sup> in adult patients undergoing various types of surgical procedures. There  
435 were variations in the definition of SSIs, the duration of postoperative follow-up, and in the type of

436 dressing (hydrocolloid, hydroactive and silver-impregnated, or polyhexamethalene biguanide-  
437 impregnated dressings). Overall, the meta-analysis showed that advanced dressings do not  
438 significantly reduce SSI occurrence compared with standard dressings (OR 0.80; 95% CI 0.52–1.23);  
439 the quality of the evidence was rated as low. In specific meta-analyses, hydrocolloid, silver-  
440 impregnated, and hydroactive dressings were non-effective in reducing the risk of SSI compared with  
441 standard dressings. On the basis of the evidence, the panel recommended that advanced dressings  
442 should not be used for the prevention of SSIs.

443

#### 444 **RECOMMENDATION 16: POSTOPERATIVE SURGICAL ANTIBIOTIC PROPHYLAXIS PROLONGATION**

445 The panel recommends against the prolongation of surgical antibiotic prophylaxis (SAP)  
446 administration after completion of the operation for the purpose of preventing SSIs (strong  
447 recommendation, moderate quality of evidence).

448 The preventive effect of the routine use of SAP has long been recognised; however, the necessary  
449 duration of SAP to achieve the desired effect has been a matter of debate. Most guidelines  
450 recommend a maximum postoperative SAP duration of 24 h, but increasing evidence shows that using  
451 only a single preoperative dose (and possible additional intraoperative doses according to the duration  
452 of the operation) might be non-inferior. Despite this, surgeons still often routinely continue SAP up to  
453 several days after surgery, which leads to serious concerns for the risk of antimicrobial resistance. We  
454 did a systematic review to investigate whether prolonged SAP in the postoperative period is more  
455 effective in reducing the risk of SSIs than perioperative prophylaxis (defined as a single dose before  
456 incision and possible intraoperative additional dose[s] according to the duration of the operation).

457 We found 69 RCTs<sup>177–180,183,207–270</sup> investigating the optimal duration of antibiotic prophylaxis in a  
458 variety of surgical procedures. The overall meta-analysis, which pooled studies using any prolonged  
459 SAP regimens, showed no benefit in terms of reducing the SSI incidence compared with a single dose  
460 of antibiotic prophylaxis (OR 0.89; 95% CI 0.77–1.03). However, a meta-analysis of studies showed  
461 that SAP continuation might be beneficial in reducing SSI compared with a single prophylactic dose in

462 cardiac (OR 0.43; 0.25–0.76)<sup>232,233</sup> and orthognathic (OR 0.30; 0.10–0.88)<sup>242–244</sup> surgery. Considering  
463 the low quality of the evidence and the results of the overall meta-analysis (moderate quality), the  
464 expert panel decided to strongly recommend against SAP prolongation, also because of the  
465 widespread risk of antimicrobial resistance. Continuing antibiotic administration in cardiac and  
466 orthognathic surgery has potential benefit, but further well designed RCTs on this topic are needed.

467

## 468 **CONCLUSION**

469 We discuss the evidence for a broad range of intraoperative and postoperative preventive measures  
470 identified by an expert panel as potentially contributing to reducing the risk of SSI. For some of these,  
471 the evidence shows no benefit and the panel advises against the adoption of these interventions,  
472 particularly when considering resource implications or other consequences, such as antimicrobial  
473 resistance. However, the panel identified a range of key measures for SSI prevention to be  
474 implemented in the intraoperative and postoperative periods, together with other preoperative  
475 measures discussed in paper 1 of this Series. Adoption of the recommendations should be facilitated  
476 by sound implementation strategies and practical tools. Notably, careful assessment of feasibility and  
477 cost implications in low-resource settings is needed.

478

## 479 **Contributors**

480 BA led the writing of and BZ, PB, NZK, SdJ, MA, DP, and JSS contributed to the manuscript. All  
481 authors contributed to the development of the WHO Global Guidelines for the Prevention of Surgical  
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484

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500

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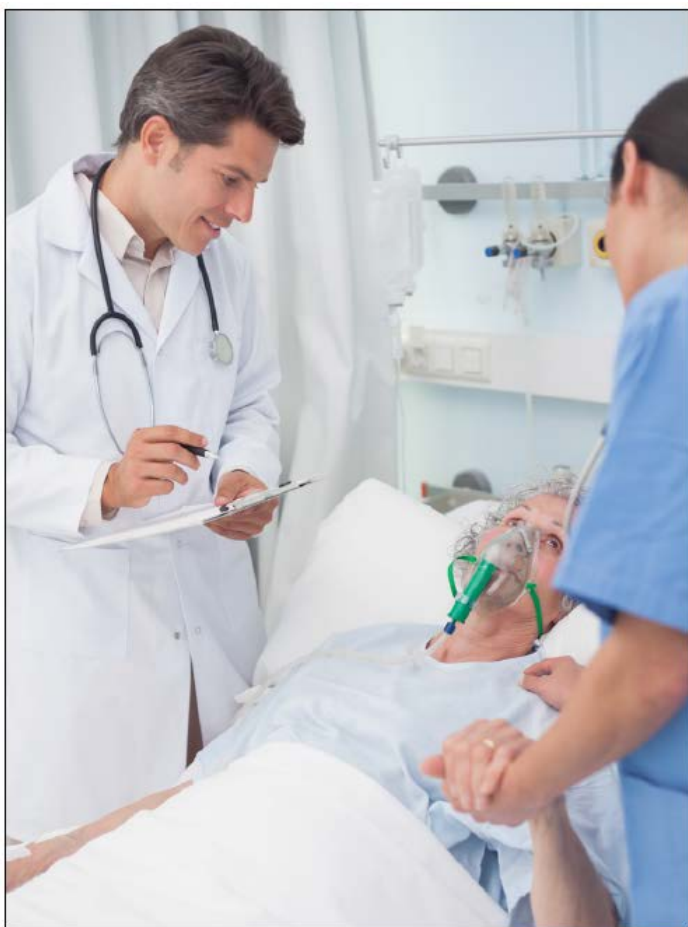
1235 **TABLE 1** Summary of the WHO recommendations for intraoperative and postoperative measures to prevent SSIs\*

Key research question	Recommendations for prevention of SSIs	Strength of recommendation (quality of evidence retrieved†)	Notes for implementation in low-income and middle-income countries	
(1) Perioperative oxygenation	How safe and effective is the perioperative use of high fraction of inspired oxygen in reducing the risk of SSI?	Adult patients undergoing general anaesthesia with endotracheal intubation for surgical procedures should receive 80% fraction of inspired oxygen intraoperatively and, if feasible, in the immediate postoperative period for 2–6 h	Strong recommendation (moderate)	Oxygen availability is low; oxygen and high-flow masks are an additional cost for the health-care facility or patient
(2) Maintaining normal body temperature (normothermia)	In surgical patients, should systemic body warming vs no warming be used for the prevention of SSI?	Warming devices are suggested for use in the operating room and during the surgical procedure for patient body warming	Conditional recommendation (moderate)	Availability of warming devices is low, particularly in low-resource settings; they are an additional cost for the health-care facility and require maintenance; simple blankets might function as efficiently as electrical devices
(3) Use of protocols for intensive perioperative blood glucose control	Do protocols aiming to maintain optimal perioperative blood glucose concentrations reduce the risk of SSI; and what are the optimal perioperative glucose target concentrations in diabetic and non-diabetic patients?	Protocols are suggested to be used for intensive perioperative blood glucose control for both diabetic and non-diabetic adult patients undergoing surgical procedures	Conditional recommendation (low)	Monitoring blood glucose adequately and treating hypoglycaemic events might be hard as medical staff training is required; availability, purchase, and storage (refrigerator) of insulin might cause financial burden
(4) Maintenance of adequate circulating volume control (normovolaemia)	Does the use of specific fluid management strategies during surgery affect the incidence of SSI?	Goal-directed fluid therapy is suggested for use intraoperatively	Conditional recommendation (low)	Some types of intravenous fluids might not be available; expertise in anaesthesia and medical staff training are required for the management of goal-directed fluid therapy and are often unavailable
(5) Disposable non-woven vs reusable woven drapes and gowns	Is SSI incidence affected by the use of disposable non-woven drapes and gowns vs reusable, woven drapes and gowns?‡	Either sterile disposable non-woven or sterile reusable woven drapes and surgical gowns can be used during surgical operations	Conditional recommendation (moderate to very low)	Availability of disposable drapes and gowns may be low and costs might cause a high financial burden, whereas labour costs for reprocessing reusable items may be less of an issue; the ecological effect of the additional clinical waste generated by use of single-use drapes and gowns should also be considered
(6) Adhesive incise drapes	Does the use of disposable adhesive incise drapes reduce the risk of SSI?	Plastic adhesive incise drapes with or without antimicrobial properties should not be used	Conditional recommendation (low to very low)	This recommendation avoids inappropriate resource allocation, because plastic adhesive incise drapes (in particular with antimicrobial properties) usually have an increased cost and they are not readily available in low-income and middle-income countries
(7) Wound-protector devices	Does the use of wound-protector devices reduce the incidence of SSI in open abdominal surgery?	Consider the use of wound-protector devices in clean-contaminated, contaminated, and dirty abdominal surgical procedures	Conditional recommendation (very low)	Wound-protector device availability is low and it is an additional cost for the health-care facility or patients; staff training is required; conflicting results exist from cost-effectiveness studies
(8) Incisional wound irrigation§ with an aqueous povidone-iodine solution	Does intraoperative wound irrigation with an aqueous povidone-iodine solution reduce the risk of SSI?	Consider the use of irrigation of the incisional wound with an aqueous povidone-iodine solution before closure, particularly in clean and clean-contaminated wounds	Conditional recommendation (low)	Availability of sterile products might be low; pulse pressure devices are scarce and have high costs, including purchase, waste disposal, procurement, energy, and machine maintenance

Key research question		Recommendations for prevention of SSIs	Strength of recommendation (quality of evidence retrieved†)	Notes for implementation in low-income and middle-income countries
(Continued from previous page)				
(9) Incisional wound irrigation with antibiotics	Does intraoperative wound irrigation with antibiotics reduce the risk of SSI?	Antibiotic incisional wound irrigation before closure should not be used	Conditional recommendation (low)	This recommendation leads to a cost reduction because of reduced antibiotic use; it also contributes to preventing antimicrobial resistance
(10) Prophylactic negative-pressure wound therapy	Does prophylactic negative-pressure wound therapy reduce the incidence of SSI compared with the use of conventional dressings?	Prophylactic negative-pressure wound therapy on primarily closed surgical incisions is suggested in high-risk wounds, while taking resources into account	Conditional recommendation (low)	Prophylactic negative-pressure wound therapy device availability is low and is an additional cost for the health-care facility or patients (also because it can prolong hospital stay); however, evidence of cost-effectiveness in gynaecological patients has been shown; could construct a non-portable, locally made device at low cost
(11) Antimicrobial-coated sutures	Are antimicrobial-coated sutures effective to prevent SSI; if yes, when should they be used?	Triclosan-coated sutures are suggested to be used in all types of surgery	Conditional recommendation (moderate)	Antimicrobial-coated suture availability is low and they are an additional cost for the health-care facility or patient
(12) Laminar airflow ventilation systems in the context of operating room ventilation	Is the use of laminar airflow in the operating room associated with the reduction of overall or deep SSI; does the use of fans or cooling devices increase incidence of SSI; is natural ventilation an acceptable alternative?¶	Laminar airflow ventilation systems should not be used for patients undergoing total arthroplasty surgery	Conditional recommendation (low to very low)	In particular for the construction of future health-care facilities, this recommendation will reduce costs
(13) Antimicrobial prophylaxis in the presence of a drain	In the presence of drains, does prolonged antibiotic prophylaxis prevent SSI?	Perioperative surgical antibiotic prophylaxis should not be continued because of the presence of a wound drain for the purpose of preventing SSI	Conditional recommendation (low)	This recommendation leads to a cost reduction because of reduced antibiotic use; it also contributes to preventing antimicrobial resistance
(14) Optimal timing for wound drain removal	When using drains, how long should they be kept in place to minimise SSI as a complication?	The wound drain should be removed when clinically indicated; no evidence was found to make a recommendation on the optimal exact timing	Conditional recommendation (very low)	This recommendation has the potential to reduce costs because of a shortened hospital stay as a result of early drain removal
(15) Wound dressings	In surgical patients, should advanced dressings vs standard sterile wound dressings be used for the prevention of SSI?	No type of advanced dressing should be used over a standard dressing on primarily closed surgical wounds	Conditional recommendation (low)	This recommendation avoids inappropriate resource allocation, because advanced dressings are expensive and poorly available in low-income and middle-income countries
(16) Surgical antibiotic prophylaxis prolongation	Does continued postoperative surgical antibiotic prophylaxis reduce the risk of SSI compared with preoperative and (if necessary) intraoperative prophylaxis only?	Surgical antibiotic prophylaxis administration should not be prolonged after completion of the operation	Strong recommendation (moderate)	This recommendation leads to a cost reduction because of reduced antibiotic use; it also contributes to preventing antimicrobial resistance
<p>SSI=surgical site infection. *WHO recommendations for preoperative measures are included in paper 1<sup>1</sup> of this surgical site infections Series, to be read in combination with this Review. †The Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development, and Evaluation method<sup>23</sup> was used to assess the quality of the retrieved evidence. ‡We could not assess separately the use of sterile disposable non-woven vs sterile reusable woven drapes and sterile disposable non-woven vs sterile reusable woven gowns, because no specific evidence was retrieved. §We could not assess saline irrigation of incisional wounds before closure, because insufficient evidence was found. ¶We could not assess the use of fans or cooling devices vs conventional operating room ventilation, or whether natural ventilation an acceptable alternative to conventional ventilation, because insufficient evidence was retrieved.</p>				

1238 **FIGURE 1:**

1239 Patient receiving oxygen in the immediate postoperative period. Courtesy of Shutterstock.



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