

# Frequency of Surgical Site Infection in Patients Operated on by The General Surgery Department in a Tertiary Care Pediatric Hospital, From September 1, 2014 To August 31, 2015

# Rodrigo Tapia Borgo<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Universidad Nacional Autonoma De Mexico Tapiaborgorodrigo@Hotmail.Com

### **KEYWORDS**

### **ABSTRACT**

Surgical site infection, General surgery, Hospitalization This observational, descriptive, and ambispective study aims to determine the frequency of surgical site infections (SSIs) among patients treated in the general surgery department of the National Institute of Pediatrics between September 1, 2014, and August 31, 2015. Currently, surgical site infection (SSI) represents a significant cause of morbidity and mortality on a global scale. The objective of this study is to ascertain the percentage of patients who present with SSIs in accordance with the CDC specifications, thereby establishing a basis and reference for subsequent studies.

### 1. Introduction

Surgical site infection (SSI) represents one of the most common postoperative complications, posing a significant challenge to healthcare systems worldwide. These infections can result in considerable morbidity, prolong hospital stays, increase healthcare costs, and in some cases, result in fatal outcomes, particularly in vulnerable populations such as pediatric patients. In tertiary hospitals, where complex and highly specialized surgical procedures are performed, surveillance and prevention of SSIs is crucial to ensure patient safety and improve surgical outcomes.

SSIs can have several important implications for patients, affecting both their health and overall well-being. The main implications include:

- 1. Increased morbidity: SSI can cause pain, swelling, redness, fever, and discharge at the wound site, which can lead to prolonged recovery and additional complications, such as abscesses or deeper infections.
- 2. Prolonged hospital stay: Patients with SSIs often require additional hospitalization time to receive antibiotic treatment, drainage procedures, or surgical reinterventions. This not only affects the patient's quality of life, but also increases the risk of acquiring additional nosocomial infections.
- 3. Increased health care costs: SSIs generate significant additional costs due to the need for additional treatments, additional surgical procedures, prolonged antibiotic use, and intensive nursing care. This represents an economic burden for both patients and their families and for the health system.
- 4. Risk of serious complications: In some cases, SSIs can lead to serious complications such as sepsis, deep tissue infection, or involvement of internal organs, which can be life-threatening, especially in vulnerable populations such as children, the elderly, or the immunocompromised.
- 5. Psychological and emotional impact: The presence of SSIs can cause anxiety, stress, and emotional distress in patients, especially those who require additional procedures or a prolonged hospital stay. This can affect your quality of life and overall well-being.
- 6. Delayed recovery: SSIs can delay a patient's full recovery, limiting their ability to return to normal daily activities, and in the case of pediatric patients, can affect their development and participation in school and social activities.



The current global consensus is that the occurrence of surgical site infection (SSI) serves as an indicator of the quality of healthcare provided. According to the literature reviewed, SSI represents the third most prevalent nosocomial infection, with a prevalence rate of 16 to 20%. The presence of surgical site infection is directly associated with an increase in hospital stay duration, which consequently results in a higher economic cost. Similarly, numerous studies have evaluated the impact of surgical site infections on hospital stay and economic cost. In a 2009 study, Sparling and colleagues reported that surgical site infections (SSIs) resulted in an additional 10.6 days of hospital stay and \$25,000 in costs compared to surgical interventions that did not develop SSIs. Both the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) and the World Health Organization (WHO) recognize SSIs as a significant public health concern. A surveillance program for the detection of surgical site infections (SSIs) has been in place in the United States since 1970. At the National Institute of Pediatrics (INP), the frequency of surgical site infection (SSI) remains unknown. The last study was conducted in 1971, and Dr. González Saldaña reports an incidence of SSI of 3%, according to the Center for Research and Scientific Documentation.

# **Objectives**

# General objective

• To determine the current frequency of surgical site infection in patients operated on by the Department of General Surgery of the National Institute of Pediatrics.

# **Specific objectives**

- To identify possible causes of SSI, analyzing variables such as age, underlying condition, nutritional status (weight-for-age), immunosuppression, concomitant infection at the time of SSI, surgical time, presence of previous surgery and temporality, classification of the surgical wound (National Research Council 1964) and nature of the surgery (urgent, scheduled, outpatient or hospital).
- Identify the causative bacteria.
- To determine the sensitivity of the antibiogram of the cultures obtained from the surgical wound.

### 2. Methodology

Type of design. Observational, cross-sectional, ambispective study of patients who underwent surgery in the INP and followed up in the outpatient clinic.

### Population.

- **Objective**. Patients who were operated on by the general surgery service at the National Institute of Pediatrics in the period September 1, 2014 to August 31, 2015.
- **Eligible.** Those patients who meet the inclusion criteria.
- **Sample.** All patients who were operated on by the general surgery service at the National Institute of Pediatrics in the period September 1, 2014 to August 31, 2015 were included.

### **Inclusion criteria**

Those patients operated on by the pediatric surgery department of the INP in the period September 1, 2014 – August 31, 2015, with a minimum post-surgical surveillance of 30 days, and in case of the use of prostheses of up to 12 months.

### **Exclusion Criteria**

Deaths are excluded from the protocol, except for those who die secondary to SSI (or related to SSI), patients with incomplete records, and also patients over 18 years of age.



SEEJPH 2024 Posted: 12-07-2024

### Elimination criteria

Those patients who are lost in post-surgical follow-up or those without supervision for at least 30 days in case of not having prostheses or up to 12 months in case of placing some type of prosthesis are eliminated from the protocol.

## Sample size

Knowing the prevalence of surgical wound infection, which is 3% according to Dr. Gómez Saldaña's statistics, in 1971 we decided to calculate the sample size with a formula for descriptive studies.

 $N = pq*Z_{1-\alpha/2colas2}$ 

Allowed Error2

Replacing

 $\frac{N = (0.03*0.97)*(1.96^2)}{(0.052)} = 44.7162$  patients with infected surgical wound

### 3. Result and Discussion

A total of 1289 surgical procedures were performed in 365 days, 19 were excluded (6 due to adult patients and 13 due to death) with a total sample of 1270, during that year 3,482 procedures were performed per day, and the percentages contemplated in the protocol were as follows:

Table 1. Variable nutritional status, frequency and percentage of the 1270 patients who were included in the protocol.

Nutritional status		Number	Percentage
Eutrophic	727	57.2	
Undernourished	468	36.9	
Obese	75	5.9	
Total	1270	100.0	

Table 2. Variable previous surgery, frequency and percentage of the 1270 patients who were included in the protocol.

Previous surgery	Number	Percentage
No prior surgery	1194	94.0
With previous surgery	76	6.0
Total	1270	100.0

Table 3. Variable sex, frequency and percentage of the 1270 patients who were included in the protocol.

Sex.		Number	Percentage
	male	792	62.4
	female	478	37.6
	Total	1270	100.0

Table 4. Immunocompromise variable, frequency and percentage of the 1270 patients who were included in the protocol.

Immunosuppi	ression	Number	Percentage
	Immunocompetent	930	73.2
	Immunocompromised	340	26.8



Total 1270 100.0

Table 6. Percentage and frequency of different types of wounds in the population

Age group		Number	Percentage
	Baby	58	4.6
	Infant	172	13.5
	Older infant	101	8.0
	Preschool	366	28.8
	Pupil	445	35.03
	Adolescent	128	10.1
	Total	1270	100.0

Table 7. Percentage and frequency according to the nature of the surgery.

Nature of the surgery	Number	Percentage
Scheduled	762	60
Urgency	508	40
Total	1270	100.0

Table 8. Percentage and frequency according to the need for hospitalization.

	Frequency	Percentage
Hospital	1053	82.90
Ambulatory	217	17.10
Total	1270	100

Table 9. Frequency and percentage of immunocompromised patients who presented SSI.

Numbe	r	Percentage
Immunocompetent	35	61.4
Immunocompromised	22	38.6
Total	57	100.0

Of the total cases, 57 developed surgical site infection, corresponding to 4.48%. The percentages of the variables analyzed were as follows:

Table 10. Frequency and percentage of patients who presented SSIs based on sex.

	Number	I	Percentage
Male		34	59.6
Female		23	40.4
Total		57	100.0

Table 11. Percentage and frequency of patients who presented SSI according to the definition of 'previous surgery'.

Number I		Percentage	
With previous surgery	14	24.5	
Total con ISQ	57	100.0	

Table 12. Frequency and percentage of surgeries with SSIs according to the type of surgery.

Number		Percentage
Cleaning	5	8.8



Contaminated cleaning	31	54.4
Contaminated	13	22.8
Dirty	8	14.0
Total	57	100.0

Table 13. Percentage and frequency of patients with SSI according to nutritional status.

	Number	Percentage
Eutrophic	30	52.6
Undernouri shed	22	38.6
Obese	5	8.8
Total	57	100.0

Table 14. Percentage and frequency of patients with SSIs who were cultured.

Nu	mber	Percentage
No culture	20	35.1
With cultivation	37	64.9
Total	57	100.0

Table 14. Percentage and frequency of patients with SSIs according to age group.

Number		Percentage	
	Baby	8	14.0
	Infant	7	12.3
	Older infant	10	17.5
	Preschool	15	26.3
	Pupil	15	26.3
	Adolescent	2	3.5
	Total	57	100.0

Table 15. Percentage and frequency of patients with the need for post-surgical hospital stay and presence of SSI.

	Number	Percentage	With ISQ (%)
Ambulatory	217	17.08	2 (0.92)
Hospitalization	1053	82.91	55 (5.22)

Table 15 details 57 pathologies that presented SSIs and the surgical procedure.

Pathology	Procedure	Number of cases
Appendicitis	Appendectomy	20
Intestinal perforation	Bowel resection	7
Gastroesophageal reflux	Gastrostomy / Fundoplication	3
Hernia inguinal	Inguinal hernioplasty	2
Anorectal malformation	Colostomy	2
Frantz's tumor	Whipple Procedure	2
Intestinal Occlusion	Adherensiolysis	2



Portal hypertension	Distal renal splenum shunt	1
Gastric peroration	Primary closure	1
Colonic stenosis	Resection and anastomosis	1
Tricobeoazer	Gastrotomy, trichobezoar	1
	removal and primary closure	
Mesenteric clamp	Duodenoplasty	1
Cholestatic syndrome	Liver biopsy	1
Esophageal atresia	Esophagoplasty	1
Diaphragmatic hernia	Diaphragmatic plasty	1
Gastrosquisis	Primary closure	1
Sewer	Urogenital sinus descent	1
intestinal perforation	Ileostomy	1
Intussusception	Devagination by taxis	1
Apendicitis and ileostomía	Ileostomy closure	1
Anorectal malformation	Colostomy closure	1
Hirschsprung	Duhamel descent	1
Anorectal malformation	Posterior sagittal	1
	anorectoplasty	
Brachial arch remnant	Fistula resection	1
Esophageal atresia	Gastric tube	1

Table 16. Pathologies that presented SSIs and the surgical procedure.

Microorganismo	Absolute number (%)
Escherichia coli	12 (33.8)
Enterococcus faecalis	6 (16.6)
Staphylococcus aureus	4 (11.1)
Pseudomona aeroginosa	4 (11.1)
Klebsiella pneumoniae	3 (8.3)
Enterobacteria aerogenes	2 (5.5)
Staphylococcus epidermidis	2 (5.5)
Acinetobacter baumannii	1 (2.7)
Morganella morganii	1 (2.7)
Enterobacter cloacaeblee	1 (2.7)

Of the 57 patients who developed SSI, 38 were cultured, 36 developed microorganisms, and 6 did not. Table 16 shows the characteristics of the microorganisms isolated. Tables 17 to 20 show the percentages of each variable with SSI related to 100% of them

Table 17. Characteristics of isolated microorganisms

Variable	With	Total	Percentage
	ISQ		_
Immunocompromised	22	340	6.47
Immunocompetent	35	930	3.76
Total	57	1270	

100% of the crops with development were antibiogram, the results are discussed below

Acinetobacter baumannii (1 cultivo), resistente ceftriaxona. amikacina, ceftazidima, piperacilina/ tazobactam. Sensible a tetraciclina, meropenem y ciprofloxacino.

Morganella morganii (1 culture), resistant ampicillin and cefuroxime. Sensitive amikacin, ceftazidime,



SEEJPH 2024 Posted: 12-07-2024

ciprofloxacin, meropenem, and ampicillin.

*Enterobacter cloacaeblee* (1 culture), resistant meropenem, ceftriaxone, ampicillin, sensitive amikacin and ciprofloxacin.

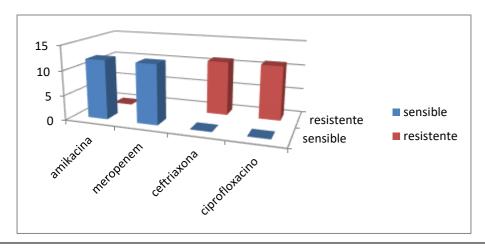
Table 18. Immunocompromise variable, total number of patients in relation to those who developed SSI.

Age group	With ISQ	Total	Percentage
Baby	8	58	13.79
Infant	7	172	4.06
Older infant	10	101	9.90
Preschool	15	366	4.09
Pupil	15	445	3.37
Adolescent	2	128	1.56
Total	57	1270	100

Table 19. Age group variable, we present the total number of patients and their relationship with the percentage who presented SSI

Need	for	ISQ	Total	Percentage
hospitalization				
Ambulatory		2	217	0.91
Hospital		55	1053	5.22
Total		57	1270	

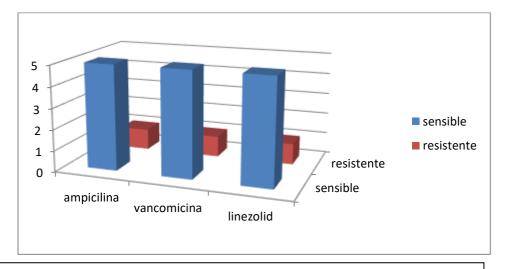
Table 20. Variable need for hospitalization, we present the total number of patients and their relationship with the percentage of patients with SSIs.



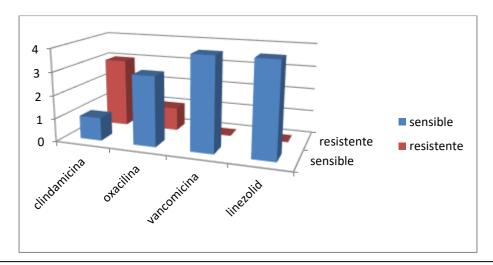
Escherichia coli (12 cultures), without resistance amikacia and meropenem. 11 resistant cultures ceftriaxone and cirprofloxacin.



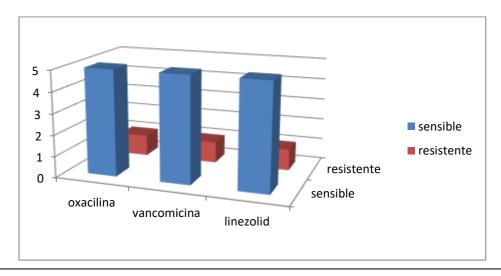
Frequency of Surgical Site Infection in Patients Operated on by The General Surgery Department in a Tertiary Care Pediatric Hospital, From September 1, 2014 To August 31, 2015. SEEJPH 2024 Posted: 12-07-2024



Enterococcus faecalis (6 cultures), 1 with multiresistance, 5 with multisensitivity.



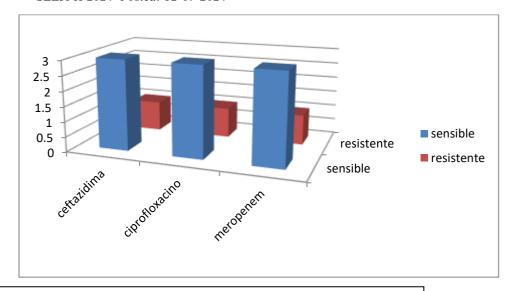
*Staphylococcus aureus* (4 cultures), without vancomycin or linezolid resistance, one oxacillin resistant culture and 3 clindamycin-resistant cultures.



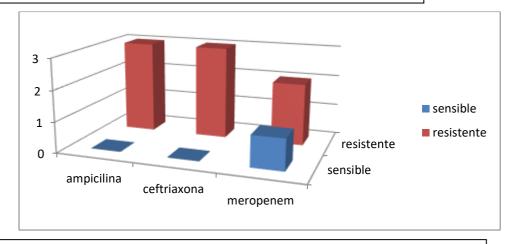
Enterococcus faecalis (6 cultures), 1 multiresistant culture, 5 multisensitive.



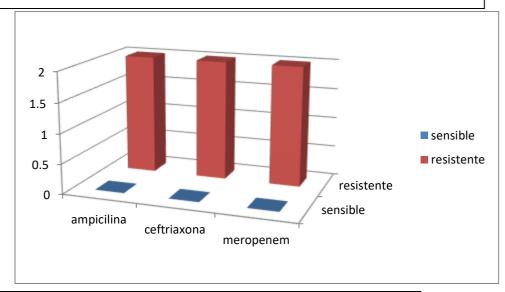
Frequency of Surgical Site Infection in Patients Operated on by The General Surgery Department in a Tertiary Care Pediatric Hospital, From September 1, 2014 To August 31, 2015. SEEJPH 2024 Posted: 12-07-2024



*Pseudomonas aeroginosa* (4 cultures), one multidrug-resistant, 3 multisensitive.

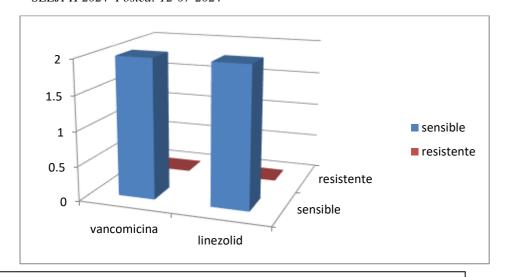


*Klebsiella pneumoniae* (3 cultures), all with ampicillin resistance and ceftriaxone, 1 resistant meropenem.



Enterobacter aerogenes (2 cultures), both multidrug-resistant.





Staphylococcus epidermidis (2 cultivos), multisensibles.

### **Final considerations**

The data presented indicate that the frequency of surgical site infection in the pediatric surgery service is within the acceptable range (4.48%), as reported in the literature. An analysis of the percentages pertaining to the classification of surgical wounds (clean, clean-contaminated, contaminated, and dirty) indicates that the percentages are also within the acceptable parameters set forth by international standards.

It was observed that there were variables with very similar presentation percentages, namely male/female (4.29/4.82) and malnutrition/eutrophic (4.70/4.12). It is noteworthy that the percentage of malnourished patients is slightly higher than that of eutrophic patients, which is contrary to the findings reported in the existing literature.

The variables with the highest prevalence of surgical site infection were as follows (in descending order): previous surgery (18%), dirty surgery (16.66%), neonates (13.79%), older infants (9.8%), contaminated surgery (8.4%), obesity (6.6%), and immunocompromised patients (6.47%). As in the adult population, obesity represents a significant risk factor for the development of surgical site infection (SSI). It is therefore prudent to emphasize that, in this cohort, obesity presented a higher percentage than malnourishment.

During the data collection period, SSIs were identified in patients who underwent reoperation via the same surgical approach within the first 30 days of the initial surgery. Of the 74 patients who presented this variable, 14 (18%) had SSI. This was the most frequently presented variable.

Secondly, surgeries classified as "dirty" represent 16.66% of the total. This variable correlates directly with the findings reported in the literature, as well as with surgery performed during the neonatal period and contaminated surgery. In the older infant age group, 9.8% of SSI was present, and no factors could be identified as contributing to this condition. It may be hypothesized that the high prevalence of immunosuppression and associated comorbidities in this age group is a potential explanation, given that the population of this age that necessitates hospitalization in our hospital generally has some systemic disease that requires third-level care.

The variables exhibiting the lowest prevalence of surgical site infection are as follows: outpatient surgery (0.92%), clean surgery (1.31%), adolescents (1.49%), school (3.42%), and immunocompetent patients (3.46%).

A total of 57 surgeries presented with SSI, with 56% classified as superficial, 29.8% as deep, and 14.2% as a spatial organ. Of these, 20 (35%) were appendicitis cases. This finding is directly correlated with the microbiological data documented in the cultures. It is noteworthy that gram-negative bacteria



exhibit 100% sensitivity to amikacin and high resistance to ceftriaxone. The examination of anaerobic cultures was not within the purview of the protocol. All patients who developed SSI required inhospital treatment, with an average length of stay of 9.4 days from the beginning until discharge. This was either due to a successful treatment outcome or due to meeting the criteria for outpatient management. The reference case was an appendicular picture with perforation that evolves satisfactorily and can be discharged from the service in 72 hours. However, if the patient presents with ISQ, their hospital stay is tripled, and there is an increase in the need for supplies.

It was not possible to include the following variables in the protocol:

Furthermore, additional variables that were not included in the protocol were: hemodynamic stability, hypothermia, oliguria, hypoglycemia, trans and post-surgical hypoxia, hydroelectrolyte imbalance, presence of metabolic acidosis, trade name of the prophylactic antibiotics used, complete nutritional assessment, anaerobic cultures, and peritoneal fluid cultures in search of multiresistant microorganisms from the community.

These variables represent significant shortcomings in the protocol that must be addressed in future research to ensure accurate analysis.

The surgical team bears significant responsibility for the patient's prognosis, considering the potential impact of surgical site infection from a variety of perspectives. The sole definitive course of action for the prevention of this adverse event is the comprehensive analysis of the pertinent data. This protocol represents a viable and readily reproducible option for that purpose.

### Reference

- [1] Haley R, Culver D, White J, Morgan W. The nationwide nosocomial infection rate: A new need for vital statistics. Am J Epidemiol. 1985;121(2):159-167.
- [2] Mangram A, Horan T, Pearson M, Silver L, Jarvis W. Guidelines for prevention of surgical site infection. Am J Infect Control. 1999;27(2):97-132.
- [3] Broex E, van Asselt A, Bruggeman C, van Tiel F. Surgical site infections: how high are the costs?. J Hosp Infect. 2009;72(3):193-201.
- [4] Emori T, Culver D, Horan T, Jarvis W, White J, Olson D et al. National Nosocomial Infection Surveillance System: description of surveillance methods. Am J Infect Control. 1991;19(1):19-35.
- [5] Díaz-Agero Pérez C, Robustillo Rodela A, Pita López M, López Fresneña N, Monge Jodrá V. Surgical wound infection rates in Spain: data summary, January 1997 through June 2012. Am J Infect Control. 2014;42(5):521-524.
- [6] Segal I, Kang C, Albersheim S, Skarsgard E, Lavoie P. Surgical site infections in infants admitted to the neonatal intensive care unit. J Pediatr Surg. 2014;49(3):381-384.
- [7] Alp E, Elmali F, Ersoy S, Kucuk C, Doganay M. Incidence and risk factors of surgical site infection in general surgery in a developing country. Surg Today. 2014;44(4):685-689.
- [8] Vialat Soto V, Marchena Béquer J, Hernández Alfonso H, de la Rosa Rodríguez R. Infección de los sitios quirúrgicos: estudio de 1 año. Rev Cubana Pediatr. 2008;80(1):0-0.
- [9] Paniagua-Contreras G, Monroy-Pérez E, Alonso-Trujillo J, Vaca-Pacheco S, Negrete-Abascal E, Pineda-Olvera J. Prevalencia de infección de herida quirúrgica en pacientes dados de alta de un hospital general. Rev Med Hosp Gen Mex. 2006;69(2):78-283.
- [10] Castro-López A, Romero-Vázquez A. Factores de riesgo asociados a colecistectomía electiva abierta. Salud en Tabasco. 2010;16(1):869-874.
- [11] Velázquez Brizuela I, Aranda Gama J, Camacho Cortes J, Gabriel Ortiz G. Epidemiologia de infecciones de nosocomiales



en el Instituto Jalisciense de Cancerologia. Rev Cubana Salud Pública. 2013;39(1):19-31.

- [12] Vilar-Compte D, Sandoval S, Gordillo P, de la Rosa M, Sánchez-Mejorada G, Volkow P. Vigilancia de las infecciones de herida quirúrgica. Experiencia de 18 meses en el Instituto Nacional de Cancerología. Salud pública Méx. 1999;41(1):44-50.
- [13] Horan T, Gaynes R, Martone W, Jarvis W, Emori T. CDC Definitions of Nosocomial Surgical Site Infections, 1992: A Modification of CDC Definitions of Surgical Wound Infections. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol. 1992;13(10):606-608.
- [14] Seeley S. Influence of ultraviolet light on post operative infection. JAMA. 1964;189(7):574-575.
- [15] Gil P, Esteban E, Legido P, Gago P, Pastor E. Infection rate in clean surgery: follow up until 30 days after operation. Cir Esp. 2005;77(4):226-229.
- [16] Lilani S, Jangale N, Chowdhary A, Daver G. Surgical site infection in clean and clean contaminated cases. Indian J Med Microbiol. 2005;23(4):249-252.
- [17] Tovar J, Burdeus R, Conde J, Perez-Trallero E. Infection of pediatric operative wounds in a general hospital. An Esp Pediatr. 1980;13(1):3-42.
- [18] Krizek T, Robson M. Evolution of quantitative bacteriology in wound management. The Am J Surg. 1975;130(5):579-584.
- [19] James R, Macleod C. Induction of Staphylococcal Infections in Mice with Small Inocula Introduced on Sutures. Br J Exp Pathol. 1961;42(3):266-277.
- [20] Utsumi M, Shimizu J, Miyamoto A, Umeshita K, Kobayashi T, Monden M et al. Age as an independent risk factor for surgical site infections in a large gastrointestinal surgery cohort in Japan. <u>J Hosp Infect</u>. 2010;75(3):183-187.
- [21] Horwitz J, Chwals W, Doski J, Suescun E, Cheu H, Lally K. Pediatric wound infection: a prospective multicenter study. Ann Surg. 1998;227(4):553-558.
- [22] Flores-Maldonado A, Medina-Escobedo C, Ríos-Rodríguez H, Fernández-Domínguez R. Mild Perioperative Hypothermia and the Risk of Wound Infection. Archives of Medical Research. 2001;32(3):227-231.
- [23] Dos Santos Junqueira JC, Cotrim Soares E, Rodrigues Corrêa Filho H, Fenalti Hoehr N, Oliveira Magro D, Ueno M. Nutritional risk factors for postoperative complications in Brazilian elderly patients undergoing major elective surgery Nutrition. 2003;19(4):321-326.
- [24] Nichols RL, Holmes JW. Prophylaxis in bowel surgery. Curr Clin Top Infect Dis 1995;15:76-96.
- [25] Nichols RL, Smith JW, Muzik AC, Love EJ, McSwain NE, Timberlake G, et al. Preventive antibiotic usage in traumatic thoracic injuries requiring closed tube thoracostomy. Chest 1994;106(5):1493-1498.
- [26] Bullock R, van Dellen JR, Ketelbey W, Reinach SG. A double-blind placebo-controlled trial of perioperative prophylactic antibiotics for elective neurosurgery. J Neurosurg 1988;69(5):687-691.
- [27] Page CP, Bohnen JM, Fletcher JR, McManus AT, Solomkin JS, Wittmann DH. Antimicrobial prophylaxis for surgical wounds. Guidelines for clinical care. Arch Surg 1993;128(1):79-88.
- [28] McQueen M, Littlejohn A, Hughes SP. A comparison of systemic cefuroxime and cefuroxime loaded bone cement in the prevention of early infection after total joint replacement. Int Orthop 1987;11:241-243
- [29] Henley MB, Jones RE, Wyatt RWB, Hofmann A, Cohen RL. Prophylaxis with cefamandole nafate in elective orthopedic surgery. Clin Orthop 1986;209:249-254.
- [30] Buckley R, Hughes GN, Snodgrass T, Huchcroft SA. Perioperative cefazolin prophylaxis in hip fracture surgery. Can J Surg 1990;33:122-127.
- [31] Boyd RJ, Burke JF, Colton T. A double-blind clinical trial of prophylactic antibiotic in hip fractures. J Bone Joint Surg



[Am] 1973;55A:1251-1256.

- [32] 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.
- [33] McDonald M, Grabsch E, Marshall C, Forbes A. Single-versus multiple–dose antimicrobial prophylaxis for major surgery: a systematic review. ANZ J Surg. 1998;68(6):388-395.
- [34] Lee F, Trevino S, Kent-Street E, Sreeramoju P. Antimicrobial prophylaxis may not be the answer: Surgical site infections among patients receiving care per recommended guidelines. <u>Am J Infect Control</u>. 2013;41(9):799-802.
- [35] Didder P. Directrices de la OMS sobre higiene de lavados de manos en la atención sanitaria (Borrador avanzado). Francia: Organización Mundial de la Salud; 2005.
- [36] Eduardo G, Roman V. Guias para la prevención, control y vigilancia epidemiológica de infecciones intrahospitalarias. Bogotá: Secretaria de salud Colombia; 2004.
- [37] Tapia-Jurado J, Reyes-Arellano W, García-García J, Jiménez-Corona J, Peña-Jiménez C, León-Mancilla B. Comparación costo efectividad del lavado pre quirúrgico de manos y antebrazo con diversos antisépticos. Cir Circ. 2011;79(5):447-452.
- [38] Edmiston C, Bruden B, Rucinski M, Henen C, Graham M, Lewis B. Reducing the risk of surgical site infections: Does chlorhexidine gluconate provide a risk reduction benefit?. Am J Infect Control. 2013;41(5):S49-S55.
- [39] Weight C, Lee M, Palmer J. Avagard Hand Antisepsis vs. Traditional Scrub in 3600 Pediatric Urologic Procedures. Urology. 2010;76(1):15-17.
- [40] Masumoto K, Nagata K, Oka Y, Kai H, Yamaguchi S, Wada M et al. Successful treatment of an infected wound in infants by a combination of negative pressure wound therapy and arginine supplementation. Nutrition. 2011;27(11-12):1141-1145.
- [41] Sparling K, Ryckman F, Schoettker P, Byczkowski T, Helpling A, Mandel K et al. Financial Impact of Failing to Prevent Surgical Site Infections. Qual Manag Health Care. 2007;16(3):219-225.
- [42] De Onis M, Wijnhoven T, Onyango A. Worldwide practices in child growth monitoring. J Pediatr. 2004;144(4):461-465.
- [43] Lobstein T, Baur L, Uauy R. Obesity in children and young people: A crisis in public health. Assessment of obesity: which child is fat. Obes Rev. 2004;5(1):10-15.
- [44] WHO. Expert Committee on Physical Status: The use and interpretation of anthropometry. Geneva: World Health Organization; 1995.
- [45] Coria Ramírez E, Espinosa Padilla S, Espinosa Rosales F, Vargas Camaño M, Blancas Galicia L. Panorama epidemiológico de las inmunodeficiencias primarias en México. Revista Alergia México. 2010;57(5):159-163.
- [46] Cozar Ruiz R, Izquierdo Alcolea B. Complicaciones de Cirugía y Cuidados Médicos Codificación de la Desnutrición Hospitalaria. España: Ministerio de sanidad y política social; 2016. p. 0-29.
- [47] Michaels J, Campbell B, King B, Palfreyman S, Shackley P, Stevenson M. Randomized controlled trial and cost-effectiveness analysis of silver-donating antimicrobial dressings for venous leg ulcers (VULCAN trial). Br J Surg. 2009;96(10):1147-1156.
- [48] Vermeulen H, van Hattem J, Storm-Versloot M, Ubbink D. Topical silver for treating infected wounds. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2007;24(1):CD005486.
- [49] Lansdown A. A review of the use of silver in wound care: facts and fallacies. Br J Nurs. 2004;13(6):S6-S19.
- [50] Robledo-Ogazón F, Mier y Díaz J, Sánchez-Fernández P, Suárez-Moreno, R, Vargas-Rivas A, Bojalil-Durán L. Uso del sistema de cierre asistido al vacío VAC® en el tratamiento de las heridas quirúrgicas infectadas. Experiencia clínica. Cir Ciruj. 2006;74(2):107-113.



- [51] Sánchez Martínez B, Martínez López C, García Pérez J, Quezada Larios M. Aposito hidrocoloide en ulceras crónicas de origen vascular de los miembros inferiores. Rev Fac Med UNAM. 2000;43(4):130-132.
- [52] Murray P, Rosenthal K, Pfaller M. Microbiologia medica. 4th ed. Madrid: Elsevier Masson; 2002.
- [53] WHO. Resistencia a los antimicrobianos [Internet]. Nota descriptiva N°194. 2015 [citado 28 Julio 2015]. Disponible en: http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs194/es/
- [54] Cuéllar Ponce de León L. Infecciones en huéspedes inmunocomprometidos. Rev Med Hered. 2013;24(2):156-161.