

Pressure Injury

- Crene

Hospital Stay
Cost
Pain
Complication
Staff Workload

Current State in Wound Management

High Pressure Ulcers in Hospitals
No Responsibility
No Statistics
No Systematic Program

Pressure Ulcer (III and IV) is Never Event

Team Approach in Wound Management

• Nurse

- Wound Manager Nurse
- Safety Control Nurse
- Infection Control Nurse
- Physician
- Dietician
- Physical Therapy

Team Approach in Wound Management

- Prevention
- Control
- Management

Education, Education, Education Supervision

Wound Management Supervisor

- Education
- Supervision
- Data Collection
- Documentation

Education, Education, Education Supervision

Pressure Injury

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Pressure Injury

A pressure Injury is a localized injury to the skin and/or underlying tissue usually over a bony prominence, as a result of pressure, or pressure in combination with shearing and friction forces and moisture.



Pressure Injuries May Not be Preventable

 Aggressive measures can reduce but not eliminate the incidence of pressure ulcers

 Can develop despite best efforts of clinical team in high risk patients

 A systematic approach to recognize and manage pressure ulcers is needed

Classification of Pressure Injuries

The staging of pressure ulcers, as defined by national guidelines (NPUAP), allow for common understandings for healthcare professionals. The staging of a pressure ulcer reflects the amount of tissue damage.

STAGE I
STAGE II
STAGE III
STAGE IV
SUSPECTED DEEP TISSUE INJURY (DTI)
UNSTAGEABLE

Stage | Pressure Injury

• Intact skin with non-blanchable redness of a localised area usually over a bony prominence.

• Darkly pigmented skin may not have visible blanching; its colour may differ from the surrounding area.

• The area may be painful, firm, soft, warmer or cooler compared to adjacent tissue.

• May be difficult to detect in individuals with dark skin tones.

• May indicate "at risk" persons (a heralding sign of risk).

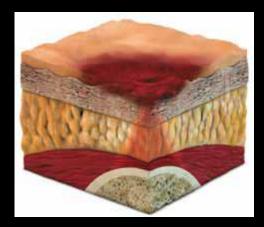




Stage II Pressure Injury

- Partial thickness loss of dermis presenting as a shallow, open wound with a red-pink wound bed, without slough.
- May also present as an intact or open/ruptured serum-filled blister.
- Presents as a shiny or dry, shallow ulcer without slough or bruising.
- Stage II should not be used to describe skin tears, tape burns, perineal dermatitis, maceration or excoriation.

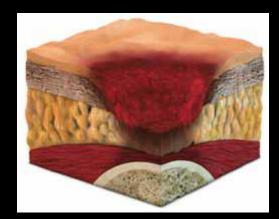




Stage III Pressure Injury

Full thickness tissue loss. Subcutaneous fat may be visible but bone, tendon or muscle are not exposed. Slough may be present but does not obscure the depth of tissue loss. May include undermining and tunnelling.
The depth of a stage III PI varies by anatomical location. The bridge of the nose, ear, occiput and malleolus do not have subcutaneous tissue and stage III PIs can be shallow. In contrast, areas of significant adiposity can develop extremely deep stage III PIs. Bone or tendon is not visible or directly palpable.

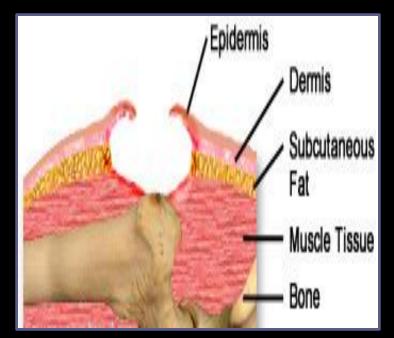




Stage IV Pressure Injury

Full thickness tissue loss with exposed bone, tendon or muscle. Slough or eschar may be present on some parts of the wound bed. Often include undermining and tunneling.





Suspected Deep Tissue Injury

Purple or maroon localized area of discolored intact skin or bloodfilled blister due to damage of underlying soft tissue from pressure and/or shear. The area may be preceded by tissue that is painful, firm, mushy, boggy, warmer or cooler as compared to adjacent tissue.



Unstageable Pressure Injury

Full thickness tissue loss in which the base of the ulcer is covered by slough (yellow, tan, gray, green or brown) and/or eschar (tan, brown or black) in the wound bed. Base of the wound cannot be visualized.

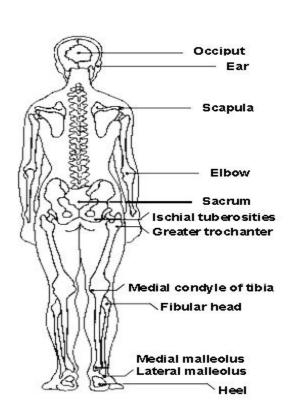


Common Pressure Injury sites

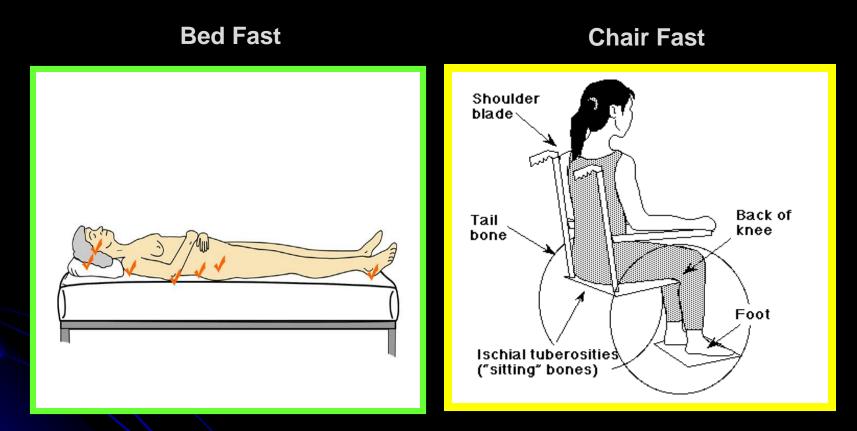
Supine: 23% sacro-coccygeal 8% heels 1% occiput; spine

Sitting: 24% ischium 3% elbows

Lateral: 15% trochanter 7% malleolus 6% knee 3% heels



Common places to find a pressure Injury



Pressure ulcers usually form over a bony part of the body

Variations in neonatal skin



Deficient in collagen Dermal instability

Underdevelopment of the Stratum Corneum

Decreased cohesion between Epidermis and Dermis

Dermis of the newborn is only 60% as thick as adult dermis

Neonates may also have excessive evaporative heat and fluid losses

Increased susceptibility to infection, toxicity from topically substances



The greatest risk factor for Pressure Injury

between hospitalized neonates is the belief on the part of health professionals,

that the PrIs are not a problem in neonates

Pressure Injury III and IV are a NEVER-EVENT

Hospital acquired pressure Injuries (HAPI) have been classified as a NEVER-EVENT

Never-Events are hospital associated problems that occur in the hospital/institutional setting that can be prevented

Never-Events will not be reimbursed by insurance companies

Never-Events must be reported

Hospital Acquired pressure injuries may not be covered, the hospital will have to absorb the cost of these injuries

Prl in Neonates



Among neonates and children, more than 50% of pressure ulcers are related to equipment and devices.

Frequent skin assessments under blood pressure cuffs, transcutaneous oxygen pressure probes, tracheostomy plates, nasal prong and mask CPAP, arm boards, plaster casts, and traction boots are important preventive measures.

Beds, cribs, and isolettes must be inspected to ensure that tubing, leads, toys, and syringe caps are not under or on top of patient's skin.

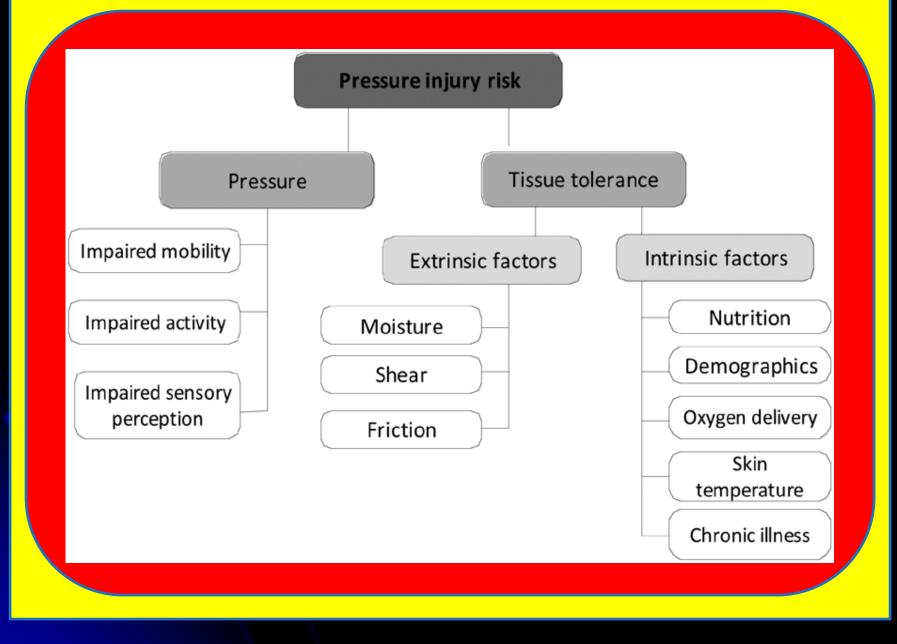
The skin around nasogastric and orogastric tubes, head dressings, and hats should be assessed for pressure damage.













Prl risk-factors in General :

Diabetes Mellitus, Peripheral Vascular Disease, Anemia, CVA, MS COPD & lung disease

Prl risk-factors in OR :

Type of surgery, Type of operation, Time in anesthesia, Time in surgery Vasopressors, Hypothermia (duration), IABP

Prl risk-factors in ICU :

BP in admission, Vasopressors, Sedatives, Narcotics, MV, IABP Restraint, GCS

Braden Risk Assessment Scale

Sensory/ Mental	Moisture	Activity	Mobility	Nutrition	Friction/ Shear			
1. Totally limited	1. Constantly moist	1. Bedfast	1. 100% immobile	1. Very poor	1. Frequent sliding			
2. Very limited	2. Very moist	2. Chairfast	2. Very limited	2. < ½ daily portion	2. Feeble corrections			
3. Slightly limited	3. Occasionally moist	3. Walks w/ assistance	3. Slightly limited	3. Most of portion	3. Independent corrections			
4. No impairment	4. Dry	4. Walks w/out assistance	4. Full mobility	4. Eats everything				
Total Braden Score								
15-16 Mild Risk 12-14 Moderate Risk <12 High Risk 15-18 is considered Mild Risk for those > 75 years								

Braden Q Scale

Sensory Per.	Moisture	Activity	Mobility	Nutrition St.	Friction/	Tissue Perfusion
					Shear	& Oxygenation

Medical Device-Related Pressure Injury (MDRPI)

- Localized injury to the skin or underlying tissue as a result of sustained pressure from a device (Black, 2010)
- Tissue injury usually mimics the shape of the device
- Tend to progress rapidly due to lack of adipose tissu



Comparison

Location	Device	Non Device
Head/Face/Neck	70.3%	7.8%
Heel/Ankle/Foot	20.3%	16.9%
Coccyx/Buttocks	7.8%	67.5%
Sacrum	1.6%	16.9%















PU Prevention Recommendations

- Risk assessment
- Skin assessment
- Minimize pressure



- Minimize friction and shear
- Manage incontinence/moisture
- Assessment and management of pain
- Manage of nutrition and hydration needs
- Provide patient and family members education

Skin Assessment

Bundle Care Clinical Guidelines Clinical Pathway



A clinical pathway is a structured multidisciplinary plan of care designed to support the implementation of clinical guidelines.

The first step in clinical pathway is the performance of a

comprehensive skin assessment

Prevention start with this seemingly easy task

Process by which the entire skin of every individual is examined for any abnormalities.

It requires looking and touching the skin

from *head to toe*

With a particular emphasis over bony prominences

Inspection and *palpation* are key

Usual practice includes assessing the following parameters :

Temperature , Color , Moisture level , Turgor , Skin integrity

Persistent erythema Non-blanching hyperaemia Blisters Localised oedema Localised induration Purplish/bluish localised areas



Hand washing before and after the examination, or use gloves before the procedur are important.

Make sure the patient is comfortable. Minimize exposure of body parts. be sure to have good lighting. Ask for assistance to turn the patient, if needed.



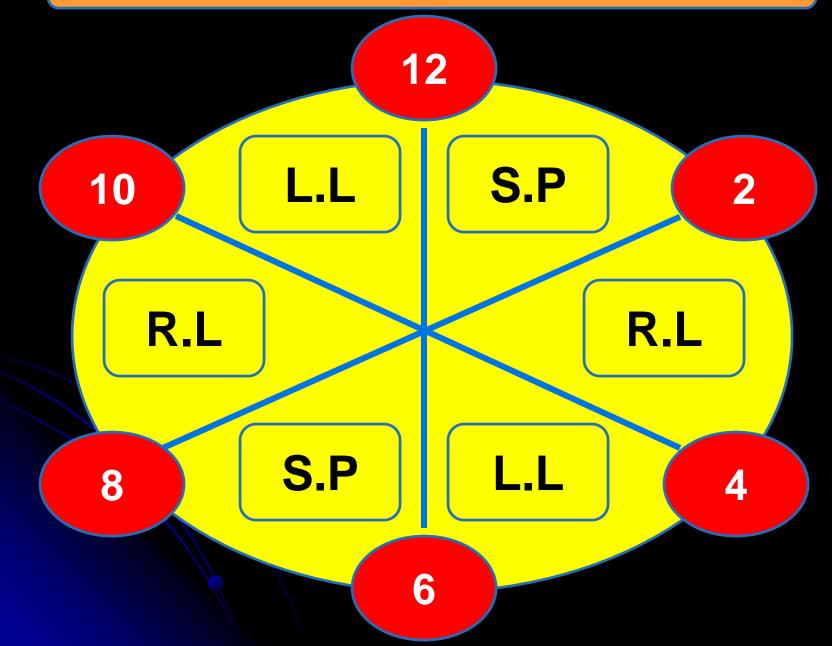
Look at the skin underneath any devices such as oxygen tubing, indwelling catheter, restraint, ...

the result of the comprehensive skin assessment must be documented in the patient's medical record and communicated among staff

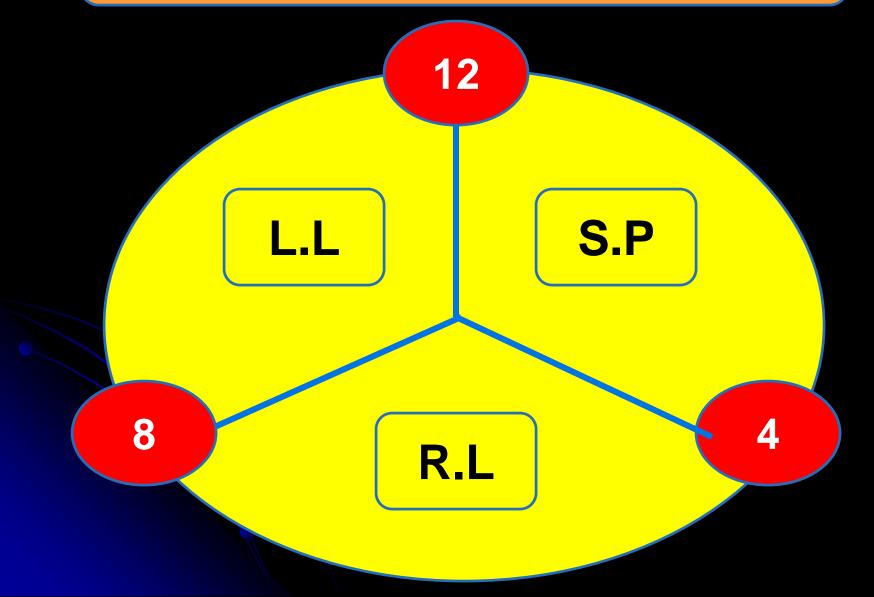
Minimize pressure Minimize friction and shear

- Reposition bed-bound persons at least every two hours and chair-bound persons every hour consistent with overall goals of care.
- Consider postural alignment, distribution of weight, balance and stability, and pressure redistribution when positioning persons in chairs or wheelchairs.
- Teach chair-bound persons, who are able, to shift weight every 15 minutes.
- Use a written repositioning schedule.

Turn Clock Position Model



Turn Clock Position Model In Neonates & Pediatrics in ICUs



Minimize pressure Minimize friction and shear

- Place at-risk persons on pressure-redistributing mattress and chair cushion surfaces.
- Avoid using donut-type devices and sheepskin for pressure redistribution.
- Use pressure-redistributing devices in the operating room for individuals assessed to be at high risk for pressure ulcer development.
- Use lifting devices (e.g., trapeze or bed linen) to move persons rather than drag them during transfering and position changes.

Minimize pressure Minimize friction and shear

- Use pillows or foam wedges to keep bony prominences, such as knees and ankles, from direct contact with each other.
- Use devices that eliminate pressure on the heels.
- For short-term use with cooperative patients, place pillows under the calf to raise the heels off the bed.
- Maintain the head of the bed at or below 30° or at the lowest degree of elevation consistent with the patient' medical condition.



Manage incontinence/moisture

- Individualize bathing frequency.
- Use a mild cleansing agent.
- Avoid hot water and excessive rubbing.
- Use lotion after bathing.
- Establish a bowel and bladder program for patients with incontinence.
- When incontinence cannot be controlled, cleanse skin at time of soiling, and use a topical barrier to protect the skin.

Manage incontinence/moisture

- Select under pads or briefs that are absorbent and provide a quick drying surface to the skin.
- Consider a pouching system or collection device to contain stool and to protect the skin.
- Use moisturizers for dry skin.
- Minimize environmental factors leading to dry skin such as low humidity and cold air.
- Avoid massage over bony prominences

Manage of nutrition and hydration needs

- Identify and correct factors compromising protein/calorie intake consistent with overall goals of care.
- Consider nutritional supplementation/support for nutritionally compromised persons consistent with overall goals of care.
- If appropriate offer a glass of water when turning to keep patient/resident hydrated.
- Multivitamins with minerals per physician's order.
- Vitamins A, C, and E and zinc.



Complications

cellulitis , osteomyelitis , septic arthritis sepsis , endocarditis , meningitis

Wound Location



The wound location should be precisely identified.

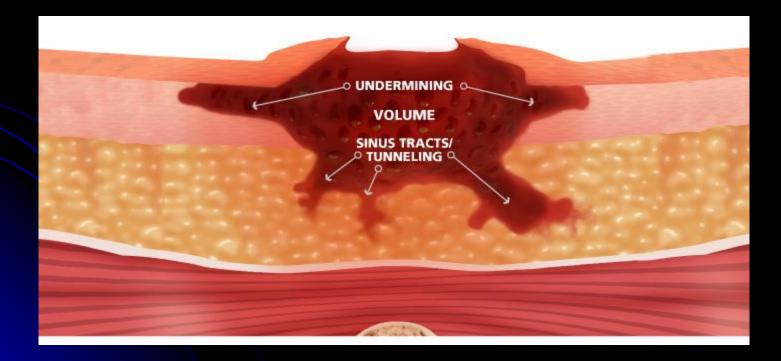
Use directional terms such as left or right, medial or distal, and the correct anatomic location.

Buttocks: sacral, coccyx, ischium, trochanteric, etc.

Abdomen: RLQ, RUQ, Suprapubic, etc.

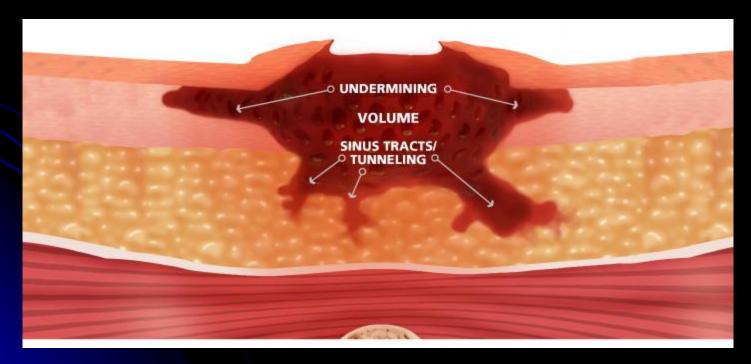
Wound Dimensions/Size

Length– head to toe dimension Width– side to side; greatest width perpendicular to the length Depth– from visible to the deepest area



Tunneling, Undermining

Tunneling is a pathway that can extend in any direction from the wound and results in dead space with potential for abscess formation. Also called sinus tract Undermining is a area of tissue destruction underlying intact skin along the wound margins.



Wound Base

Healthy Tissue

- ✓ Granulation red/pink, moist and beefy appearance
- ✓ Epithelialization dry, deep pink to pearly pink.
- Maturation light purple from edges in full thickness wounds or may form islands of superficial wounds

Necrotic tissue

Slough – yellow, tan Eschar – black, brown

Black Necrosis



Yellow Necrosis



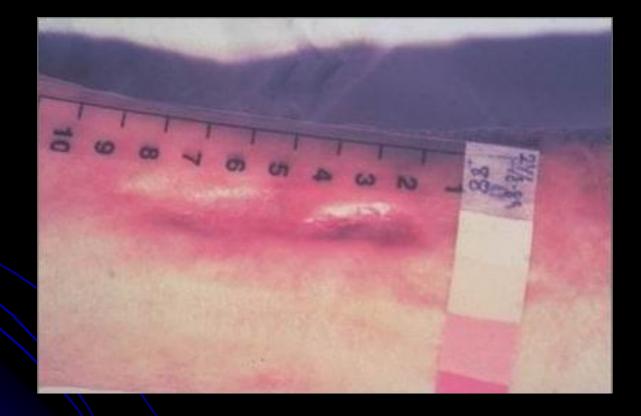
Granulation



Epithelialization



Maturation



Periwound Skin

4 cm of the wound edges Edema / Pitting, Non pitting Induration Erythema Periwound Pain Maceration Rash Absence of hair

Wound Exudate

Serous – clear to light color, Thin, watery Normal during inflammatory and proliferative phases of healing.

Serosanguinous – light red to pink , Thin, watery Normal during inflammatory and proliferative phases of healing.

Sanguineous – Red, Thin, watery Indicates disruption of blood vessels

Purulent – Yellow or tan, thick Signals wound infection



Surgical wounds generally heal faster than traumatic wounds, because there is less cell and tissue damage in surgical wounds.

Wound due to underlying pathology often become chronic, due to the comorbidities and changes in the wound bed.



Wound shape, size and depth affect the rate of healing.

Circular wound close more slowely than square or rectangular wounds, which close more slowly than linear wounds.

Large and full-thickness wounds heal more slowly than small or superficial wounds.

Changes in wound surface over time can assist with predicting wound healing.



Wound and environmental temperature affect wound healing.

Maintaining a normothermic wound environment at 37-38 degrees celsius has been shown to improve wound healing.

Chronic wounds have been found to be hypothermic, measuring 5-6 degrees below normal body temperature.



Desiccation slows epithelial cell migration resulting in delayed healing.

When a wound is covered, its fluids are trapped, maintaining a moist environment.

These fluids: *Stimulate collagen synthesis Induce angiogenesis Enhance contraction Contain growth factors and enzymes*

There is a delicate balance between a moist wound and a wet wound.

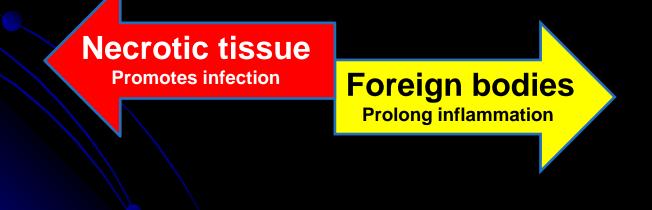




Necrotic tissue is dead, devitalized tissue present in the wound bed.

Necrotic tissue promotes infection

Foreign bodies prolong inflammation





Wound infection is the invation and multiplication of microorganisms in body tissues.

High concentration of microorganisms impair wound healing by competing with body cells for oxygen and energy, and by secreting cytotoxic substances.

Infection :

Prolongs inflammation Promotes wound dehiscence Increase scaring Slow wound healing

Wound bed preparation

Debridement Bacterial control Exudate management

Methods of debridement

Sharp Autolytic Enzymatic Mechanical Biological Surgical

Sharp debridement

Sharp debridement involves using forceps, scissors, or a scalpel to selectively remove devitalized tissue, foreign materials, and debris from a wound bed.

Fastest and most aggressive form of debridement outside of surgery.

Sharp debridement

Types of sharp debridement

Selective sharp debridement Serial instrumental debridement



after



















Autolytic debridement

The use of the body,s endogenous enzymes to digest necrotic tissue with a moisture-retentive dressing.

Wound fluid trapped beneath the dressing :

Softens and liquefies necrotic tissue Contains growth factors and inflammatory cells

Biologic debridement

Debridement using live maggots

- Larvae release enzymes that degrade / liquefy necrotic tissue
- Larvae ingest necrotic tissue and bacteria
- Contraindications: psychological stress and pain

Surgical debridement

Refers to the use of scalpels, scissors, or lasers in a sterile environment by a physician to remove nonviable tissue from the wound

- Reduced risk of infection
- Allows for extensive exploration
- Can be stressful and costly

Mechanical debridement

Use of force to remove devitalized tissue, foreign material, and debris. Nonselective debridement

- ✓ Wet-to-dry dressings
- ✓ Scrubbing
- Wound cleansing
- ✓ Wound irrigation
- ✓ Whirpool
- ✓ Pulsatile lavage

✓ Negative Pressure Wound Therapy (NPWT)

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PU in neonates

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- Irritation of nasal lining, recurrent sinus infections
- Nasal septum deviation, leading to obstruction of nasal passages
- Nasal cartilage necrosis leading to nasal collapse or stenosis
- Abrasion of the cartilage may alter shape of the nose
- Devices that can cause injury to nasal area, cheeks and forehead























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Wound Management Strategies

Relieve or minimize pressure

Assess wound for infection and need for Debridement

Appropriate Dressing

Pain management

WOUND CLEANSING

Sterile water and normal saline are the most commonly recommended cleansing agents for pediatric wounds, with sterile water being preferred for neonates

These cleansers should be warmed to body temperature for neonates, and normal saline should be diluted 1:1 with sterile water.Use of a 20-mL syringe with a blunt needle or a polytetrafluoroethylene(Teflon) catheter is recommended to gently flush away wound exudate

Type of dressing

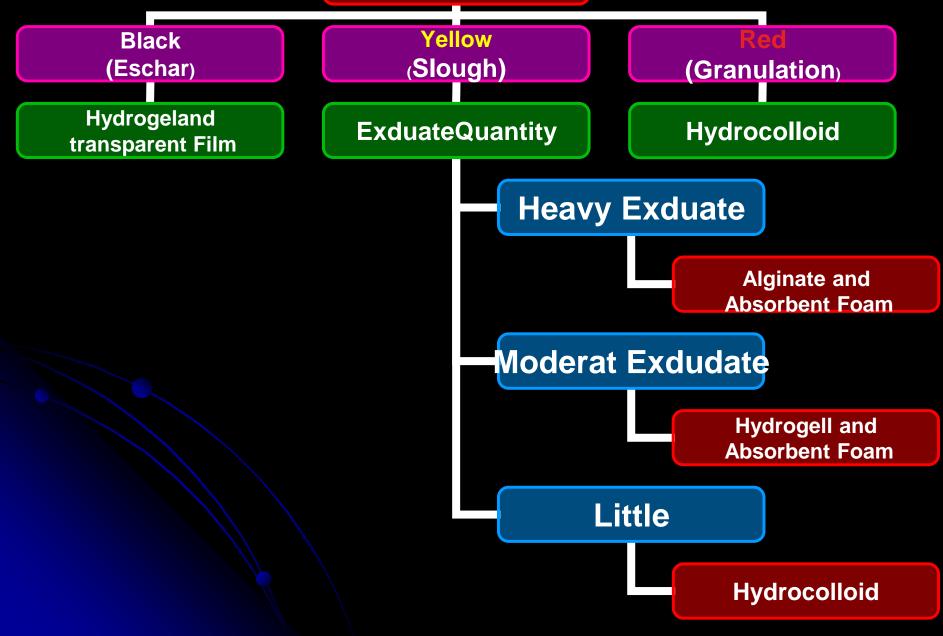
(foam, hydrocolloid, transparent films, Hydrogel, silicone)



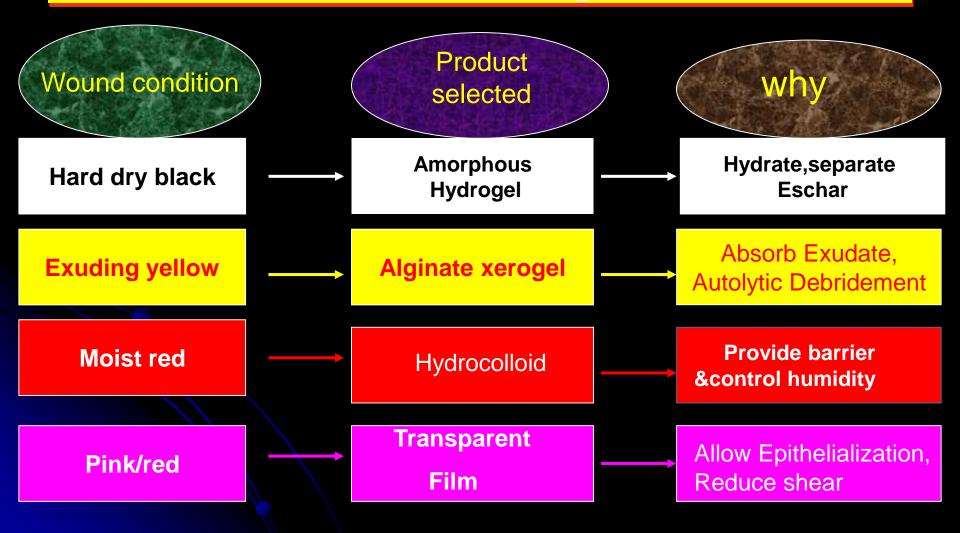
How Dressings Interact in Wound Healing ?

- Help to debride
- Providing optimal moist environment
- Promoting granulation
- Promoting epithelialization
- Protecting from infection

Wound color



Selecting the correct dressing as the wound changes



Wound Manager

- Management and recommendations for treatment
- Monitor progress of management
- Discuss problems, EBP
- Education

documentation

and

