IN-DEPTH REVIEW

Pathophysiology, Risk Factors, and Prevention of Wound Dehiscence Following Dermatologic Procedures

Andrew M. Armenta, MD¹, Frank T. Winsett, MD¹, Richard F. Wagner Jr. MD¹

¹Department of Dermatology, The University of Texas Medical Branch, Galveston, TX

ABSTRACT

Skin cancer is the most common malignancy in the United States and has been increasing in incidence, affecting approximately one in five Americans. As the number of skin cancers have increased, so have the number of dermatologic procedures including biopsies and excisions. Behind surgical site infection, wound dehiscence is the second most common postoperative complication of dermatologic procedures. There are many preoperative, intraoperative, and postoperative risk factors for wound dehiscence. The current literature on the risk factors of dehiscence within the field of dermatology is scarce. To our knowledge, there have not been any comprehensive reviews on this topic. Our research article aims to serve as a comprehensive and concise review with the goal of educating providers and increasing awareness of the risk factors associated with wound dehiscence.

INTRODUCTION

Skin cancer is the most common malignancy in the United States and has been increasing in incidence. affecting approximately one in five Americans.^{1,2} As the number of skin cancers have increased, so have the number of dermatologic procedures including biopsies, excisions and Mohs micrographic surgery.² Behind surgical site infection, wound dehiscence is the second most common postoperative complication of dermatologic procedures within and often occurs the first postoperative week.³⁻⁶ There are many preoperative, intraoperative, and postoperative risk factors that must be considered to decrease the risk for this common complication.

REVIEW

PHYSIOLOGY OF WOUND HEALING

Wound healing is separated into four overlapping phases: hemostasis. inflammation, proliferation, and maturation.⁷ If any of these stages are impaired, wound healing may be compromised. Hemostasis begins immediately following a break in the skin with bleeding and release of factors that activate extrinsic intrinsic the and coagulation pathways and promote platelet aggregation.7 plua The platelet is subsequently reinforced with a fibrin network upon which inflammatory cells migrate. During the inflammatory phase, neutrophils and macrophages migrate into the wound and are involved in clearance of pathogens, removal of cellular debris, and the release of various growth factors, setting the stage for the proliferative phase.⁸ Within 48 hours the proliferative phase begins with the formation of granulation tissue. During the proliferative phase fibroblasts replace the fibrin network November 2021 Volume 5 Issue 6 with collagen, myofibroblasts mediate wound contraction, and angiogenesis with neovascularization occurs. Concurrently, keratinocytes re-epithelialize the wound by migrating from the wound edges and remaining adnexal structures. The fourth and final stage is maturation or remodeling of the wound, which begins 2-3 weeks after wound development and can continue to 1 year. During remodeling, reorganization, degradation and resynthesis of the extracellular matrix occurs and the wound achieves its maximum tensile strength as type III collagen is replaced by type I collagen.⁸

The driving force in wound dehiscence is tension. If the tension applied to the wound is greater than that of the tensile strength of epidermis, dermis, and the wound repair materials, dehiscence will occur. Scar strength increases during the remodeling phase to a maximum tensile strength of approximately 80% of uninjured skin. Depending on anatomic location and surgeon preference, sutures are typically removed between 7-14 davs postoperatively. It is important to note, the tensile strength of a postoperative wound is typically less than 5% of normal skin at 1 week and less than 10% at 2 weeks.9

RISK FACTORS FOR WOUND DEHISCENCE

Surgical training and experience

Experience, training, and technical ability all play a role in post-operative outcomes of dermatologic procedures. Studies suggest that the experience of the surgeon is more significant than patient-related factors in acute wound failure and dehiscence.^{10,11} Two studies have demonstrated that fellowship trained Mohs surgeons have a lower rate of wound dehiscence (0.10% and 0.33%) when compared to non-fellowship trained Mohs surgeons (0.93%).^{6,12,13}

Anatomical location

Certain areas of the body are intrinsically more tensile than others. Extra care should be taken in areas of high tension including the scalp, back, proximal upper extremities and over joints.^{11,14} These locations have high tension due to movement, stretch and thick dermis. Areas with increased mobility around the joints, legs, lips and evelids are increased dehiscence.¹⁵ at risk of Additionally, areas prone to trauma such as the distal arms and legs are higher risk for wound dehiscence.

Delayed or slow wound healing, as is often observed on the distal lower extremities, can also be a risk factor for wound dehiscence.³ Poor perfusion can lead to insufficient oxygen and nutrient delivery needed for proper wound healing.³ The lower extremities are also at increased risk of venous stasis which can lead to increased tension on the surgical site from swelling.

Method of closure

When performing excisions, the axis of the wound can greatly impact the cosmetic outcome and risk of dehiscence and depends on anatomic location. Langer's lines were first proposed by Karl Langer in 1831 as lines of cleavage oriented parallel to collage fibers in the dermis.¹⁶ Later. Cornelius Kraissl proposed his own set of anatomic skin lines, Kraissl's lines, that run parallel to natural skin creases and perpendicular to underlying muscle fibers.¹⁷ While there is significant overlap between Langer's lines and Kraissl's lines, they differ in certain areas such as the face and abdomen and excisions following Kraissl's lines tend to be under less tension and

result in better cosmetic outcomes.¹⁷ More recently, a set of biodynamic excisional skin tension (BEST) lines have been proposed using a tensiometer to measure tension vectors and determine lines of least tension excisions.¹⁶ following circular Elliptical excisions are preferred over circular excisions, generally in a 3:1 length to width ratio, as they further reduce tension and prevent the formation of standing cones. Of note, vectors of tension may change with changes in position and movement and the axis of elliptical excisions should be decided in a neutral resting position.

Healing wounds have an increased demand for oxygen and nutrients compared to normal skin. When suturing a surgical defect excessive tension on sutures may lead to tearing of tissue or breaking of suture and result in wound dehiscence.^{3,18} Additionally, tight suture may strangulate the edges of the wound leading to poor perfusion and necrosis. Adequate undermining is often necessary to relieve tension and prevent dehiscence when approximating edges of a surgical wound.¹⁹

In areas of high tension, surgical techniques such as layered closure, mattress sutures, "pulley stitch," "gliding stitch," "Winch stitch,", or relaxing skin incisions have proven useful in securely approximating wounds.²⁰⁻²⁴ If additional support is needed, adhesive strips or other mechanical devices can be utilized.²⁵ In some cases, the size and tension of the defect is too great to be closed by primary intention. In these cases, skin grafts and flaps may be used to reduce or redistribute tension on surgical wounds in order to prevent dehiscence.^{12,13,19}

Surgical material

Suture material plays an important role in dehiscence rates. One study comparing

postoperative dehiscence rates of polyglactin 910 (Vicryl®), polyglecaprone 25 (Monocryl®), and polydioxanon (PDS®) found the rates significantly varied at 10.8%, 12.3%, and 4.7%, respectively. The same study found inflammatory reactions were greatest with polyglactin 910 and least with polydioxanone.²⁴ Further, too small caliber sutures may break or tear through tissue leading to dehiscence.¹¹ Removing sutures too soon may also contribute to dehiscence. If prolonged support is needed, sutures may be removed in stages or adhesive strips may be used.²⁵ Similarly, the application of a pressure bandage immediately postoperatively may prevent help postoperative bleeding as well as hematoma or seroma formation which may lead to dehiscence.15

Infection

Infection is a major risk factor for wound dehiscence. A study in Mohs surgery patients found that infection led to a 25% chance of dehiscence.¹² Postoperative wound infection can delay wound healing by prolonging the inflammatory phase and delaying progression of the proliferative and maturation phases.³ Surgical sites that are high risk for infection and impaired wound healing include the groin, armpits, hands, and lower extremities.²⁶⁻²⁸ Skin biopsies performed on hospitalized patients are much hiaher risk for postoperative infection compared outpatient to dermatologic procedures.²⁶

Hematoma Formation

When postoperative bleeding occurs, a collection of blood may form resulting in a hematoma which can increase tension on the wound and lead to dehiscence. Of note, flap and graft repairs are higher risk for hematoma formation when compared to

primary intention.¹² Skin grafts depend on imbibition early on for survival and hematoma development often leads to graft failure, necrosis, and dehiscence.^{12,13} Areas of high vascularity such as the face and the scalp are also at increased risk for hematoma formation.

Patient adherence

Patient adherence postoperative to instruction plays an important role in preventing dehiscence. Any significant tension placed on the wound early in the healing process may lead to dehiscence. Therefore, patients should be given clear activity restrictions and instructed to avoid heavy lifting, any activities such as stretching or straining that may increase tension on the surgical site. For lower extremity wounds, patients with congestive heart failure or venous insufficiency are advised to elevate their legs when possible to decrease swelling. Similarly, compressive dressings such as an Unna boot may be used.

Patient demographics that that are associated with an increased risk of dehiscence include young age and male gender, likely due to poor adherence to activity restrictions.¹¹ Further, propensity for surgical site trauma and poor wound hygiene are also likely to play a role in dehiscence.²⁹

Genetic predisposition

Non-modifiable risk factors for dehiscence include genetic diseases, advanced age, and skin site reactions. Genetic disorders with impaired collagen production like Ehlers-Danlos or dystrophic epidermolysis bullosa pose particular challenges during wound repair, as collagen synthesis is required for proper wound healing.^{7,30} Patients who have bleeding disorders like hemophilia may also be at increased risks of dehiscence due to postoperative bleeding and hematoma formation.¹⁷

Although younger age was found to be a risk factor for wound dehiscence, skin atrophy in advanced age can also contribute.²⁶ With collagen increasing production age. decreases and skin becomes more fragile. Gender may play a role in wound dehiscence behaviorally, but not biologically. Falland-Cheung et al found there were no significant differences when comparing the tensile strength of the scalp in males to females.¹⁴ Allergic reactions to bandages, adhesives, and topical antibiotics may contribute to dehiscence.¹⁵

Atherosclerosis, Diabetes Mellitus, and Hypertension

Atherosclerosis is the narrowing of an arterial lumen due to abnormalities in the vessel wall.³¹ This narrowing limits the delivery of oxygen rich blood and nutrients to peripheral tissue and skin required for wound healing. Impaired blood flow and nutrient delivery result in delayed wound healing and increased risk of dehiscence. The most common causes of atherosclerosis are diabetes, hypertension, smoking, and dyslipidemia.³¹ In addition to atherosclerosis, hyperglycemia in diabetics also interferes with nutrient absorption and function.32 endothelial Similarly, hypertension causes additional oxidative stress. perivascular inflammation and fibrosis that impair wound healing.³³

Smoking

It is well established that smoking is detrimental to vascular health and affects multiple phases of wound healing. In addition to contributing to atherosclerosis, during the inflammatory phase smoking can alter cytokines and chemo-attractants and suppress the immune response, leading to an increased risk of infection.³⁴ Smoking also induces increased amounts of oxidative stress, vascular inflammation, promotes vasoconstriction, and promotes the release of fibrinogen leading to a hypercoagulable state.³⁵ Furthermore, carbon monoxide from smoking binds to hemoglobin, displacing oxygen impeding its delivery to healing wounds.³⁵

Smoking also decreases collagen synthesis and reduces protease inhibition. This blunts tissue formation and accelerates tissue destruction.³⁵ Overall, the tensile strength of postoperative wounds is weakened by impairing both proliferation and maturation. Smokers who are undergoing dermatologic procedures should be counseled and encouraged to quit smoking prior to, and following surgery.³⁶ Smoking cessation prior to surgery was reported to decrease wound infection rates. but did not impact dehiscence.³⁴ Further, flaps and grafts should be avoided in these patients when possible due to higher failure rates.

Obesity

Obesity affects one third of adults in the United States and impairs multiple phases of wound healing leading to an increased risk of dehiscence.³⁶ An obese body habitus often leads to decreased chest expansion causing hypoxia and decreased oxygen supply.³⁷ The resultant hypoxia diminishes fibroblast collagen formation and cellular mechanisms.³⁷ repair Vasculogenic progenitor cells which normally contribute to wound angiogenesis also have impaired migration and proliferation in obese patients.³⁸ Dysfunctional vasculogenic progenitor cells and avascularity from surrounding adipose tissue decrease oxygen delivery to the wound.³⁸ Neutrophil and macrophage function are also impaired in obese patients causing a blunted immune response with increased risk of infection and dehiscence.³⁷

Malnutrition

Adequate caloric intake is required to support the inflammatory response, cellular activity. angiogenesis. and collagen synthesis required for wound healing.^{39,40} Carbohydrates are needed for fibroblast production and migration, leukocyte activity and the secretion of hormones and growth factors.39 Additionally, proteins like thrombospondin and albumin are essential for normal wound healing.40 Without a sufficient amount of these macronutrients, wounds are at an increased risk of delayed healing and dehiscence.

Several micronutrients are also integral in would healing. For example, vitamin K is an important factor in the coagulation cascade and hemostasis. Similarly, iron, zinc, and vitamins A, B, C, and D are essential to the inflammatory process and synthesis of collagen.³² In particular vitamin C (ascorbic acid) is a necessary cofactor in cellular apoptosis, clearance of neutrophils in the inflammatory phase, and collagen synthesis.⁴¹ Impaired collagen production disrupts the proliferative and maturation phases of wound healing and scar formation.

Medications

Some medications have been demonstrated to increase the risk for wound dehiscence. For example, systemic retinoids such as isotretinoin, have been shown to impair collagen and non-collagen protein synthesis in fibroblasts, leading to dehiscence.⁴² Further, dehiscence in mature scars (25 to

130 days old) have also been described following the initiation of isotretinoin.43 Immunosuppressive medications are also problematic. Steroids may impair interleukin cytoskeletal remodeling, signaling, and keratinocyte proliferation during the proliferative phases of wound healing.44 A retrospective assessment found immunosuppressed patients who underwent Mohs surgery at an increased risk of dehiscence when compared to immunocompetent patients.⁴ Similarly. mTOR inhibitors (sirolimus, everolimus) and hedgehog pathway inhibitors (vismodegib, sonidegib) have been shown to increase the incidence of dehiscence.^{45,46}

NSAIDs can also slow wound healing, acting mostly in the proliferative phase, thus increasing the risk of dehiscence.⁴⁷ NSAIDs inhibit keratinocyte proliferation and through disruption angiogenesis of prostaglandin PGE₂ and PGD₂ synthesis and vascular endothelial growth factor respectively.47,48 (VEGF) expression. NSAIDs are often used to treat acute postsurgical pain so the benefit of analgesia must be weighed against the risk of dehiscence. Multiple studies have shown that discontinuation of antiplatelet and anticoagulants may not be necessary prior to cutaneous surgery. Significant differences in complications including postoperative bleeding and wound dehiscence have not been demonstrated.^{12,49,50}

CONCLUSION

Wound dehiscence is among the most common complications following dermatologic procedures. It can lead to increased healthcare costs, infection, bleeding, need for additional procedures, poor cosmetic outcomes and may affect patient satisfaction. There are many modifiable and non-modifiable risk factors for dehiscence (Table 1) that must be identified in order to prevent this common complication.



Table 1.

Risk Factor	Mechanism	Phase(s) of Wound Healing Affected
Surgical Experience	Personal experience, skill, and knowledge of various surgical techniques	-
Anatomical Location		
Areas with tension	Tension > skin + suture tensile strength	Proliferation, Maturation
Areas with [−] blood flow	 oxygen and nutrient delivery to wound 	Proliferation
Areas with blood flow	risk of hematoma formation	Hemostasis
Areas with risk of swelling	Edema à tension on wound	Proliferation, Maturation
Areas with close proximity to the ground/structures	risk of trauma	-
Surgical materials		
Suture material	Strength of suture material	-
	Inflammatory reaction from suture material	Inflammation
Suture caliber	[−] caliber à [−] strength	-
Infection	Persistent inflammatory phase, prevents proliferation and maturation of wound	Inflammation
Setting of procedure	Greater risk of infection in inpatients	Inflammation

November 2021 Volume 5 Issue 6

Copyright 2021 The National Society for Cutaneous Medicine



Bleeding		
Active Bleeding	Prevents progression to normal wound healing	Hemostasis
Hematoma	tension on wound	-
Patient adherence	Lifestyle and occupational hazards (increased tension and rates of infection)	-
Gender	Rate of dehiscence: Males > Females	-
Genetic diseases		
Disorders of collagen formation	Impaired collagen production during wound healing	Proliferation, Maturation
Disorders of coagulation	Inability to coagulate à persistent bleeding, risk of hematoma formation	Hemostasis
Patient Age		
Young age	Active lifestyle	-
Old age	⁻ Collagen production	Proliferation, Maturation
Atherosclerosis		
Diabetes	Hyperglycemia ® atherosclerosis ® ⁻ blood flow	Proliferation
Hypertension	Oxidative stress, perivascular inflammation, fibrosis, and arterial calcification ® atherosclerosis ® ⁻ blood flow	Proliferation

Г



Smoking	 chemokines, chemoattractants 	Inflammation
	Oxidative stress, perivascular inflammation, ⁻ clotting ® ⁻ blood flow	Proliferation
	[−] protease inhibition, impaired collagen synthesis ® [−] collagen	Proliferation, Maturation
Obesity	O ₂ supply, O ₂ demand ® hypoxia ® impaired immune response, ⁻ collagen formation	Inflammation, Proliferation
Malnutrition	 nutrient availability ® impaired wound healing 	Hemostasis, Inflammation, Proliferation, Maturation
Medications		
Isotretinoin	Impaired collagen and non- collagen protein synthesis ® [–] collagen	Proliferation, Maturation
Immunosuppressants	Suppression of dermal and epidermal genes ® ⁻ IL signaling, cytoskeleton remodeling, keratinocyte proliferation	Proliferation
NSAIDs	 PGE₂, PGD₂, VEGF® impaired keratinocyte proliferation, ⁻ angiogenesis, ⁻ granulation tissue 	Inflammation, Proliferation

Conflict of Interest Disclosures: None

Funding: None



Corresponding Author:

Andrew M. Armenta, M.D. 301 University Blvd 4.122, McCullough Galveston, TX 77550-0783 Email: amarment@utmb.edu

References:

- 1. Guy GP, Machlin SR, Ekwueme DU, Yabroff KR. Prevalence and costs of skin cancer treatment in the U.S., 2002-2006 and 2007-2011. *Am J Prev Med.* Feb 2015;48(2):183-187.
- 2. Wang DM, Morgan FC, Besaw RJ, Schmults CD. An ecological study of skin biopsies and skin cancer treatment procedures in the United States Medicare population, 2000 to 2015. *J Am Acad Dermatol.* 2018. 78(1):47-53.
- 3. Rosen R, Manna B. StatPearls. *Wound Dehiscence*. StatPearls Publishing; 2020.
- Basu P, Goldenberg A, Cowan N, Eilers R, Hau J, Jiang SIB. A 4-year retrospective assessment of postoperative complications in immunosuppressed patients following Mohs micrographic surgery. J Am Acad Dermatol. Jun 2019;80(6):1594-1601.
- Alam M, Ibrahim O, Nodzenski M, et al. Adverse events associated with mohs micrographic surgery: multicenter prospective cohort study of 20,821 cases at 23 centers. *JAMA Dermatol.* Dec 2013;149(12):1378-85.
- Steinman HK, Clever H, Dixon A. The characteristics of Mohs surgery performed by dermatologists who learned the procedure during residency training or through postgraduate courses and observational preceptorships. *Proc (Bayl Univ Med Cent)*. Apr 2016;29(2):119-23.
- 7. Wallace H, Basehore B, Zito P. StatPearls. *Wound Healing Phases*. StatPearls Publishing; 2020.
- 8. Gonzalez AC, Costa TF, Andrade ZA, Medrado AR. Wound healing - A literature review. *An Bras Dermatol.* 2016 Sep-Oct 2016;91(5):614-620.
- 9. Ireton JE, Unger JG, Rohrich RJ. The role of wound healing and its everyday application in plastic surgery: a practical perspective and systematic review. *Plast Reconstr Surg Glob Open.* 2013;1(1):e10-e19.
- 10. Carlson MA. Acute wound failure. Surg Clin North Am. Jun 1997;77(3):607-36.
- 11. Gabrielli F, Potenza C, Puddu P, Sera F, Masini C, Abeni D. Suture materials and other

factors associated with tissue reactivity, infection, and wound dehiscence among plastic surgery outpatients. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* Jan 2001;107(1):38-45.

- Merritt BG, Lee NY, Brodland DG, Zitelli JA, Cook J. The safety of Mohs surgery: a prospective multicenter cohort study. J Am Acad Dermatol. Dec 2012;67(6):1302-9.
- 13. Cook JL, Perone JB. A prospective evaluation of the incidence of complications associated with Mohs micrographic surgery. *Arch Dermatol.* Feb 2003;139(2):143-52.
- Falland-Cheung L, Scholze M, Lozano PF, et al. Mechanical properties of the human scalp in tension. J Mech Behav Biomed Mater. 08 2018;84:188-197.
- 15. Buka B, Uliasz A, Krishnamurthy K. *Buka's Emergencies in Dermatology*. Springer; 2013.
- 16. Paul SP. Biodynamic excisional skin tension lines for surgical excisions: untangling the science. *Ann R Coll Surg Engl.* Apr 2018;100(4):330-337.
- 17. Maranda EL, Heifetz R, Cortizo J, Hafeez F, Nouri K. Kraissl Lines—A Map. *JAMA Dermatol.* 2016;152(9):1014.
- Stasko T, Roenigk H, Jr RH. Complications of cutaneous procedures. In: Dermatologic Surgery: Principles and Practice, 2nd ed,. New York: Marcel Dekker; 1996. p. 149.
- 19. Berens AM, Akkina SR, Patel SA. Complications in facial Mohs defect reconstruction. *Curr Opin Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg.* Aug 2017;25(4):258-264.
- 20. Alghamdi KM. The gliding stitch. *Dermatol Surg.* Jun 2008;34(6):803-5.
- 21. Giandoni MB, Grabski WJ. Surgical pearl: the dermal buried pulley suture. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. Jun 1994;30(6):1012-3.
- 22. Casparian JM, Monheit GD. Surgical pearl: the winch stitch-a multiple pulley suture. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. Jan 2001;44(1):114-6.
- 23. Coldiron BM. Closure of wounds under tension. The horizontal mattress suture. *Arch Dermatol*. Sep 1989;125(9):1189-90.
- Breuninger H, Keilbach J, Haaf U. Intracutaneous butterfly suture with absorbable synthetic suture material. Technique, tissue reactions, and results. *J Dermatol Surg Oncol.* Jul 1993;19(7):607-10.
- 25. Clayton A, Stasko T. *Dermatology*. 3rd ed. vol 2. Surgical Complications and Optimizing Outcomes Elsevier; 2012.
- Wahie S, Lawrence CM. Wound complications following diagnostic skin biopsies in dermatology inpatients. *Arch Dermatol*. Oct 2007;143(10):1267-71.



- 27. Sandy-Hodgetts K, Carville K, Leslie GD. Determining risk factors for surgical wound dehiscence: a literature review. *Int Wound J*. Jun 2015;12(3):265-75.
- Delpachitra MR, Heal C, Banks J, Divakaran P, Pawar M. Risk Factors for Surgical Site Infection in Minor Dermatological Surgery: A Systematic Review. Adv Skin Wound Care. May 2019;32(5):217-226.
- 29. Gantwerker EA, Hom DB. Skin: histology and physiology of wound healing. *Facial Plast Surg Clin North Am.* Aug 2011;19(3):441-53.
- 30. Reimer A, Has C. [Syndromes with skin fragility]. *Hautarzt*. Jul 2019;70(7):481-489.
- Libby P, Buring JE, Badimon L, Hansson GK, Deanfield J, Bittencourt MS, Tokgözoğlu L, Lewis EF. Atherosclerosis. Nat Rev Dis Primers. 2019 Aug 16;5(1):56.
- 32. Barchitta M, Maugeri A, Favara G, et al. Nutrition and Wound Healing: An Overview Focusing on the Beneficial Effects of Curcumin. *Int J Mol Sci.* Mar 2019;20(5).
- Guzik TJ, Touyz RM. Oxidative Stress, Inflammation, and Vascular Aging in Hypertension. *Hypertension*. 10 2017;70(4):660-667.
- 34. Sørensen LT. Wound healing and infection in surgery: the pathophysiological impact of smoking, smoking cessation, and nicotine replacement therapy: a systematic review. Ann Surg. Jun 2012;255(6):1069-79.
- 35. Siasos G, Tsigkou V, Kokkou E, et al. Smoking and atherosclerosis: mechanisms of disease and new therapeutic approaches. *Curr Med Chem.* 2014;21(34):3936-48.
- Anderson K, Hamm RL. Factors That Impair Wound Healing. J Am Coll Clin Wound Spec. Dec 2012;4(4):84-91.
- Wilson JA, Clark JJ. Obesity: impediment to wound healing. *Crit Care Nurs Q*. 2003 Apr-Jun 2003;26(2):119-32.
- Wagner IJ, Szpalski C, Allen RJ, et al. Obesity impairs wound closure through a vasculogenic mechanism. Wound Repair Regen. 2012 Jul-Aug 2012;20(4):512-22.
- 39. Casey G. Nutritional support in wound healing. Nurs Stand. 2003 Feb 19-25 2003;17(23):55-8.
- 40. Russell L. The importance of patients' nutritional status in wound healing. *Br J Nurs*. Mar 2001;10(6 Suppl):S42, S44-9.
- Anderson B. Nutrition and wound healing: the necessity of assessment. *Br J Nurs*. 2005 Oct 27-Nov 9 2005;14(19):S30, S32, S34.
- 42. Shigematsu T, Tajima S. Modulation of collagen synthesis and cell proliferation by retinoids in

human skin fibroblasts. *J Dermatol Sci*. Mar 1995;9(2):142-5.

- 43. Aksoy HM, Aksoy B, Çalikoglu E. Systemic Retinoids and Scar Dehiscence. *Indian J Dermatol.* 2019 Jan-Feb 2019;64(1):68-70.
- 44. van Anholt RD, Sobotka L, Meijer EP, et al. Specific nutritional support accelerates pressure ulcer healing and reduces wound care intensity in non-malnourished patients. *Nutrition*. Sep 2010;26(9):867-72.
- 45. Brewer JD, Otley CC, Christenson LJ, Phillips PK, Roenigk RK, Weaver AL. The effects of sirolimus on wound healing in dermatologic surgery. *Dermatol Surg*. Feb 2008;34(2):216-23.
- 46. Shanmugam VK, Fernandez SJ, Evans KK, et al. Postoperative wound dehiscence: Predictors and associations. *Wound Repair Regen*. 2015 Mar-Apr 2015;23(2):184-90.
- 47. Zhao-Fleming H, Hand A, Zhang K, et al. Effect of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs on postsurgical complications against the backdrop of the opioid crisis. *Burns Trauma*. 2018;6:25.
- Goren I, Lee SY, Maucher D, et al. Inhibition of cyclooxygenase-1 and -2 activity in keratinocytes inhibits PGE. *Int Wound J*. Feb 2017;14(1):53-63.
- 49. Otley CC, Fewkes JL, Frank W, Olbricht SM. Complications of cutaneous surgery in patients who are taking warfarin, aspirin, or nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs. *Arch Dermatol*. Feb 1996;132(2):161-6.
- 50. Billingsley EM, Maloney ME. Intraoperative and postoperative bleeding problems in patients taking warfarin, aspirin, and nonsteroidal antiinflammatory agents. A prospective study. *Dermatol Surg.* May 1997;23(5):381-3; discussion 384-5.