The effects of smoking on wound healing

Cigarette smoking is a key risk factor for poor wound healing, with a greater risk of infection and scarring. The various tobacco-derived chemicals — including nicotine — are detrimental to tissue oxygenation and the immune response, affecting leukocytes and fibroblasts, and leading to necrosis, inadequate microbial eradication and poor collagen production; resulting in low-tensile wound strength. This article examines the steps that healthcare practitioners should take when treating and managing individuals with wounds who smoke. Smokers should be identified with biochemical monitoring and then counselled about the detrimental effects of smoking. They should be advised about the use of pharmacotherapy, such as nicotine replacement therapy, and assisted to attend specialist support facilities provided by the NHS and pharmacies.
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The burning of tobacco leaves. The chemicals created are divided into two phases — the gaseous phase and the particulate phase. The gaseous phase consists of volatile, small molecular weight chemicals, which are inhaled and partially exhaled, producing ‘second-hand’ smoke. The particulate phase, often called tar, is made up of large molecular weight compounds and contains many of the carcinogens and high molecular weight toxins associated with the damaging effects of cigarette smoke (Talhout et al, 2011).

The gaseous phase includes carbon monoxide, which is absorbed into the blood stream, and then attaches to the haemoglobin to form carboxyhaemoglobin that reduces the oxygen-carrying ability of the blood. Cancer-forming compounds, such as nitrosamines, are present in this phase, along with nicotine. Nicotine is the addictive substance in tobacco, and it is a powerful neurotoxin, stimulating nicotine receptors in many areas of the brain, inducing relaxation and increased cognitive function.

Present in both phases are short-lived, but highly reactive, free radicals — compounds such as hydrogen peroxide, superoxides and hydroquinines — that have the energy to damage macromolecules, such as DNA, and lipids and specifically polymers, which are the structural building blocks of connective tissue and fibres, such as collagen (Ortiz and Grando, 2012).

While it is difficult to identify every effect of smoking on wound healing, the main toxic components of interest are nicotine, carbon monoxide and hydrogen cyanide (Campanile et al, 1998). Wounds require an adequate circulating blood supply to receive the oxygen, various nutrients and chemicals required in the complex healing process (Enoch et al, 2006).

NICOTINE

In cells and tissues, nicotine (Figure 1) causes vasoconstriction, increased platelet adhesion (resulting in thrombotic microvasculature occlusion) and reduced proliferation of keratinocytes, fibroblasts and macrophages (Campanile et al, 1998). Nicotine acts directly on many of these cell types through cholinergic nicotinic receptors in the cell membrane.

Circulating nicotine has an inhibitory effect on keratinocyte migration distance (Zia et al, 2000) and in wounds that lack a protective epidermal barrier, it decreases the number and activity of the immune cells, which increases the risk of contamination and local infection (Hart, 2002).

Paradoxically, Morimoto et al (2008) found that while high and chronic concentrations of nicotine impaired wound healing, low concentrations of topically applied nicotine actually improved healing, by promoting angiogenesis. Although this seems counterintuitive, it may offer a potential for a new approach to wound therapy, but the detrimental effect of high and chronic concentrations of nicotine may not balance the potential for faster healing.

LEUKOCYTES

In normal wound healing, inflammation attracts cells to the wound site via a cascade process of chemical messengers and interactions (Hart, 2002). Neutrophils, monocytes and T-lymphocytes remove cellular debris and bacteria — thus reducing the chance of infection — creating an environment that is ready for the synthesis of new tissue within the wound (Hart, 2002). Neutrophils and monocytes defend against wound infection by oxidative killing of bacteria by the effects of free radicals or reactive oxygen species (ROS). An RCT involving a cohort of 70 healthy volunteers to examine the effect of smoking on neutrophil and monocyte oxidative burst activity found bactericidal potential was 50% and 68% less in.
If, then, smoking is such an important factor contributing to slow wound healing, as well as an increased risk of infection, then all smokers should be identified for specialist treatment.

FIBROBLASTS
During the early stages of wound healing, there is a complex, co-ordinated growth of tissue, with the migration of fibroblasts, deposition of the extracellular matrix, the formation of granulation tissue and a new epithelial layer is created (Enoch and Leaper, 2005). The morphology and mobility of fibroblasts are affected by smoking, even at low levels of exposure, with changes to the secretion of adhesion molecules (Wong and Martins-Green, 2004). In addition, these abnormal cells are allowed to persist by stress response proteins that regulate cell survival. This results in the buildup of abnormal fibrous tissue, which contributes to slow, poor wound healing with a tendency toward scarring (Wong and Martins-Green, 2004).

COLLAGEN
The strength and progress of a healing wound largely depends on the structure and integrity of mature collagen. This is determined by adequate perfusion and oxygenation at the wound bed for it to be deposited and remodelled (Jorgensen et al, 1998). A building block of collagen is the amino acid hydroxyproline and smokers have been shown to have less available hydroxyproline, and this appears related to the level of smoking as measured by cigarette consumption (Jorgensen et al, 1998). This lack of collagen formation in the smokers’ wounds equates to less tensile wound strength, and may be a potential cause of the increased incidence of wound dehiscence in smokers’ postoperative wounds (Sorensen et al, 2003).

Fibroblasts and collagen production are affected by ROS and cigarette smoke is a highly concentrated source of these free radicals. The natural occurrence of ROS is tightly controlled by dietary and synthetic antioxidants. Smokers generally have a low dietary intake of antioxidant vitamins and yet have a high ROS assault. This imbalance is important as it disrupts protein function, as well as enhances and perpetuates chronic inflammation, which disturbs processes involved in wound healing. Targeting oxidative stress in inflammatory skin conditions may reduce infections and assist fibroblast and collagen production (Wagener et al, 2013).

IDENTIFICATION OF SMOKERS
If, then, smoking is such an important factor contributing to slow wound healing, as well as an increased risk of infection, then all smokers should be identified for specialist treatment. But there is strong evidence that many smokers feel compelled to misrepresent their current status (Gorber et al, 2009). A high percentage of patients undergoing elective surgery have been shown to deny their habit, with levels varying from 4% (Coon et al, 2013) to 26% (Payne and Southern, 2006), depending on how much advice been given to the patient about smoking and any policy to restrict treatment to smokers.

There is also a low level of awareness among patients about the effects of smoking on wound healing with one study reporting only 40% of patients surveyed had any knowledge that smoking was detrimental to postoperative recovery (Webb et al, 2013).

Self-reported smoking is widely accepted as prone to bias and false reporting so there is an increasing use of simple biochemical tests to identify and quantify smoking habit. A well-established method is expired-air carbon monoxide (eCO) levels. Simple handheld monitors provide measurements of tobacco use, but CO is not specific to tobacco, being generated by traffic exhausts and faulty domestic heaters. Also, eCO is a by-product of carboxyhaemoglobin, which as a short half-life (3 hours), meaning eCO is only monitoring smoking habit over a 6–8 hour period (Christenhusz et al, 2007). A more sensitive and specific test is cotinine, a breakdown product of nicotine, which can be detected in urine or saliva and can be carried out using 5-minute point of care tests (Cope et al, 2012). This can monitor smoking for up to 3 days, but by detecting cotinine, it will also test positive in anyone using nicotine replacement therapy (NRT).

Cotinine measurements have been shown to be a more accurate method of monitoring the effects of smoking on wound healing, with one investigation reporting that smokers who experienced wound-healing problems had higher levels of urinary
cotinine than the smokers who healed without complication (Bartsch et al, 2007).

HELP TO QUIT
Once identified, smokers should be instructed by specially trained nurses about the damaging effects of smoking on wound healing and the possibility of tissue necrosis, infection or skin sloughing. The patient should also be encouraged to attend the local smoking cessation service for more general support on how to quit. Attendance can be improved by booking an appointment with the clinic and the clinician stressing to the patient this is an essential part of their treatment.

The smoking cessation services usually involve group sessions with advice about NRT. This should ideally involve a slow-release formula, such as a patch in combination with a rapid-release form, such as a gum or lozenge, but patients should be told not to exceed the recommended course of treatment, as there are cases of people becoming addicted to using NRT. There are alternative non-nicotine pharmaceutical aids to quitting, notably varenicline (Champix®, Pfizer) or bupropion (Zyban®, GlaxoSmithKline), both of which have shown promising clinical results and should be considered as an alternative.

A new tool has emerged as a possible means of reducing tobacco consumption and that is the electronic or e-cigarettes. These are currently unregulated and are sold over the counter as an alternative source of nicotine, but there is little knowledge of the long-term effects of these products.

Good advice about pharmaceutical aids and smoking cessation is available at pharmacies, which have been shown to be a useful source of behavioural smoking cessation advice (Taskila et al, 2012). Patients should also be directed to the NHS Smokefree website (http://smokefree.nhs.uk) and also to the telephone helpline.

Trials investigating smoking cessation and wound healing have found universal improvements in reducing infection rates, complications and speed of wound healing (Figure 2). These are realistic to implement and are cost effective; resulting in reduced hospital stays and cheaper follow-up care (Møller et al, 2006).

CONCLUSION
It must be recognised that smoking is detrimental to wound healing and must not go unchallenged or neglected. The identification and monitoring of smoking habit and the intervention at every opportunity to get smokers to quit or to consider doing so should not be left to others. There is no controversy in correcting hypertension, uncontrolled diabetes and various heart conditions in order to decrease the risk of postoperative complications and poor wound healing. Smokers
should be enrolled into an effective treatment programme to optimise surgical outcomes and subsequent wound healing (Haney et al., 2014).

REFERENCES


