

# Complex Foot Injury

## Early and Definite Management



Tim Schepers, MD, PhD<sup>a,\*</sup>, Stefan Rammelt, MD, PhD<sup>b</sup>

### KEYWORDS

• Complex foot • Reconstruction • Amputation • Outcome

### KEY POINTS

- Complex foot occur infrequently, but are life-changing events; treatment is difficult and, if the necessary facilities are not available, referral should be considered.
- The first step in severe trauma should be the trauma screening and resuscitation according to the ABCDE principle following the Advanced Trauma Life Support system.
- The initial treatment of a complex foot injury consists of preventing progression of ischemia/necrosis, prevention of infection, and considering salvage or amputation.
- Definitive treatment (salvage) consists of anatomic reconstruction with stable internal fixation and early soft tissue coverage followed by aggressive rehabilitation and adequate orthopedic shoe modifications.
- Overall, the prognosis is hard to predict and determined by the severity of injury, comorbidities, complications, secondary interventions, and individual demands.

### INTRODUCTION

In the fracture epidemiology study by Court-Brown and Caesar,<sup>1</sup> the percentage of fractures involving the foot was approximately 12% out of a total of approximately 6000 patients in 1 year, of which metatarsal and toe fractures accounted for 85%. In an additional analysis on open fractures, the portion of open foot fractures was 10.5% of all open fractures out of almost 2400 open fractures in 15 years.<sup>2</sup> A crude calculation using both studies would show that looking only at the foot injuries (excluding toe fractures) about 1% of all foot injuries is an open fracture, making it a rare injury. In war time, up to 12% to 22% of injuries are foot related.<sup>3,4</sup> A complex trauma to the foot is associated with polytrauma or multiple injury in 22% to 50% of cases, making the management of these injuries an even greater challenge.<sup>5–8</sup>

---

The authors have nothing to disclose.

<sup>a</sup> Trauma Unit, Academic Medical Center, University of Amsterdam, Meibergdreef 9, PO Box 22660, Amsterdam 1100 DD, The Netherlands; <sup>b</sup> University Center for Orthopaedics and Traumatology, University Hospital Carl-Gustav Carus, Fetscherstrasse 74, Dresden 01307, Germany

\* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: [t.schepers@amc.nl](mailto:t.schepers@amc.nl)

Foot Ankle Clin N Am 22 (2017) 193–213

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.fcl.2016.09.014>

1083-7515/17/© 2016 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

[foot.theclinics.com](http://foot.theclinics.com)

An increase in more severe foot ankle trauma has been reported in several studies.<sup>9–11</sup> They occur not only as combat-related injuries, but also in daily life. One theory is that, for example, in car accidents the passenger’s upper body is protected well, but the area of the lower leg is less well-protected.<sup>10,12</sup> A second theory relates to the advancing age and a more active elderly population.<sup>13</sup>

Severe injuries of the foot are a life-changing event.<sup>11,14,15</sup> They often lead to some form of disability, and are therefore a real challenge to manage. Injuries of the extremity, and especially of the foot and ankle, are distinct predictors of poor outcome in polytrauma patients.<sup>16–24</sup> Injuries to the foot should, therefore, receive similar attention and treatment as do long bone injuries.<sup>25</sup>

In complex foot trauma, there is a gray area between injuries that are and are not able to be reconstructed. In this article, we present guidance and tools to aid in the treatment and decision making, which, owing to its infrequent occurrence, can be a difficult process at times.

TERMINOLOGY, DEFINITIONS, AND CLASSIFICATION

Complex injuries of the foot are those injuries that occur infrequently, have a major impact on the quality of life, frequently lead to disability, are accompanied by high complication rates, require special expertise, and should therefore be treated in a dedicated level 1 trauma center.<sup>5,26,27</sup> They are often a combination of both bony and soft tissue damage.

Complex injuries of the foot (and ankle) are also called mangled or smashed extremity injuries, or high-energy lower extremity trauma. In an epidemiologic study on open fractures by Court-Brown and colleagues,<sup>2</sup> the most common trauma mechanisms were crush injuries, falls from a height, and motor vehicle accidents. Crush injuries are the result of a body part being forcefully compressed between 2 hard surfaces. Compression of the muscle mass blocks the flow of blood and oxygen to tissues (ischemia), resulting in tissue death (necrosis) within a few hours. A particular entity are combat-related and mine blast injuries (“pied du mine”) resulting from explosives.<sup>28–31</sup>

Damage to the soft tissue is often classified by the Tscherne–Oestern classification of closed skin injuries (Table 1).<sup>32</sup> It ranges from minimal soft tissue damage to extensive contusion or crush. It is invariably correlated with the energy of the trauma, and therefore also with the severity of the fracture, if present. Closed fractures with skin at risk owing to bone or joint dislocation should be included in this group as well.

Even though Tscherne also proposed a classification for open injuries, the most frequently used classification for open fractures is that by Gustilo and Anderson

| Table 1<br>Tscherne classification of closed fractures |                                                                                                                                                                                |
|--------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Grade 0                                                | No or minor soft tissue damage.<br>Indirect injury with simple fracture.                                                                                                       |
| Grade 1                                                | Superficial abrasion or skin contusion.<br>Medium severity fracture pattern.                                                                                                   |
| Grade 2                                                | Deep (contaminated) abrasion with skin or muscle contusion.<br>Severe fracture pattern by direct trauma.                                                                       |
| Grade 3                                                | Extensive skin contusion, crush injury with severe damage to underlying muscle.<br>Compartment syndrome, Morel-Lavallee, and/or vascular injury.<br>Complex fracture patterns. |

| Table 2<br>Gustilo classification of open fractures |                                                                                                                                                                                                                      |
|-----------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Grade 1                                             | Clean wound (<1 cm). Minimal soft tissue damage. Simple fracture pattern.                                                                                                                                            |
| Grade 2                                             | Soft tissue damage moderate, no tissue loss, wound >1 cm. Simple fracture pattern.                                                                                                                                   |
| Grade 3                                             | A. Extensive soft tissue damage, adequate coverage of bone.<br>B. Extensive soft tissue injury, soft tissue loss, bone exposed, periosteal stripping. Wound contamination.<br>C. Open fracture with arterial damage. |

(Table 2).<sup>33,34</sup> It classifies open injuries according to the size of the wound and neurovascular involvement. Complication rates are associated strongly with the grade of open injury with complication infectious complication rates of greater than 40% in grade 3 open injuries.<sup>34</sup> Because the interobserver agreement is low for the Gustilo classification, the injury should not be graded in the emergency department, but in the operating room after debridement.<sup>35</sup>

Zwipp and associates<sup>8,27</sup> proposed a scoring system for foot and ankle injuries to define a complex injury (Fig. 1). The foot and ankle are divided into 5 major areas (Lisfranc, Chopart, calcaneus, talus, and ankle/pilon). Each injured area (dislocation or fracture) equals 1 point, to which points are added for the severity of the soft tissue injury according to the Tscherne and Oestern grade in the most affected area. When the sum of the score is 5 points or higher the injury is considered a complex foot trauma. If a hospital is less familiar with a certain injury, it might be deemed a complex injury even at a lower total score and subsequent referral to a trauma center should be considered.

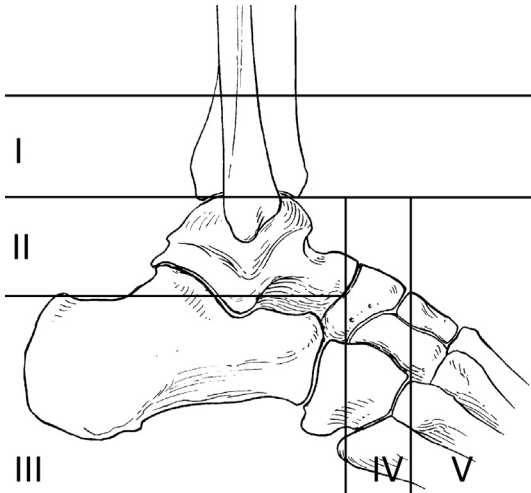
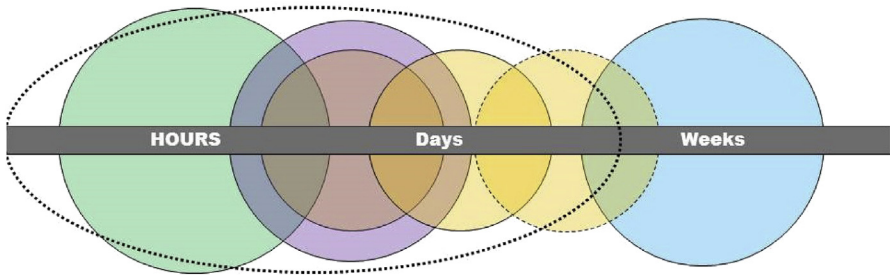


Fig. 1. Zwipp classification of complex foot and ankle injury.

### INITIAL TREATMENT

If a patient with a severe injury of the foot presents at the emergency department the following 2 phases can be recognized: (1) initial or early treatment and (2) definite treatment. The initial or immediate treatment of a complex injury of the foot has several goals and can be divided into 3 (overlapping) subphases (Fig. 2): prevention of

# Timeline



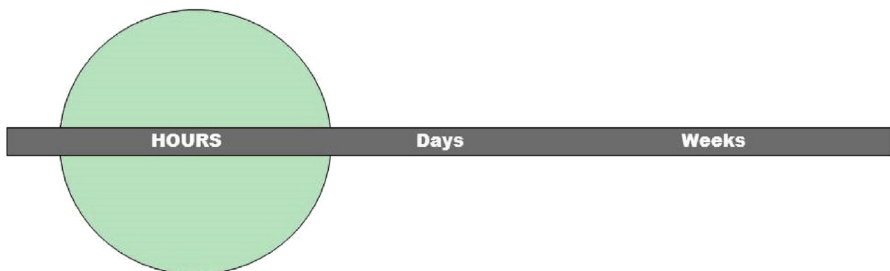
**Fig. 2.** Timeline of complex foot management. Dotted white field indicates initial treatment.

progression of ischemia and necrosis, prevention of infection, and consideration of salvage or amputation.

## ***Prevent Progression of Ischemia and Necrosis***

The first step for every patient with a severe trauma should be the trauma screening and resuscitation according to the ABCDE-principle following the Advanced Trauma Life Support system ("life before limb"; **Fig. 3**). Only gross displacement (at fracture site or dislocation of joints) causing impairment of perfusion can be addressed briefly, ideally at the site of accident. If there are no other life-threatening injuries that need attention first or the patient is stabilized, then the foot injury is assessed and treated.<sup>6</sup>

The second step is diagnostics. Using a physical examination (if possible before intubation), conventional radiographs, and (angio-) computed tomography scans, one should assess vascular injury (palpable pulses, capillary refill, temperature, color, Doppler pulse device), neurologic impairment (sensibility, motoric deficit), soft tissue injury (closed and open), and assess bone and joint injury. Usually at the primary assessment conventional radiographs are sufficient to determine the early treatment (eg, external fixation). During the planning of the definite treatment computed tomography scans are valuable (span-scan-plan principle).

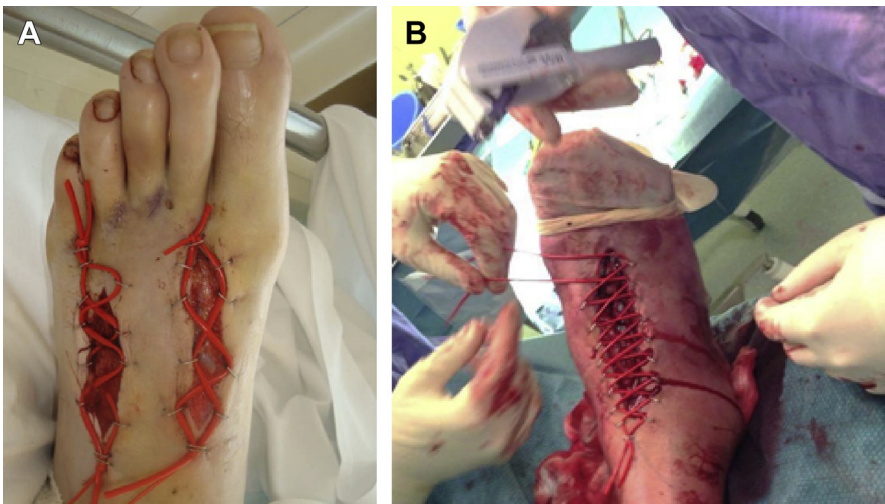


**Fig. 3.** Phase 1: prevention of progression ischemia/necrosis.

Often in a complex (open) foot injury the strategy chosen is not early total care but damage control orthopedics (limb damage control orthopedics).<sup>36</sup> The individual steps of damage control orthopedics of the foot are as follows:

- Treat the open injury as soon as possible.<sup>37</sup>

- Aggressively debride open wounds using washouts with saline and removal of dead tissue and loose (osseous) fragments.<sup>27,38–42</sup> The use of high-pressure lavage is discouraged.<sup>43</sup>
- Fasciotomy for (impeding) compartment syndrome to prevent ischemia and contractures (**Fig. 4**).<sup>44–49</sup> Early fasciotomy is associated with less morbidity and improved outcomes.<sup>50,51</sup> The sequelae of misdiagnosed or untreated foot compartment syndromes are persistent pain, equinus and cavovarus deformity, clawing of the toes and short foot syndrome.<sup>14,46,48,52–55</sup> The ischemic (dead) tissues can become infected, which has a major impact on future treatment options. The fasciotomy is performed depending on the location of the injury and depending on the subsequent treatment of the injury.<sup>56</sup> A medial approach combined with 2 dorsal approaches over the second and fourth metatarsals is the workhorse in the release of all 9 compartments of the foot.<sup>49,56</sup> A single incision dorsal (Hannover) approach has been described, as well as an extended single medial approach (Henry approach).<sup>5,57–62</sup> A plantar (Loeffler) approach is not encouraged because it potentially leads to a painful scar. The possibility of a concurrent compartment syndrome of the lower leg and foot through a connection from the deep posterior to the foot with the subsequent need of an extended fasciotomy should be kept in mind.<sup>63</sup>
- Rigid (temporary) fracture fixation using external fixation or Kirschner wires.<sup>64–70</sup> The external frame stabilizes the fracture, allows for frequent inspection and healing of the soft tissues, and prevents the occurrence of equinus deformity.<sup>42</sup> In selected cases with simple fractures and clean wounds, one could decide to perform primary definitive fracture fixation.<sup>71,72</sup> This treatment option should be chosen if both the patient's condition and the local conditions are fit enough to withstand the duration of the procedure and the second hit from surgery. Stabilization of the open fracture is thought to be protective of infection.<sup>37</sup> Many different frame configurations exist (**Fig. 5**), and the type of bone and soft tissue injury are leading in choosing the appropriate frame.<sup>65–67</sup> The tibia is almost always chosen for half-pin placement. Other distal locations are calcaneus (transfixation pin), talus, cuneiform, and the first and fifth metatarsals. The configuration should allow



**Fig. 4.** Two examples of fasciotomy of the foot. (A) Classical Manoli approach. (B) Hannover approach.



**Fig. 5.** Various different foot-ankle external fixator configurations.

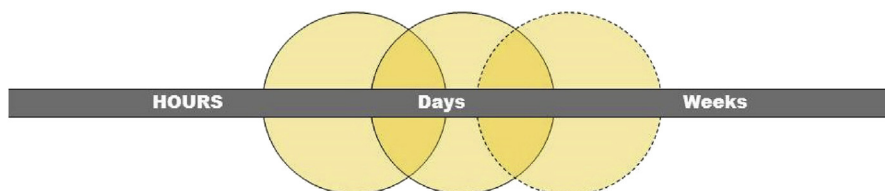
for wound inspection and dressing (eg, negative pressure wound therapy [NPWT]) changes. Preferably the frame should be on the most injured side, so that the other side is preserved for the definite surgical approach. Attention to pin care should prevent the occurrence of pin track infections.

- Indications for immediate (external) stabilization are as follows<sup>42</sup>:
  - Fracture-(dislocation) with compromised neurovascular structures or skin at risk;
  - Grade 3 open (unstable) fractures;
  - Fracture-(dislocation) with concomitant compartment syndrome; and
  - Gross instability at fracture site or joint.

Although the evidence is not solid, the use of hyperbaric oxygen (HBO) therapy in the treatment of complex foot injuries has been described in several studies.<sup>73,74</sup> Crush injuries are an approved indication for HBO treatment.<sup>74–79</sup> The concept behind the use of HBO in complex trauma is an improved tissue oxygenation (hyperoxygenation), decrease in swelling (vasoconstriction), and preventing the release of toxic oxygen radicals (reperfusion) and its possible aid in the repair of injured tissues (host factors).<sup>74</sup> One randomized trial from 1996 showed improved healing and a reduction in repeat surgery in extensive crush injuries.<sup>73</sup> Therefore, in the presence of ischemia after a crush injury and the availability of a hyperbaric unit, the use of HBO therapy should be considered strongly.

### ***Prevention of Infection***

Open fractures should be covered quickly with sterile wound dressings (**Fig. 6**). Fewer than 20% of infections in open fractures are caused by microorganisms present after trauma and more than 90% of infections are hospital-acquired infections.<sup>80–82</sup>



**Fig. 6.** Phase 2: Prevention of infection.

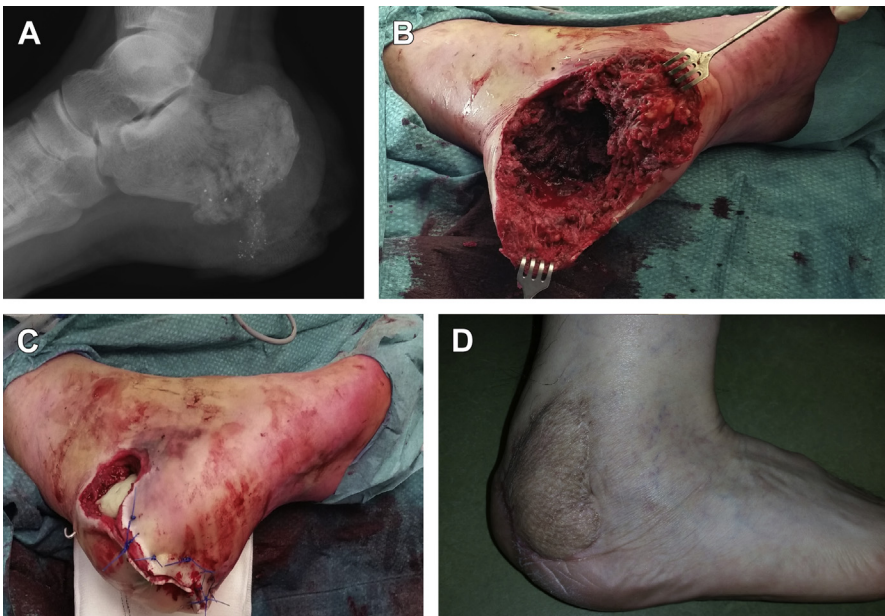


Digital photographs should be taken to facilitate communication and for patient records.

After the initial washout and debridement, repeated and aggressive debridement and irrigation should be performed as deemed necessary. Depending on the initial contamination and the expectation of ongoing necrosis owing to the force of the trauma (zone of injury),<sup>83</sup> a second (and third if necessary) look should be performed after 24 to 48 hours.<sup>5,27,37,41,52</sup> Traumatized tissue is highly susceptible to infection.<sup>37</sup>

In open fractures, appropriate antibiotics should be started as soon as possible.<sup>41,84,85</sup> A first-generation cephalosporin is usually first choice. Gentamycin might be added in case of gross contamination or grade 3 open fractures.<sup>37</sup> Tetanus prophylaxis should be administered.

When bone defects arise from bone loss or removal owing to infection, necrosis, or gross contamination, gentamycin beads are frequently used.<sup>37,86,87</sup> They release high-dose antibiotics (far higher than serum levels) and maintain therapeutic levels for more than 1 week.<sup>37</sup> However, when used in the treatment of infection, the gentamycin beads act as a biomaterial, which becomes colonized at a high percentage.<sup>88</sup> An alternative solution is the use of polymethylmethacrylate antibiotic-loaded cement spacer (PMMA G/V antibiotic cement).<sup>89–92</sup> The benefit over gentamycin beads is that it fills out the entire cavity, leaving no room for empty voids that can fill with hematoma or debris and might lead to infection. Second, it adds stability to the foot in combination with implants or external fixation (**Fig. 7**). Third, the duration of release is longer than with beads, and can be as long as 8 to 10 weeks.<sup>93,94</sup> Based on the results of cultures from wound swabs, different antibiotics can be added.<sup>93,94</sup> After a chosen period, which depends on the indication of placement, the cement can be removed and



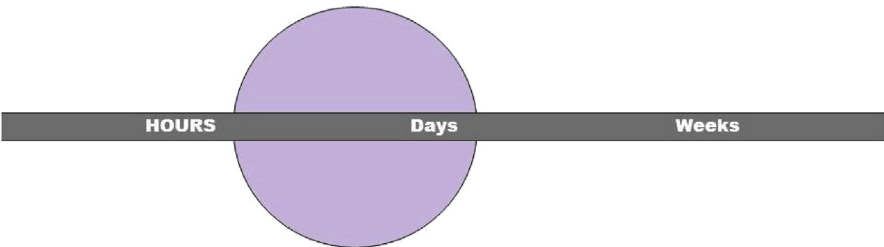
**Fig. 7.** Use of temporary polymethylmethacrylate antibiotic-loaded (PMMA) cement spacer. (A) Radiograph of foot after nail shot to the heel. (B) Cavity left after debridement. (C) After insertion of vancomycin PMMA spacer. (D) Final follow-up with free gracilis flap.

exchanged for tricortical (iliac crest) or cancellous bone graft (eg, from the proximal tibia). Bone grafts may be enhanced with the use of a reamer irrigator aspirator system.<sup>95</sup>

Open wounds in complex foot (and ankle) injuries can be closed temporarily using artificial skin, NPWT (also known as vacuum-assisted closure) or using the antibiotic bead pouch.<sup>96-106</sup> The use of NPWT in open fractures has been investigated more extensively and has shown fewer infectious complications, lesser reoperation rates, and a decrease in hospitalization.<sup>100,103,106,107</sup> In cases in which wounds of open fractures can be closed after the initial debridement, vacuum-assisted closure therapy has been shown to aid in wound healing,<sup>108,109</sup> similar as in high-risk surgical incisions.<sup>110</sup> Combining the concepts of the antibiotic bead pouch and NPWT has been proposed as well, with the fluid-draining effect of the vacuum device on the availability of the antibiotics is still subject to debate.<sup>111,112</sup> For wounds that need soft tissue transfer, early definite flap coverage has been shown to lead to decreased infection rates after complex trauma.<sup>113,114</sup>

**Consider Salvage or Amputation**

Early in the treatment course, it should be discussed whether the foot is expected to be salvageable or needs to be amputated (Fig. 8). The combined rate of primary and secondary amputation is about 15% to 30%, depending on the severity of injury.<sup>5,26,115,116</sup> In case of extreme injury to the limb or when then patient's life is at risk, as in polytraumatized and polymorbid patients, a primary amputation should be performed.<sup>6,27,117,118</sup>



**Fig. 8.** Phase 3, Consider salvage/amputation.

In cases in which an amputation needs to be performed secondarily, the opinion of the patient should be considered in light of the shared decision making process, if the patients' condition allows for it. It is, however, primarily a decision based on the expertise of the treating physician combined with the results of a multidisciplinary team judgment. This team consists of (but is not limited to) the orthopedic (trauma) surgeon, emergency physician, plastic surgeon, radiologist, pain consultant (anesthesiologist), neurologist, rehabilitation manager, and psychologist.

A recent metaanalysis on severe lower limb trauma showed that reconstruction was psychologically more acceptable to patients compared with an amputation, although outcome scores for both treatment options were comparable.<sup>119</sup> In addition to a primary amputation or a late secondary amputation after failed salvage, regular assessments (early delayed decision) should be performed including the patient's perspective and rehabilitation progress.<sup>120</sup>



Whether or not an amputation is considered is based on patient-related and injury-related factors.<sup>115</sup> In general, an amputation leads to a shorter treatment time, fewer surgical procedures, and a quicker recovery.<sup>121</sup> However, prosthesis costs are greater than reconstruction costs, depending on the patient's age at the time of injury.<sup>122</sup>

Data from the LEAP (Lower Extremity Assessment Project) study showed that severe muscular damage at the lower leg, absence of plantar sensation, venous injury, ischemia, the need for soft tissue coverage, and a high Injury Severity Score are the most important factors leading to amputation.<sup>115</sup> Other factors that should be taken into account are pre-existing peripheral vascular disease and poorly controlled diabetes.<sup>123</sup> Indications for amputation, both primary and secondary, are as follows.<sup>114,124,125</sup>

- Absolute amputation indications
  - Severe polytrauma (previously classified as a score of 3–4 on the polytrauma score by Oestern)<sup>126</sup>
  - Uncontrollable bleeding (Advanced Trauma Life Support system [life before limb])
  - Resources and a lack thereof (war time or less well-equipped hospital)<sup>127</sup>
  - Complete amputation or remaining “skin bridge” only, without the resources for replantation
- Relative amputation indications (**Fig. 9**)
  - Nonreconstructable vascular injury<sup>117</sup>
  - Objectified tibial nerve transection
  - Loss of the talus
  - Loss of the weight-bearing foot sole
  - Crush injury to the forefoot (prolonged ischemia)



**Fig. 9.** Relative indications for primary amputation. (A) Nonreconstructable (vascular) injury. (B) Proven transection of tibial nerve. (C) Open talar extrusion with severe cartilage damage. (D) Loss of weight-bearing sole of foot. (E) Crush injury with ischemia of more than 6 hours.

**Box 1****Predictive scores for limb salvage**

AIS: Abbreviated Injury Score (A.A.A.M,<sup>154</sup> 1971)

Gustilo classification (Gustilo and Anderson,<sup>33</sup> 1976; Gustilo et al,<sup>34</sup> 1984)

HFS-97: Hannover Fracture Scale-97/98 (Tscherne,<sup>155</sup> 1983)

MESI: Mangled Extremity Syndrome Index (Gregory et al,<sup>156</sup> 1985)

PSI: Predictive Salvage Index (Howe et al,<sup>157</sup> 1987)

MESS: Mangled Extremity Severity Score (Johansen et al,<sup>136</sup> 1990)

LSI: Limb Salvage Index (Russell et al,<sup>158</sup> 1991)

NISSA: Nerve injury, Ischemia, Soft Tissue Injury, Skeletal Injury, Shock, Age Score (McNamara et al,<sup>159</sup> 1994)

FASS: Foot and Ankle Severity Scale (Manoli et al,<sup>160</sup> 1997)

The Ganga Hospital Injury Severity Score (Rajasekaran,<sup>161</sup> 2005)

List of available limb salvage prediction scores. See text for references.

Over time, many investigators have tried to compute the need for an amputation and successfully predict limb salvage (**Box 1**).<sup>127–137</sup> These limb salvage scores were designed to decrease subjectivity and provide guidance in the difficult process of complex foot injury management. Ideally, a trauma limb salvage system would be 100% specific (all salvaged limbs have scores below the threshold) and 100% sensitive (all amputated limbs have scores at or above the threshold). In daily practice as reflected in the literature on several scoring systems, the specificity is mostly greater than 95%, but sensitivity lies at less than 60% to 70%.<sup>128–137</sup>

Results of the LEAP study showed the inability of scoring systems to predict the need for amputation accurately, although low scores may predict salvage.<sup>130</sup> An initial absence of plantar sensation was a poor predictor, because in one-half of the cases sensation returned.<sup>131</sup> Psychological and social factors proved more important than scoring systems in predicting outcome.<sup>138</sup> Future research should focus on the first postoperative phase, to prevent morbidity from prolonged salvage attempts, late amputations, salvaged limbs without sensation, and functional failures.<sup>123,128</sup>

Scoring systems are of limited use and should not be the sole criterion on which the decision to amputate is based.<sup>139</sup> They may aid in strengthening a clinical decision. One should keep in mind that predicting salvage or amputation is a prediction of neither outcome nor function.<sup>114,132</sup> Although the LEAP study, dealing with all severe lower extremity injuries, revealed no differences in outcome after salvage versus amputation, studies that focused on isolated severe foot injuries (“mangled foot and ankle”) showed significantly inferior functional results after foot salvage in both civilian and military cohorts.<sup>29,31,140</sup> All of these studies showed higher rates of complications and revision surgeries as well as prolonged hospitalization and rehabilitation in the salvage groups.<sup>141,142</sup>

## DEFINITE TREATMENT

After the initial management and patient counseling, the definite treatment is undertaken. The different strategies are amputation and salvage (**Fig. 10**). Salvage includes anatomic reconstruction of the axial alignment and functional columns of the foot,



**Fig. 10.** Phase 4: Definite management.

early stable soft tissue coverage, and primary arthrodesis in cases of severe cartilage injury or gross instability. The timing of definitive treatment depends on the condition of the patient and the soft tissues. A recent prospective study demonstrated that multiply injured patients subjected to secondary definitive surgery between days 2 and 4 had a significantly ( $P < .0001$ ) increased inflammatory response compared with that in patients operated on between days 6 and 8.<sup>143</sup>

### **Amputation**

If primary amputation is warranted, it should be performed at the lowest, most distal level possible.<sup>141,142</sup> In case of high-energy trauma, it is rarely wise to create a definite stump early in the process. Skin and muscle necrosis might develop for several more days, and recurrent debridement is frequently necessary.<sup>118</sup> The type of amputation is largely affected by the level of injury and the availability of viable soft tissues. There is no clear evidence that a certain amputation technique is significantly better. However, in series comparing below the knee, through the knee, and above the knee amputations, the percentage of patients eventually walking with a prosthesis is greater in the below the knee amputation group.<sup>144–146</sup>

After more distal (Chopart, Lisfranc, or transmetatarsal) amputations, muscle balancing is mandatory.<sup>123,147</sup> Flexor and extensor tendons should be reinserted into the most distal remaining bones, if possible. To avoid flexion contracture, primary or secondary fusions may be considered, above all after Chopart amputations.<sup>147</sup> More proximal amputations (Pirogoff and Syme) still allow the patient to load their own heel. After a successful Pirogoff amputation, patients are still able to walk bare-foot for short distances without the need for an orthosis. Results with this technique are better for posttraumatic amputation than after amputation for diabetic vasculopathy and the average loss of limb length is less than 3 cm.<sup>147,148</sup>

### **Stable Internal Fixation**

Important surgical principles in posttraumatic foot surgery are precise reconstruction of the foot axes, the functional length of the medial and lateral foot column, and the longitudinal and transverse arches, that is, restitution of the normal foot anatomy.<sup>52</sup> Stable internal fixation has to be accompanied by early and durable soft tissue coverage.<sup>113</sup> Early free tissue transfer has the potential to lower infection rates after third-degree open fractures and allow for functional rehabilitation.<sup>113,149,150</sup>

### **Reconstruction**

- Osseous first (from proximal to distal, but starting with the talus before pilon/ankle).<sup>6,52</sup>
- Primary fusions for severely comminuted intraarticular fractures.<sup>123,151–153</sup>

- Delayed closure using NPWT/vacuum-assisted closure<sup>97-100</sup>
- Early and stable soft tissue coverage (discuss the reconstructive ladder with the plastic surgeon from primary closure or split thickness skin grafts to pedicled or free flap closure as needed).<sup>113,150</sup>
- Frequently, depending on function deficit or deformity, a patient can significantly benefit from shoe adaptations, such as insoles, rocker bottom soles, stabilization in orthopedic shoes, orthosis, or silicone prostheses.

### Outcome

There are 6 areas of outcome expectation: (1) the final expected function, (2) cosmesis and chronic swelling, (3) pain and loss of sensation, (4) duration of treatment, (5) cost of treatment, and (6) emotional factors.<sup>123</sup> Few studies report explicitly the results after complex foot trauma. Kinner and colleagues<sup>5</sup> reviewed 50 patients who fulfilled the Zwipp criteria for complex foot trauma<sup>8,52</sup> treated according to the principles as discussed after an average of 4 years follow-up. The mean American Orthopaedic Foot and Ankle Society score was 66.2. The Short Form-12 score showed a physical component of 38.2. And the visual analog scale foot/ankle score was 51.9. Eleven patients underwent primary and 7 patients secondary amputation. Secondary amputation was associated significantly with an Injury Severity Score of greater than 16 and primary soft tissue damage. The overall complication rate was 32%, with 8 patients requiring a free flap for soft tissue coverage. A total of 53% of the patients returned to their preinjury occupation, and 41% were able to perform sports (as compared with 77% before their injury). The complex foot trauma score correlated with the American Orthopaedic Foot and Ankle Society score and the restrictions in the activities of daily living.

When following 19 patients with similar severity of injury over an average of 6 years, Ferreira and colleagues<sup>7</sup> found nearly the same American Orthopaedic Foot and Ankle Society score (average 68.0) but also chronic pain in 15 cases (79%) and a chronic regional pain syndrome in 7 cases (37%). Eleven patients (58%) had a stiff foot, 6 (32%) had chronic ulcerations, and 2 (11%) had chronic osteitis. Still, almost one-half of the patients could return to their previous occupation. Possible reasons for the inferior results as compared with the study of Kinner and colleagues<sup>5</sup> were that most patients were treated with external fixation only and subjected to longer immobilization. Most important, Ferreira and colleagues<sup>7</sup> reported 68% as having residual deformities.

Overall, the prognosis after complex injuries to the foot and ankle is hard to predict because of the relatively scarce literature and the high variability of the injury pattern. Results are determined by various confounders, such as overall severity of injury, comorbidities, complications, secondary interventions, and individual demands.<sup>5,7,14</sup> A subgroup analysis of the LEAP population with complex foot injury showed that patients with severe foot and ankle injuries who require free tissue transfer or ankle fusion have Sickness Impact Profile scores that are significantly worse than with below the knee amputations.<sup>140</sup>

### SUMMARY

The treatment of complex foot injuries has come a long way in the past decade. One should always keep the end result in mind. Although saving the limb might be psychologically better at first, an insensate, nonfunctional, and/or painful stiff foot with the need for secondary interventions and prolonged hospitalization and rehabilitation might be a far worse outcome. Treatment should be individualized based on patient

and injury characteristics. If the necessary facilities are not available, referral should be considered. If the decision to salvage the foot is made, anatomic reconstruction of the foot and ankle with stable internal fixation and early soft tissue coverage followed by an aggressive rehabilitation protocol and adequate orthopedic shoe modifications must be pursued to achieve maximal functional recovery. Complex foot injuries are difficult to treat and may take up to several years to manage.

## REFERENCES

1. Court-Brown CM, Caesar B. Epidemiology of adult fractures: a review. *Injury* 2006;37(8):691–7.
2. Court-Brown CM, Bugler KE, Clement ND, et al. The epidemiology of open fractures in adults. A 15-year review. *Injury* 2012;43(6):891–7.
3. Bluman EM, Ficke JR, Covey DC. War wounds of the foot and ankle: causes, characteristics, and initial management. *Foot Ankle Clin* 2010;15(1):1–21.
4. Johnson BA, Carmack D, Neary M, et al. Operation Iraqi Freedom: the Landstuhl Regional Medical Center experience. *J Foot Ankle Surg* 2005;44(3):177–83.
5. Kinner B, Tietz S, Muller F, et al. Outcome after complex trauma of the foot. *J Trauma* 2011;70(1):159–68 [discussion: 168].
6. Rammelt S, Biewener A, Grass R, et al. Foot injuries in the polytraumatized patient. *Unfallchirurg* 2005;108(10):858–65 [in German].
7. Ferreira RC, Sakata MA, Costa MT, et al. Long-term results of salvage surgery in severely injured feet. *Foot Ankle Int* 2010;31(2):113–23.
8. Zwipp H. Severe foot trauma in combination with talar injuries. In: Tscherne H, Schatzker J, editors. *Major fractures of the pilon, the talus and the calcaneus*. Berlin: Springer Verlag; 1993. p. 123–35.
9. De Boer AS, Schepers T, Panneman MJ, et al. Health care consumption and costs due to foot and ankle injuries in the Netherlands, 1986–2010. *BMC Musculoskelet Disord* 2014;15:128.
10. Richter M, Thermann H, Wippermann B, et al. Foot fractures in restrained front seat car occupants: a long-term study over twenty-three years. *J Orthop Trauma* 2001;15(4):287–93.
11. Weninger P, Nau T, Aldrian S, et al. Long-term results in the treatment of foot injuries in polytraumatized patients. *Zentralbl Chir* 2005;130(5):485–91 [in German].
12. Fildes B, Lenard J, Lane J, et al. Lower limb injuries to passenger car occupants. *Accid Anal Prev* 1997;29(6):785–91.
13. Seeley DG, Kelsey J, Jergas M, et al. Predictors of ankle and foot fractures in older women. The Study of Osteoporotic Fractures Research Group. *J Bone Miner Res* 1996;11(9):1347–55.
14. Myerson MS, McGarvey WC, Henderson MR, et al. Morbidity after crush injuries to the foot. *J Orthop Trauma* 1994;8(4):343–9.
15. Westphal T, Piatek S, Schubert S, et al. Quality of life after foot injuries. *Zentralbl Chir* 2002;127(3):238–42 [in German].
16. Holbrook TL, Anderson JP, Sieber WJ, et al. Outcome after major trauma: discharge and 6-month follow-up results from the Trauma Recovery Project. *J Trauma* 1998;45(2):315–23 [discussion: 323–4].
17. Holbrook TL, Anderson JP, Sieber WJ, et al. Outcome after major trauma: 12-month and 18-month follow-up results from the Trauma Recovery Project. *J Trauma* 1999;46(5):765–71 [discussion: 771–3].

18. Probst C, Richter M, Lefering R, et al. Incidence and significance of injuries to the foot and ankle in polytrauma patients—an analysis of the Trauma Registry of DGU. *Injury* 2010;41(2):210–5.
19. Stalp M, Koch C, Ruchholtz S, et al. Standardized outcome evaluation after blunt multiple injuries by scoring systems: a clinical follow-up investigation 2 years after injury. *J Trauma* 2002;52(6):1160–8.
20. Tran T, Thordarson D. Functional outcome of multiply injured patients with associated foot injury. *Foot Ankle Int* 2002;23(4):340–3.
21. Turchin DC, Schemitsch EH, McKee MD, et al. Do foot injuries significantly affect the functional outcome of multiply injured patients? *J Orthop Trauma* 1999;13(1):1–4.
22. von Ruden C, Woltmann A, Rose M, et al. Outcome after severe multiple trauma: a retrospective analysis. *J Trauma Manag Outcomes* 2013;7(1):4.
23. Weninger P, Aldrian S, Koenig F, et al. Functional recovery at a minimum of 2 years after multiple injury-development of an outcome score. *J Trauma* 2008;65(4):799–808 [discussion: 808].
24. Zelle BA, Brown SR, Panzica M, et al. The impact of injuries below the knee joint on the long-term functional outcome following polytrauma. *Injury* 2005;36(1):169–77.
25. Heckman JD, Champine MJ. New techniques in the management of foot trauma. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 1989;(240):105–14.
26. Court-Brown C, Honeyman C, Bugler K, et al. The spectrum of open fractures of the foot in adults. *Foot Ankle Int* 2013;34(3):323–8.
27. Zwipp H, Dahlen C, Randt T, et al. Complex trauma of the foot. *Orthopade* 1997;26(12):1046–56 [in German].
28. Jacobs LG. The landmine foot: its description and management. *Injury* 1991;22(6):463–6.
29. Ramasamy A, Hill AM, Phillip R, et al. The modern “deck-slap” injury—calcaneal blast fractures from vehicle explosions. *J Trauma* 2011;71(6):1694–8.
30. Bevevino AJ, Dickens JF, Potter BK, et al. A model to predict limb salvage in severe combat-related open calcaneus fractures. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 2014;472(10):3002–9.
31. Dickens JF, Kilcoyne KG, Kluk MW, et al. Risk factors for infection and amputation following open, combat-related calcaneal fractures. *J Bone Joint Surg Am* 2013;95(5):e24.
32. Tscherne H, Oestern HJ. A new classification of soft-tissue damage in open and closed fractures (author's transl). *Unfallheilkunde* 1982;85(3):111–5 [in German].
33. Gustilo RB, Anderson JT. Prevention of infection in the treatment of one thousand and twenty-five open fractures of long bones: retrospective and prospective analyses. *J Bone Joint Surg Am* 1976;58(4):453–8.
34. Gustilo RB, Mendoza RM, Williams DN. Problems in the management of type III (severe) open fractures: a new classification of type III open fractures. *J Trauma* 1984;24(8):742–6.
35. Brumback RJ, Jones AL. Interobserver agreement in the classification of open fractures of the tibia. The results of a survey of two hundred and forty-five orthopaedic surgeons. *J Bone Joint Surg Am* 1994;76(8):1162–6.
36. Roberts CS, Pape HC, Jones AL, et al. Damage control orthopaedics: evolving concepts in the treatment of patients who have sustained orthopaedic trauma. *Instr Course Lect* 2005;54:447–62.



37. Acello AN, Wallace GF, Pachuda NM. Treatment of open fractures of the foot and ankle: a preliminary report. *J Foot Ankle Surg* 1995;34(4):329–46.
38. Investigators F, Bhandari M, Jeray KJ, et al. A trial of wound irrigation in the initial management of open fracture wounds. *N Engl J Med* 2015;373(27):2629–41.
39. Husain ZS, Schmid S, Lombardo N. Functional outcomes after gunshot wounds to the foot and ankle. *J Foot Ankle Surg* 2016;55(6):1234–40.
40. Eberl R, Rutenstock EM, Singer G, et al. Treatment algorithm for complex injuries of the foot in paediatric patients. *Injury* 2011;42(10):1171–8.
41. Halawi MJ, Morwood MP. Acute management of open fractures: an evidence-based review. *Orthopedics* 2015;38(11):e1025–1033.
42. Amsberg G, Seifert J, Ekkernkamp A. Komplexes Fussstrauma. *Trauma Berufskrankh* 2004;3(6):182–5.
43. Ovaska MT, Madanat R, Makinen TJ. Predictors of postoperative wound necrosis following primary wound closure of open ankle fractures. *Foot Ankle Int* 2016;37(4):401–6.
44. Mittlmeier T. Acute compartment syndrome and complex trauma of the foot. *Unfallchirurg* 2011;114(10):893–900 [in German].
45. Ojike NI, Roberts CS, Giannoudis PV. Foot compartment syndrome: a systematic review of the literature. *Acta Orthop Belg* 2009;75(5):573–80.
46. Swoboda B, Scola E, Zwipp H. Surgical treatment and late results of foot compartment syndrome. *Unfallchirurg* 1991;94(5):262–6 [in German].
47. Thakur NA, McDonnell M, Got CJ, et al. Injury patterns causing isolated foot compartment syndrome. *J Bone Joint Surg Am* 2012;94(11):1030–5.
48. Zwipp H. Reconstructive measures for the foot after compartment syndrome. *Unfallchirurg* 1991;94(5):274–9 [in German].
49. Sands AK, Rammelt S, Manoli A. Foot compartment syndrome – a clinical review. *Fuß Sprunggelenk* 2015;13(1):11–21.
50. Farber A, Tan TW, Hamburg NM, et al. Early fasciotomy in patients with extremity vascular injury is associated with decreased risk of adverse limb outcomes: a review of the National Trauma Data Bank. *Injury* 2012;43(9):1486–91.
51. Han F, Daruwalla ZJ, Shen L, et al. A prospective study of surgical outcomes and quality of life in severe foot trauma and associated compartment syndrome after fasciotomy. *J Foot Ankle Surg* 2015;54(3):417–23.
52. Zwipp H, Tscherne H, Berger A. Reconstructive foot surgery following complex trauma of the foot. *Unfallchirurg* 1989;92(3):140–54 [in German].
53. David A, Lewandrowski KU, Josten C, et al. Surgical correction of talipes equinovarus following foot and leg compartment syndrome. *Foot Ankle Int* 1996;17(6):334–9.
54. Eisele R. Reconstructive measures for toe deformity after compartment syndrome. *Unfallchirurg* 2008;111(10):796–803 [in German].
55. Rammelt S, Zwipp H. Reconstructive surgery after compartment syndrome of the lower leg and foot. *Eur J Trauma Emerg Surg* 2008;34(3):237.
56. Myerson M, Manoli A. Compartment syndromes of the foot after calcaneal fractures. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 1993;(290):142–50.
57. Bonutti PM, Bell GR. Compartment syndrome of the foot. A case report. *J Bone Joint Surg Am* 1986;68(9):1449–51.
58. Fakhouri AJ, Manoli A 2nd. Acute foot compartment syndromes. *J Orthop Trauma* 1992;6(2):223–8.
59. Frink M, Hildebrand F, Krettek C, et al. Compartment syndrome of the lower leg and foot. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 2010;468(4):940–50.

60. Fulkerson E, Razi A, Tejwani N. Review: acute compartment syndrome of the foot. *Foot Ankle Int* 2003;24(2):180–7.
61. Wright J, Worlock P, Hunter G, et al. The management of injuries of the midfoot and forefoot in the patient with multiple injuries. *Tech Orthop* 1987;2(3):71–9.
62. Mittlmeier T, Machler G, Lob G, et al. Compartment syndrome of the foot after intraarticular calcaneal fracture. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 1991;(269):241–8.
63. Manoli A 2nd, Fakhouri AJ, Weber TG. Concurrent compartment syndromes of the foot and leg. *Foot Ankle* 1993;14(6):339.
64. Beals TC. Applications of ring fixators in complex foot and ankle trauma. *Orthop Clin North Am* 2001;32(1):205–14.
65. Chandran P, Puttaswamaiah R, Dhillon MS, et al. Management of complex open fracture injuries of the midfoot with external fixation. *J Foot Ankle Surg* 2006;45(5):308–15.
66. Kenzora JE, Edwards CC, Browner BD, et al. Acute management of major trauma involving the foot and ankle with Hoffmann external fixation. *Foot Ankle* 1981;1(6):348–61.
67. Klaue K. The role of external fixation in acute foot trauma. *Foot Ankle Clin* 2004;9(3):583–94, x.
68. Pedrini G, Cardi M, Landini A, et al. Management of severe open ankle-foot trauma by a simple external fixation technique: an alternative during war and in resource-poor and low-technology environments. *J Orthop Trauma* 2011;25(3):180–7.
69. Rammelt S, Endres T, Grass R, et al. The role of external fixation in acute ankle trauma. *Foot Ankle Clin* 2004;9(3):455–74, vii–viii.
70. Seibert FJ, Fankhauser F, Elliott B, et al. External fixation in trauma of the foot and ankle. *Clin Podiatr Med Surg* 2003;20(1):159–80.
71. Hong-Chuan W, Shi-Lian K, Heng-Sheng S, et al. Immediate internal fixation of open ankle fractures. *Foot Ankle Int* 2010;31(11):959–64.
72. Johnson EE, Davlin LB. Open ankle fractures. The indications for immediate open reduction and internal fixation. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 1993;(292):118–27.
73. Bouachour G, Cronier P, Gouello JP, et al. Hyperbaric oxygen therapy in the management of crush injuries: a randomized double-blind placebo-controlled clinical trial. *J Trauma* 1996;41(2):333–9.
74. Buettner MF, Wolkenhauer D. Hyperbaric oxygen therapy in the treatment of open fractures and crush injuries. *Emerg Med Clin North Am* 2007;25(1):177–88.
75. Strauss MB. The effect of hyperbaric oxygen in crush injuries and skeletal muscle-compartment syndromes. *Undersea Hyperb Med* 2012;39(4):847–55.
76. Wattel F, Mathieu D, Nevriere R, et al. Acute peripheral ischaemia and compartment syndromes: a role for hyperbaric oxygenation. *Anaesthesia* 1998;53(Suppl 2):63–5.
77. D'Agostino Dias M, Fontes B, Poggetti RS, et al. Hyperbaric oxygen therapy: types of injury and number of sessions—a review of 1506 cases. *Undersea Hyperb Med* 2008;35(1):53–60.
78. MacFarlane C, Cronje FJ, Benn CA. Hyperbaric oxygen in trauma and surgical emergencies. *J R Army Med Corps* 2000;146(3):185–90.
79. Mutschler W, Muth CM. Hyperbaric oxygen therapy in trauma surgery. *Unfall-chirurg* 2001;104(2):102–14 [in German].
80. Carsenti-Etesse H, Doyon F, Desplaces N, et al. Epidemiology of bacterial infection during management of open leg fractures. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 1999;18(5):315–23.

81. Patzakis MJ, Bains RS, Lee J, et al. Prospective, randomized, double-blind study comparing single-agent antibiotic therapy, ciprofloxacin, to combination antibiotic therapy in open fracture wounds. *J Orthop Trauma* 2000;14(8):529–33.
82. Patzakis MJ, Wilkins J, Moore TM. Considerations in reducing the infection rate in open tibial fractures. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 1983;178:36–41.
83. Loos MS, Freeman BG, Lorenzetti A. Zone of injury: a critical review of the literature. *Ann Plast Surg* 2010;65(6):573–7.
84. Hauser CJ, Adams CA Jr, Eachempati SR, Council of the Surgical Infection Society. Surgical Infection Society guideline: prophylactic antibiotic use in open fractures: an evidence-based guideline. *Surg Infect (Larchmt)* 2006;7(4):379–405.
85. Rodriguez L, Jung HS, Goulet JA, et al. Evidence-based protocol for prophylactic antibiotics in open fractures: improved antibiotic stewardship with no increase in infection rates. *J Trauma Acute Care Surg* 2014;77(3):400–7 [discussion: 407–8; quiz: 524].
86. Stabile DE, Jacobs AM. Local antibiotic treatment of soft tissue and bone infections of the foot. *J Am Podiatr Med Assoc* 1990;80(7):345–53.
87. Agel J, Rockwood T, Barber R, et al. Potential predictive ability of the orthopaedic trauma association open fracture classification. *J Orthop Trauma* 2014;28(5):300–6.
88. Neut D, van de Belt H, Stokroos I, et al. Biomaterial-associated infection of gentamicin-loaded PMMA beads in orthopaedic revision surgery. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2001;47(6):885–91.
89. Bistolfi A, Massazza G, Verne E, et al. Antibiotic-loaded cement in orthopedic surgery: a review. *ISRN Orthop* 2011;2011:290851.
90. Ferrao P, Myerson MS, Schuberth JM, et al. Cement spacer as definitive management for postoperative ankle infection. *Foot Ankle Int* 2012;33(3):173–8.
91. Largey A, Faline A, Hebrard W, et al. Management of massive traumatic compound defects of the foot. *Orthop Traumatol Surg Res* 2009;95(4):301–4.
92. Schade VL, Roukis TS. The role of polymethylmethacrylate antibiotic-loaded cement in addition to debridement for the treatment of soft tissue and osseous infections of the foot and ankle. *J Foot Ankle Surg* 2010;49(1):55–62.
93. Anagnostakos K, Kelm J. Enhancement of antibiotic elution from acrylic bone cement. *J Biomed Mater Res B Appl Biomater* 2009;90(1):467–75.
94. Anagnostakos K, Kelm J, Regitz T, et al. In vitro evaluation of antibiotic release from and bacteria growth inhibition by antibiotic-loaded acrylic bone cement spacers. *J Biomed Mater Res B Appl Biomater* 2005;72(2):373–8.
95. Karger C, Kishi T, Schneider L, et al. Treatment of posttraumatic bone defects by the induced membrane technique. *Orthop Traumatol Surg Res* 2012;98(1):97–102.
96. Joethy J, Sebastin SJ, Chong AK, et al. Effect of negative-pressure wound therapy on open fractures of the lower limb. *Singapore Med J* 2013;54(11):620–3.
97. Schlatterer DR, Hirschfeld AG, Webb LX. Negative pressure wound therapy in grade IIIB tibial fractures: fewer infections and fewer flap procedures? *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 2015;473(5):1802–11.
98. Stannard JP, Singanamala N, Volgas DA. Fix and flap in the era of vacuum suction devices: what do we know in terms of evidence based medicine? *Injury* 2010;41(8):780–6.
99. Liu DS, Sofiadellis F, Ashton M, et al. Early soft tissue coverage and negative pressure wound therapy optimises patient outcomes in lower limb trauma. *Injury* 2012;43(6):772–8.

100. Stannard JP, Volgas DA, Stewart R, et al. Negative pressure wound therapy after severe open fractures: a prospective randomized study. *J Orthop Trauma* 2009; 23(8):552–7.
101. Carlson RM, Smith NC, Dux K, et al. Treatment of postoperative lower extremity wounds using human fibroblast-derived dermis: a retrospective analysis. *Foot Ankle Spec* 2014;7(2):102–7.
102. Baechler MF, Groth AT, Nesti LJ, et al. Soft tissue management of war wounds to the foot and ankle. *Foot Ankle Clin* 2010;15(1):113–38.
103. Hinck D, Franke A, Gatzka F. Use of vacuum-assisted closure negative pressure wound therapy in combat-related injuries—literature review. *Mil Med* 2010;175(3): 173–81.
104. Warner M, Henderson C, Kadrmas W, et al. Comparison of vacuum-assisted closure to the antibiotic bead pouch for the treatment of blast injury of the extremity. *Orthopedics* 2010;33(2):77–82.
105. Seligson D, Henry S, Ostermann PA. Comparison of vacuum-assisted closure to the antibiotic bead pouch for the treatment of blast injury of the extremity. *Orthopedics* 2010;33(12):868.
106. Kaplan M, Daly D, Stemkowski S. Early intervention of negative pressure wound therapy using Vacuum-Assisted Closure in trauma patients: impact on hospital length of stay and cost. *Adv Skin Wound Care* 2009;22(3):128–32.
107. Blum ML, Esser M, Richardson M, et al. Negative pressure wound therapy reduces deep infection rate in open tibial fractures. *J Orthop Trauma* 2012; 26(9):499–505.
108. Suzuki T, Minehara A, Matsuura T, et al. Negative-pressure wound therapy over surgically closed wounds in open fractures. *J Orthop Surg (Hong Kong)* 2014; 22(1):30–4.
109. Zhang T, Yan Y, Xie X, et al. Minimally invasive sinus tarsi approach with cannulated screw fixation combined with vacuum-assisted closure for treatment of severe open calcaneal fractures with medial wounds. *J Foot Ankle Surg* 2016; 55(1):112–6.
110. Stannard JP, Volgas DA, McGwin G 3rd, et al. Incisional negative pressure wound therapy after high-risk lower extremity fractures. *J Orthop Trauma* 2012;26(1):37–42.
111. Large TM, Douglas G, Erickson G, et al. Effect of negative pressure wound therapy on the elution of antibiotics from polymethylmethacrylate beads in a porcine simulated open femur fracture model. *J Orthop Trauma* 2012;26(9):506–11.
112. Stinner DJ, Hsu JR, Wenke JC. Negative pressure wound therapy reduces the effectiveness of traditional local antibiotic depot in a large complex musculoskeletal wound animal model. *J Orthop Trauma* 2012;26(9):512–8.
113. Brenner P, Rammelt S, Gavlik JM, et al. Early soft tissue coverage after complex foot trauma. *World J Surg* 2001;25(5):603–9.
114. Ingram R, Hunter G. Revascularization, limb salvage and/or amputation in severe injuries of the lower limb. *Orthopaedics Trauma* 1993;7(2):19–25.
115. MacKenzie EJ, Bosse MJ, Kellam JF, et al. Factors influencing the decision to amputate or reconstruct after high-energy lower extremity trauma. *J Trauma* 2002;52(4):641–9.
116. Omer GE Jr, Pomerantz GM. Initial management of severe open injuries and traumatic amputations of the foot. *Arch Surg* 1972;105(5):696–8.
117. Moniz MP, Ombrellaro MP, Stevens SL, et al. Concomitant orthopedic and vascular injuries as predictors for limb loss in blunt lower extremity trauma. *Am Surg* 1997;63(1):24–8.

118. Jacobs C, Siozos P, Raible C, et al. Amputation of a lower extremity after severe trauma. *Oper Orthop Traumatol* 2011;23(4):306–17.
119. Akula M, Gella S, Shaw CJ, et al. A meta-analysis of amputation versus limb salvage in mangled lower limb injuries—the patient perspective. *Injury* 2011; 42(11):1194–7.
120. Burdette TE, Long SA, Ho O, et al. Early delayed amputation: a paradigm shift in the limb-salvage time line for patients with major upper-limb injury. *J Rehabil Res Dev* 2009;46(3):385–94.
121. Hoogendoorn JM, van der Werken C. Grade III open tibial fractures: functional outcome and quality of life in amputees versus patients with successful reconstruction. *Injury* 2001;32(4):329–34.
122. Chung KC, Saddawi-Konefka D, Haase SC, et al. A cost-utility analysis of amputation versus salvage for Gustilo type IIIB and IIIC open tibial fractures. *Plast Reconstr Surg* 2009;124(6):1965–73.
123. Hansen ST Jr. Salvage or amputation after complex foot and ankle trauma. *Orthop Clin North Am* 2001;32(1):181–6.
124. Bakota B, Kopljär M, Jurjevic Z, et al. Mangled extremity—case report, literature review and borderline cases guidelines proposal. *Coll Antropol* 2012;36(4): 1419–26.
125. Jupiter DC, Shibuya N, Clawson LD, et al. Incidence and risk factors for amputation in foot and ankle trauma. *J Foot Ankle Surg* 2012;51(3):317–22.
126. Oestern HJ, Tscherne H, Sturm J, et al. Classification of the severity of injury. *Unfallchirurg* 1985;88(11):465–72 [in German].
127. Ahmed N, Sahito B, Baig N. Evaluation and reliability of Mangled Extremity Severity Scoring in traumatic amputation versus limb salvage. *J Pakistan Orthop Assoc* 2013;25(2):35–40.
128. Bonanni F, Rhodes M, Lucke JF. The futility of predictive scoring of mangled lower extremities. *J Trauma* 1993;34(1):99–104.
129. Bosse MJ, MacKenzie EJ, Kellam JF, et al. A prospective evaluation of the clinical utility of the lower-extremity injury-severity scores. *J Bone Joint Surg Am* 2001;83-A(1):3–14.
130. Bosse MJ, MacKenzie EJ, Kellam JF, et al. An analysis of outcomes of reconstruction or amputation after leg-threatening injuries. *N Engl J Med* 2002; 347(24):1924–31.
131. Bosse MJ, McCarthy ML, Jones AL, et al. The insensate foot following severe lower extremity trauma: an indication for amputation? *J Bone Joint Surg Am* 2005;87(12):2601–8.
132. Durham RM, Mistry BM, Mazuski JE, et al. Outcome and utility of scoring systems in the management of the mangled extremity. *Am J Surg* 1996;172(5): 569–73 [discussion: 573–4].
133. Fodor L, Sobec R, Sita-Alb L, et al. Mangled lower extremity: can we trust the amputation scores? *Int J Burns Trauma* 2012;2(1):51–8.
134. Helfet DL, Howey T, Sanders R, et al. Limb salvage versus amputation. Preliminary results of the Mangled Extremity Severity Score. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 1990;(256):80–6.
135. Hoogendoorn JM, Van der Werken C. The mangled leg, decision-making based on scoring systems and outcome. *Eur J Trauma* 2002;1:1–10.
136. Johansen K, Daines M, Howey T, et al. Objective criteria accurately predict amputation following lower extremity trauma. *J Trauma* 1990;30(5):568–72 [discussion: 572–3].

137. Robertson PA. Prediction of amputation after severe lower limb trauma. *J Bone Joint Surg Br* 1991;73(5):816–8.
138. Busse JW, Jacobs CL, Swiontkowski MF, et al. Evidence-Based Orthopaedic Trauma Working Group. Complex limb salvage or early amputation for severe lower-limb injury: a meta-analysis of observational studies. *J Orthop Trauma* 2007;21(1):70–6.
139. Brown KV, Ramasamy A, McLeod J, et al. Predicting the need for early amputation in ballistic mangled extremity injuries. *J Trauma* 2009;66(4 Suppl):S93–7 [discussion: S97–8].
140. Ellington JK, Bosse MJ, Castillo RC, et al. The mangled foot and ankle: results from a 2-year prospective study. *J Orthop Trauma* 2013;27(1):43–8.
141. Demiralp B, Ege T, Kose O, et al. Amputation versus functional reconstruction in the management of complex hind foot injuries caused by land-mine explosions: a long-term retrospective comparison. *Eur J Orthop Surg Traumatol* 2014;24(4):621–6.
142. Shawen SB, Keeling JJ, Branstetter J, et al. The mangled foot and leg: salvage versus amputation. *Foot Ankle Clin* 2010;15(1):63–75.
143. Pape H, Stalp M, v Griensven M, et al. Optimal timing for secondary surgery in polytrauma patients: an evaluation of 4,314 serious-injury cases. *Chirurg* 1999;70(11):1287–93 [in German].
144. Taylor SM, Kalbaugh CA, Blackhurst DW, et al. Preoperative clinical factors predict postoperative functional outcomes after major lower limb amputation: an analysis of 553 consecutive patients. *J Vasc Surg* 2005;42(2):227–35.
145. Hagberg E, Berlin OK, Renstrom P. Function after through-knee compared with below-knee and above-knee amputation. *Prosthet Orthot Int* 1992;16(3):168–73.
146. Penn-Barwell JG. Outcomes in lower limb amputation following trauma: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Injury* 2011;42(12):1474–9.
147. Rammelt S, Olbrich A, Zwipp H. Hindfoot amputations. *Oper Orthop Traumatol* 2011;23(4):265–79 [in German].
148. Taniguchi A, Tanaka Y, Kadono K, et al. Pirogoff ankle disarticulation as an option for ankle disarticulation. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 2003;(414):322–8.
149. Musharrafieh R, Osmani O, Saghie S, et al. Microvascular composite tissue transfer for the management of type IIIB and IIIC fractures of the distal leg and compound foot fractures. *J Reconstr Microsurg* 1999;15(7):501–7.
150. Yazar S, Lin CH, Wei FC. One-stage reconstruction of composite bone and soft-tissue defects in traumatic lower extremities. *Plast Reconstr Surg* 2004;114(6):1457–66.
151. MacMahon A, Kim P, Levine DS, et al. Return to sports and physical activities after primary partial arthrodesis for lisfranc injuries in young patients. *Foot Ankle Int* 2016;37(4):355–62.
152. Schepers T. The primary arthrodesis for severely comminuted intra-articular fractures of the calcaneus: a systematic review. *Foot Ankle Surg* 2012;18(2):84–8.
153. Zelle BA, Gruen GS, McMillen RL, et al. Primary arthrodesis of the tibiotalar joint in severely comminuted high-energy pilon fractures. *J Bone Joint Surg Am* 2014;96(11):e91.
154. Available at: <http://www.aaam.org/abbreviated-injury-scale-ais/>. Accessed November 10, 2016.
155. Tscherne H. Principles of primary treatment of fractures with soft tissue injury. *Orthopade* 1983;12(1):9–22.



156. Gregory RT, Gould RJ, Peclet M, et al. The mangled extremity syndrome (M.E.S.): a severity grading system for multisystem injury of the extremity. *J Trauma* 1985;25(12):1147–50.
157. Howe HR Jr, Poole GV Jr, Hansen KJ, et al. Salvage of lower extremities following combined orthopedic and vascular trauma. A predictive salvage index. *Am Surg* 1987;53(4):205–8.
158. Russell WL, Sailors DM, Whittle TB, et al. Limb salvage versus traumatic amputation. A decision based on a seven-part predictive index. *Ann Surg* 1991; 213(5):473–80.
159. McNamara MG, Heckman JD, Corley FG. Severe open fractures of the lower extremity: A retrospective evaluation of the Mangled Extremity Severity Score (MESS). *J Orthopaedic Trauma* 1994;8:81–7.
160. Manoli A, Prasad P, Levine RS. Foot and ankle severity scale (FASS). *Foot Ankle Int* 1997;18(9):598–602.
161. Rajasekaran S. Ganga hospital open injury severity score—a score to prognosticate limb salvage and outcome measures in Type III B open tibial fractures. *Indian J Orthop* 2005;39:4–13.