Republic of Iraq Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research University of Kerbala College of Medicine Department of Microbiology



Relationship between Chemokine *MCP-1* Gene Polymorphism and Severity of Aerobic Bacterial Infection in Burn Wound Patients

A Thesis

Submitted to the Council of the College of Medicine/ University of Kerbala in Partial Fulfillments of the Requirements for the Degree of Master in Medical Microbiology

By

Hasan Fadhil Kudhair Mutar B.Sc. Biology - College of science / University of Kerbala (2007)

Supervised By

Prof. Dr. Abeer Thaher Naji AL-Hasnawi

Prof. Dr. Ali jalil Ali Alyassery

1445 A.H

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَٰنِ الرَّحِيمِ (وَ عَلَّمَكَ مَا لَمْ تَكُنْ تَعْلَمُ وَكَانَ فَضْلُ اللَّهِ عَلَيْكَ عَظِيمًا)

صدقَ اللهُ العليُّ العظيم

سورة النساء / الاية 113

Supervisor Certification

We certify that this thesis entitled (Relationship between Chemokine *MCP-1* Gene polymorphism and Severity of Bacterial Infection in burn wound patients) was prepared under our supervision at the College of Medicine, University of Kerbala, as a partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master in Medical Microbiology.

Prof. Dr.

Abeer Thaher Naji AL-Hasnawi College of Medicine/University of Karbala

Prof. Dr. Ali jalil Ali Alyassery

College of Medicine/University of Karbala

/ /2024

Chair of Microbiology Department

In view of the available recommendation, I forward this thesis for debate by the examining committee.

Prof. Dr. Sawsan Mohammed J. Al-Hasnawi

Head of Microbiology Department

College of Medicine

University of Kerbala

/ /2024

Committee certification

We, the examiners committee, certify that we've read the M.Sc. thesis entitled:

"Relationship between Chemokine *MCP -1* Gene Polymorphism and Severity of Aerobic Bacterial Infection in Burn Wound Patients"

We have examined the student **(Hasan Fadhil Khudhair Mutar)** in its contents. In our opinion it is meets the Standards of thesis for the degree of Masters in Medical Microbiology and Immunology.

Prof.Dr

Wafaa' Sadiq Mohsen Chairman

Assist.Prof.Dr Rasha Jassim Moussa Member

Assist.Prof.Dr

May Mohammed Ali Member

Brof.Dr Ali jalil Ali Alyassery

Prof.Dr Abeer Thaher Naji AL-Hasnawi Member-Supervisor

Member-Supervisor

Approved by the council of the College of Medicine / University of Kerbala

Sawsan Mohammed Jabar Head of Microbiology Department College of Medicine University of Kerbala / /2024

Riyadh Dhayhood Mahdi Dean of Collage of Medicine University of Kerbala / /2024

Dedication

I dedicate this work

То.....

The first teacher, our prophet Mohammed (may Allah bless him and his family).

The soul of my father and mother.

My family.

My brothers, sisters

my friends.

To those who lighted the way for me, my teachers

Hasan 2024

Acknowledgment

At the beginning, I praised the great Allah, who gave me the faith and strength to accomplish this work.

Special thanks with respect and appreciation to my supervisors, Professor Dr. Abeer Thaher Al-Hasnawi and Dr. Ali Jalil Ali Alyassery, supervisors of this thesis, for their advice and keenness to complete this work in the best possible manner during the specified time.

I would like to thank all faculty members and staff of the Microbiology Development of the College of Medicine University of Kerbala, particularly the Head of the Department, Dr. Sawsan Mohammed Jabbar, for her support, continuous encouragement, and kindness throughout the study.

I extend my thanks to the medical staff of the Laboratory and burn unit in Imam Al-Hussein Medical City.

I would like to express my gratitude to all the participants for their cooperation in achieving this study.

> Hasan 2024

Summary

Burn wound infections remain one of the most widespread bacterial infections in the world. These infections are predominantly caused by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Following thermal injury, *MCP-1*, a myeloid-associated factor, is associated with worse clinical outcomes. The *MCP-1* gene's promoter region contains a functional genetic polymorphism at rs1024611 (-2518 A > G), which influences *MCP-1* expression and associated to a number of inflammatory diseases.

A total of 83 swab samples were collected from both sex (44 males and 39 females), whose ages ranged from (1-60) years, attending to Imam Al-Hussein Medical City, Karbala, Iraq, during the period extending from August 2023 to December 2023. In addition, 70 blood samples were collected in an EDTA tube, divided into 35 samples from burn wound patients and 35 samples from apparently healthy individuals at an age range of (1-52) years old. Blood samples were used to detect the *MCP-1* gene polymorphism. All bacterial isolates were subjected to cultural, microscopical, and biochemical examinations. The identification of these bacterial species and the antibiotic susceptibility test of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* were confirmed by using the VITEK2 compact system. And *MCP-1*gene polymorphism was measured by amplification refractory mutational system (ARMS) by polymerase chain reaction technique.

The results showed that the percentage of burned males and females were 53.0% and 47.0% respectively. While in control (42.9%) as males and (57.1%) as females. Regarding sex, there were non significant differences (P=0.420) between the study's groups. Rates of infection were higher in patients under the age of 11 compared to other age groups, and there were non significant differences (P=0.575) between the control and patient groups. According to the type of burn, scald burns comprised the largest percentage of burn injuries (53%), followed by flame burns (41%), and electric burns (6.0%) had the lowest percentage of injuries.

In regards to the degrees of burn severity, the second degree constituted the most common of the cases (66.3%), while the third degree burned (25.3%), and the second +third degree constituted only (8.4%). The current study showed that *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* was the commonest burn wound isolate (31.43%), then *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (20.00%), followed by *Escherichia coli* (14.29%). Also, this study showed high resistance rates of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* to all antibiotics (100%), except for the susceptibility (100%) to Colistin only.

Regarding the *MCP-1* gene polymorphism (rs1024611), the present study showed that patients' AA genotype was higher than that of controls' (40.0% vs. 8.6%, respectively). The percentage of the AG genotype was found to be higher in the control group compared to the patient group (17.1% vs. 14.3%, respectively), However, GG genotype was higher percentage in controls than in patients (74.3% vs. 45.7%, respectively). There was a significant difference in genotypes (*P*=0.008) between cases and control groups. The "A" allele was increased in patients compared with control (47.2% vs. 17.2%, respectively), whereas the "G" allele was elevated in control compared with patients (82.8% vs. 52.8%, respectively). There were significant differences (*P* = 0.001) between them.

The result of this study has shown that the AA genotype was higher in patients compared to controls. Therefore, the *MCP-1* gene (rs1024611) polymorphism may have a protective role in burn wound bacterial infection. In addition, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is the most prevalent bacteria in burned patients and susceptible to Colistin only.

List of Contents

Sequence	Subject	Page No.
	Summary	Ι
	List of Contents	III
	List of Figures	XI
	List of Tables	XII
	List of Abbreviations	XIV
Chapter	One: Introduction and Literatur	e Review
1.1	Introduction	1
-	Aim of the study	2
1.2	Literature Review	3
1.2.1	Definition of burn	3
1.2.2	Epidemiology	3
1.2.3	Etiology	4
1.2.3.1	Thermal burns	4
1.2.3.2	Chemical burns	5
1.2.3.3	Electrical burns	5
1.2.3.4	Radiation burns	6
1.2.3.5	Inhalation burns	7
1.2.3.6	Cold burn	7
1.2.4	Evaluation of burn severity	7
1.2.4.1	Wound depth	7
1.2.4.1.1	First -degree burn	8

1.2.4.1.2	Second- degree burn	8
1.2.4.1.3	Third- degree burn	8
1.2.4.1.4	Four -degree burn	9
1.2.4.2	Total body surface area	9
1.2.5	Risk factor for burn injury	11
1.2.5.1	Age-related factors	11
1.2.5.1.1	The elderly	11
1.2.5.1.2	Child under five years	11
1.2.5.2	sex-related factor	11
1.2.5.3	Socioeconomic factor	12
1.2.5.4	Comorbidities	12
1.2.5.5	Workplace burn	12
1.2.6	Pathogenesis of burn	13
1.2.7	Role of bacterial infection in	15
	the burns wound	
1.2.8	Pseudomonas aeruginosa	16
1.2.8.1	Pseudomonas aeruginosa	16
	general characteristic	
1.2.8.2	virulence factor of	17
	Pseudomonas aeruginosa	1,
1.2.8.2.1	Pili	17
1.2.8.2.2	Flagella	17
1.2.8.2.3	Toxins	18
1 2 8 2 /		10
1.2.0.2.4	Enzymes	18

1.2.8.2.6	Biofilms	19	
1.2.8.3	Pathogenesis of <i>Pseudomonas</i> <i>aeruginosa</i> in burn patients	19	
1.2.8.4	Diagnosis of Pseudomonas aeruginosa	20	
1.2.8.5	Treatment of Pseudomonas aeruginosa	21	
1.2.9	<i>Monocyte chemoattractant</i> <i>protein- 1</i> gene polymorphism	21	
1.2.9.1	<i>Monocyte chemoattractant protein-1</i> gene define	21	
1.2.9.2	Role of <i>monocyte</i> <i>chemoattractant protein- 1</i> gene polymorphism in burns wound patients	22	
Chapt	Chapter Two: Subjects, Materials and Methods		
2	Subjects, Materials and Methods	24	
2.1	Subjects	24	
2.1.1	Ethical approval	24	
2.1.2	Study design	24	
2.1.2.1	Study Design scheme	25	
2.2	Materials	26	
2.2.1	Laboratory Instruments and Equipment	26	
2.2.2	The culture media	27	

223	Chemical and biological	20
2.2.3	materials used in the study	20
2.2.4	VITEK2 kits that were used in	28
2.2.7	this study	20
2.2.5	Antibiotic groups for	29
2.2.0	Pseudomonas aeruginosa	
2.2.6	DNA Amplifications Materials	30
2.2.6.1	DNA Extraction kit	30
2.2.6.2	Master Mix	30
2.2.6.3	PCR Materials	31
2.2.6.4	Primer	31
2.3	Methods	32
2.3.1	Sample collection	32
2311	Bacteriological sampling	37
2.3.1.1	collection	52
2.3.1.2	Blood sample collection	32
2.3.2	Sterilizing method	32
2.3.2.1	Ethanol 70%.	32
2.3.2.2	Autoclave (moist heating)	32
2.3.2.3	Oven (dry heating)	32
2.3.3	Preparation of media	32
2.3.3.1	Blood Agar	32
2.3.3.2	MacConkey Agar	33
2.3.3.3	Mannitol salt agar	33
2.3.3.4	Nutrient Agar	33

2.3.4	Preparation of solutions and indicators	33
2.3.4.1	Oxidase reagent	33
2.3.4.2	Catalase reagent	34
2.3.4.3	Triose Borate-EDTA Buffer	34
2.3.5	Specimens culturing	34
2.3.6	Identification of bacterial isolation	34
2.3.6.1	Macroscopic characteristics	34
2.3.6.2	Microscopic examination	34
2.3.6.3	Biochemical test	35
2.3.6.3.1	Catalase test	35
2.3.6.3.2	Oxidase test	35
2.3.6.3.3	Coagulase test (tube method)	35
2.3.6.4	Identification of bacteria by VITEK2 system	35
	Genotyping Assay by	
2.3.7	Amplification-Refractory Mutation System (ARMS) Method	36
2.3.7.1	DNA Extraction Procedure	37
2.3.7.2	Primer preparation	38
2.3.7.3	Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) Mixture	39
2.3.7.4	Polymerase Chain Reaction Conditions by Amplification-	39

	Refractory Mutation System	
	(ARMS) method	
2.3.7.5	Agarose Gel Electrophoresis	40
2.3.8	Statistical Analysis	41
	Chapter Three: Results	
3	Results	42
	Sex, age, and weight	
3.1	characteristics of the patients and	42
	control groups	
3.2	Clinical characteristics in	13
3.2	patients' group	
33	Severity of burn in patients'	45
5.5	group	
3.4	Bacterial culture in patients'	45
5.7	group	
3.5	Types of bacterial isolates in	16
5.5	patients	40
	Association of bacterial isolates	
3.6	to burn severity in patients with	47
	bacterial infection	
	Association of bacterial isolates	
3.7	to sex in patients with bacterial	48
	infection	
	The relation of bacterial	
3.8	isolates to age in patients with	50
	bacterial infections	
3.9	PCR-Based Detection of SNP	52

	52	
extract quality and integrity	54	
Monocyte chemoattractant	52	
<i>protein-1</i> Gene Amplification	55	
Detection of MCP-1 Gene		
(rs1024611) Polymorphism in	54	
Patients and Control by	34	
conventional PCR		
Genotype and allele frequency		
distribution of MCP-1 gene		
3.10 polymorphism according to severity	55	
groups in patients with bacterial		
infection		
Relation of <i>MCP-1</i> genotypes		
3.11 according to bacterial culture	57	
results		
Antibiotic susceptibility test for	59	
Pseudomonas aeruginosa	30	
Chapter Four: Discussion		
4 Discussion	60	
Distribution of sex, age, and		
4.1 weight characteristics of the patients	60	
and control group		
The clinical characteristics in	(1	
4.2 burn patients' group	01	
The degrees of burn severity in	63	
4.J	03	

4.4	Bacterial culture results in	64
	patients	04
4.5	Distribution of bacterial	65
7.0	isolates in patients	05
	The relation of bacterial	
4.6	isolates to burn severity in patients'	66
	group	
	The relation of bacterial	
4.7	isolates to sex in patients with	67
	bacterial infection	
	The relation of bacterial	
4.8	isolates to age in patients with	68
	bacterial infections	
	The detection of <i>MCP-1</i> Gene	
4.0	(rs1024611) polymorphism in	(0
4.9	patients and control by conventional	09
	PCR	
	Genotype and allele frequency	
	distribution of MCP-1 gene	
4.10	polymorphism according to severity	71
	groups in patients with bacterial	
	infection	
	Relation of MCP-1 genotypes	
4.11	according to bacterial culture	72
	results	
4 12	The antibiotic susceptibility test	72
4.12	for Pseudomonas aeruginosa	15
	Conclusions and Recommendations	

		Conclusions	75	
		Recommendations	76	
	L	References		
	References 77			
	Appendix			
Appendix I		Burn wound patients'		
		questionnaires		
Appendix II		Healthy control ques	tionnaires	
Appendix III		VITEK2 System		
Appendix IV		Conventional-PCR		
Appendix V		Bacterial growth on MacConkey		
		agar		
Summary in Arabic				

List of Figures

Figure No.	Subject	Page No
2-1	Scheme of the Study Design	25
3-1	Distribution of bacterial isolates in patients	46
3-2	Evaluation of DNA Extract Quality and Integrity. 1% Agarose Gel Electrophoresis of Genomic DNA in 60 Volts at 15 Minutes	53
3-3	Gel Electrophoresis for PCR Product of the SNP (-2581 A/G, <i>MCP-1</i> Gene with	54

	DNA Ladder 100bp (M) on Agarose Gel 1% in 60 Volts, 35 Minutes and Detection of the Result by UV Documentation System. The size of product is 594 bp– control, 379 bp—G allele and 255 bp—A allele	
3-4	Antibiotic susceptibility profile of <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> isolates	59

List of Tables

Table No.	Subject	Page No.
2-1	Equipment and Instruments with their manufacturing company and country of origin	26
2-2	The cultures media used in this study with their manufacturing company and country of origin.	27
2-3	Chemical and biological materials are used by their manufacturing company and country of origin	28

2-4	VITEK2 kits that were used in this study with their manufacturing company and country of origin	28
2-5	Content Antibiotic cards for AST-GN222 that used in this study by VITEK2 compact according to the manufactures company (Biomerieux, France)	29
2-6	DNA extraction kits that were used in this study with their manufacturing company and country of origin.	30
2-7	The contents of the master mix used in PCR with their manufacturing company and country of origin.	30
2-8	The PCR materials	31
2-9	Primers sequences of <i>MCP-1</i> gene polymorphism used in this study	31
2-10	Polymerase Chain Reaction Mixture	39
2-11	PCR Conditions for Amplification of the MCP-1 Gene	40

3-1	Distribution of sex, age, and weight characteristics of the studied groups	43
3-2	Distribution of clinical characteristics in cases group	44
3-3	Degrees of burn severity in patients	45
3-4	Bacterial culture results in cases group	45
3-5	The relation of bacterial isolates to burn severity in patients with bacterial infection	48
3-6	The relation of bacterial isolates to sex in patients with bacterial infection	50
3-7	The relation of bacterial isolates to age in patients with bacterial infection	52
3-8	Genotype and allele frequency distribution of <i>MCP-1</i> gene polymorphism in patients and control groups	55
3-9	Genotype and allele frequency distribution of <i>MCP-1</i> gene polymorphism	56

	according to severity groups in patients	
	with bacterial infection	
	Distribution of <i>MCP-1</i> genotype according	
3-10	to bacterial types results	58

List of Abbreviations

Code	Words
ARMS	Amplification-refractory mutation
	system
AST	Antibiotic susceptibility test
CCL2	Chemokine C Ligand 2
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic Acid
dNTPs	Deoxynucleotide triphosphates
DW	Distill water
E. coli	Escherichia coli
EDTA	Ethylene diamine tetra acetic acid
GBR	Global Burn Registry
GN	Gram-negative

HAI	Hospital-acquired infections
ID	Identification
K. pneumoniae	Klebsiella pneumoniae
LasA	ElastaseA
LasB	ElastaseB
MCP-1	Monocyte chemoattractant protein-1
MIC	Minimum inhibitory concentration
P. aeruginosa	Pseudomonas aeruginosa
PCR	Polymerase chain reaction
S. aureus	Staphylococcus aureus
SD	Standard deviation
S.epidermidis	Staphylococcus epidermidis
S. haemolyticus	Staphylococcus. haemolyticus
SNP	Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms
TBE	Tris-Borate EDTA
TBSA	Total body surface area
T3SS	Type 3 secretion systems
US	United States
UV	Ultraviolet
WHO	World Health Organization

Chapter One Introduction and Literatures Review

1.1. Introduction

Burn injuries continue to be a major risk to the public's health because they are responsible for a significant percentage of deaths and disabilities that might have been avoided each year (Stokes and Johnson, 2017). Burn injuries, in comparison to other types of wounds, often have a larger wound size, a more irregular shape, more severe massive bleeding, and exudates from the wound sites, which makes them more susceptible to infection (Hu *et al.*, 2023).

Burn infections, mostly caused by Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria (Aljanaby and Aljanaby, 2018). bacterial infections are the leading cause of death among burn patients. These infections are linked to burn unit contamination, which is a major problem in a burn ward (Kadhim et al., 2023). In comparison to the other bacteria that may cause infections in burn wounds, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is the most common and widespread of all bacteria that can cause infections in burn wounds. This is due to its preference for growing in moist environments and its ability to cause invasive infections when it grows within burn wound exudates (Kour et al., 2023). Multidrug-resistant Pseudomonas aeruginosa has emerged as a significant problem worldwide, posing a severe hazard to burn-infected patients (AL-Sabagh, Ghaima, AL-Dabbagh, 2023). Its possession of a large variety of virulence factors contributes significantly to the pathogenicity of the host, so the rapid detection of these bacteria plays a crucial role in controlling the diseases that cause them, especially burn injuries (Fakhry and Aljanabi, 2024).

Monocyte chemoattractant protein-1, belongs to the family of chemokines known as CC chemokines. This chemokine plays an essential role in the inflammation process by attracting or increasing the expression of other inflammatory factors and cells. It leads to the advancement of many disorders by this main mechanism of migration and infiltration of

inflammatory cells like monocytes/macrophages at the site of inflammation (Singh, Anshita and Ravichandiran, 2021). Functional genetic polymorphism at rs1024611 (-2518 A > G) in the promoter region of the *MCP-1* gene influences *MCP-1* expression and is linked to many inflammatory diseases (Lin *et al.*, 2021). Polymorphism rs1024611 located in the regulatory region of the *MCP-1* gene has previously been shown to be associated with increased *MCP-1* production (Shadrina *et al.*, 2017).

The aim of the study

The aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between severity of bacterial infection and *MCP-1* gene polymorphism

1- Determination of clinical characteristics in the patients group

2. Isolation and identification of pathogenic bacteria in burn wounds by culture media, biochemical tests and the VITEK2 system and Detection of the antibiotic susceptibility of *P. aeruginosa* by using the VITEK2 system.

3-Detection of *MCP-1* gene polymorphism by the ARMS method using the PCR technique.

1.2. Literature Review

1.2.1. Definition of burn

Burns are defined as damage to the skin or other body tissues caused by severe heat or trauma. The World Health Organization (WHO) defines burns as skin injuries due to thermal, chemical, electric, or radiation-mediated entities. (Tasleem *et al.*, 2023) Burn injury is an umbrella term for a trauma, most commonly affecting the skin or lung (Laggner *et al.*, 2022).

Burns are one of the most common injuries in everyday life for people of every age (Chen *et al.*, 2021). And they represent an important social and medical problem in the world (Gatea, Nedjat and Yekaninejad, 2019). They can seriously endanger humans' health and lives and they may cause disability and even psychological trauma in individuals. Such an event can also lead to an economic burden on the victim's families and society (Hameed, Ibraheam, and, Fakhir, 2019).

Burn injuries cause long-term, profound alterations that require attention to optimize quality of life (Jeschke *et al.*, 2020).

1.2.2. Epidemiology

Burns form the fourth most common cause of injury after road traffic injuries, falls, and interpersonal conflicts (Obaid and Baiee, 2022). Worldwide, as a result of burn injuries, a significant number of hospitalized patients are affected and remain a major cause of morbidity and mortality, with significant economic consequences for healthcare (Obed *et al.*, 2023).

The World Health Organization Global Burn Registry (GBR) a minimum dataset aligned with a centralized registry—was officially launched in 2018 to facilitate hospital-level collection of key prevention, care, and outcome data from burn-injured patients around the world in a standardized manner (Hebron *et al.*, 2022). The World Health Organization (WHO) reports that burn injuries affect over 11 million people annually, with

180,000 people losing their lives as a result of burns (Markiewicz-Gospodarek *et al.*, 2022).

Burns require medical care every 30 minutes in the United States, and every year, burn injuries kill between 4,000 and 6,000 people. Around 120 burn centers are located in the United States. The American Burn Association only certifies half of these burn centers. This implies that most individuals lack direct access to burn centers and require stabilization at a local hospital following their initial injury (Miller, 2023). According to reports from the American Burn Association 2019, the most common type of injury in the United States is flame burns (41%), followed by scalds (31%), chemical burns (3.5%), and electrical burns (3.6%), which are significantly less frequent. Burns in children under five are often scald injuries, and flame-related burns rise with age (Jeschke *et al.*, 2020). Burn injuries are common in developing countries like Iraq, especially in rural and low-income areas (Hasan and Al-Humairi, 2022). About 7 million Indians suffer burn injuries annually (Roy *et al.*, 2022). Nearly 3,000 individuals die every year in Bangladesh from burns (Bailey *et al.*, 2019).

1.2.3. Etiology

There are many factors that place some individuals at greater risk for burn injury and poor outcomes (Spiwak, Sareen, and Logsetty, 2022). Due to etiology, burns can be divided into thermal, chemical, electrical, and others, such as radiation (Lachowski *et al.*, 2023).

1.2.3.1. Thermal burn

Thermal burns are wounds to the skin produced by exposure to high temperatures, such as flames, hot surfaces, or hot liquids (Sonbul *et al.*, 2021). Hot surfaces, often characterized by their limited surface area but depth, exert influence on the underlying skin tissues. Flame burns may cause lesions that affect several functional areas, causing direct and indirect thermal damage to the upper respiratory tract and the whole body (Dimitrova, 2023). Flame burns cause some of the most psychologically and physically damaging type of trauma. Patients with flame burns are more likely to die and get multiorgan failure than those with scald burns (Lixia *et al.*, 2021). Scalds affects all age groups, with the children being the most common (Mobayen *et al.*, 2021). In Iraq, flames and scalds were the most common causes of burns (Lami and Al Naser, 2019).

1.2.3.2. Chemical burn

The term "chemical burn" refers to the irritation and devastation of human tissue resulting from chemical exposure, usually through direct contact with the chemical or steam (Agbenorku *et al.*, 2015). The etiology and outcomes of chemical burns differ from country to country, depending on factors such as the composition of the local population, the distribution of industries, and the geographic and social environments. (Eftekhari *et al.*, 2023).

The National Fire Protection Society has classified 300 of the more than one million known chemical compounds as extremely hazardous. Chemicals may be categorized into acid, alkali, organic, and inorganic substances. Acid causes coagulative necrosis while alkalis produce extensive denaturation of tissue protein. These produce deeper burns than acid burns (Akelma and Karahan, 2019). Acids and alkalis are the most common types of causative agents involved in chemical burns. Representative agents for alkalis are sodium hydroxide and potassium hydroxide, whereas representative agents for acids are sulfuric acid, hydrochloric acid, and hydrofluoric acid (Koh, Lee, and Kim, 2017).

1.2.3.3. Electrical burn

Different degrees of burns can result from the conversion of electricity into heat (Di *et al.*, 2022). Electrical burns are extremely dangerous injuries that can result in deep burns, severe morbidity, and long-term effects (Gandhi, Parashar, and Sharma, 2022). Contact electrical burns are more

severe than other forms of contact burn injury (Marín *et al.*, 2020). Electrical burns are considered the most serious public health issue due to their higher death rates (Mobayen and Sadeghi, 2022). The effects of electricity on the body are determined by seven factors.type of current (alternating current or direct current), amount of current, path of current, duration of current, contact area, and body resistance and voltage (Li *et al.*, 2017).

Generally, there are two categories for electrical burns: high-voltage (≥ 1000 V) and low-voltage (<1000 V) (Ding *et al* 2020). Low voltage injuries are often limited to the immediate surrounding area; however, high-voltage injuries have been linked to deep underlying tissue damage that resembles crush injuries (Boyd *et al.*, 2019).

1.2.3.4. Radiation burn

The skin has a certain tolerance to radiation. Excessing this tolerance will result in severe radiation burns of varying degrees. Sunburn from ultraviolet (UV) light is the most common type of radiation burn (Waghmare, 2013). Overexposure to UV radiation from the sun is hazardous to the skin (Camponogara and Oliveira, 2022). Sunburn is the reddening of the skin after overexposure to UV radiation from the sun, because the skin cannot be protected by melanin when exposed to an excessive amount of sunlight (Sánchez-Pérez *et al.*, 2019).

Compared to ultraviolet A radiation (UV A), ultraviolet B (UV B) is more energetic , and it is predominantly responsible for sunburn in humans (Becker *et al.*, 2020). Ultraviolet (UV) radiation impairs the outermost layer of the body, namely, the skin. UVB rays are known as "the burning rays" and account for 4%–5% of all UV radiation. It is a thousand times more potent at causing sunburn than UVA and is responsible for photo-induced skin damage (Tanaka, Uchi, and Furue, 2019). Most sunburns are first-degree or superficial second-degree (Yoon and Na, 2019).

1.2.3.5. Inhalation burns

The American Burn Association has stated that inhalation injuries are the leading cause of burn morbidity and mortality (Hendrickson *et al.*, 2019). Three etiologies primarily cause respiratory tract burns: thermal injury, chemical exposure, and smoke inhalation. Thermal damage is usually limited to the supraglottis due to reflexive supraglottic and glottal closure. Chemical exposure more commonly affects the lower part of the respiratory tract, causing an inflammatory response, rupture of the respiratory mucosa, and ultimately mucosal sloughing. Smoke inhalation is the most common cause of laryngeal burns. (Tracy, Shehan, and Grillone, 2020).

1.2.3.6. Cold burn

Cold burn is a severe health condition that is manifested in situations where an individual is exposed to extreme cold conditions. Touching materials such as ice packs, or just being exposed to a low wind speed in air temperature below 15 °C can result in a freeze-burn. The manifestations vary from a self-healing superficial burn (frostnip) on skin to conditions as severe as gangrenous necrosis, leading to auto-amputation of the affected limb (Gupta, A., Soni, R., and Ganguli, M. 2021). Cold burns differ from thermal burns in both severity and time course due to the mechanism of cellular vasoconstriction, injury, and furthermore, endothelial injury and thromboembolism vascular insufficiency promote and ischaemia, synergistically contributing to tissue destruction. Finally, thawing of tissues generates oedema and loss of endothelial integrity (Barry et al., 2023).

1.2.4. Evaluation of burn severity

1.2.4.1. Wound depth

In the early 1950s, Jackson described two degrees of burn depth based on the appearance of skin after injury-partial-thickness skin loss and fullthickness skin loss and observed that the existence or lack of a sufficient amount of live epithelial components to regenerate the region indicated the distinction between these two depths. Today, a structural-anatomical classification system is used to identify the depth of burns, ranging from minor epidermal injuries to full-thickness burns (Karim, Shaum and Gibson, 2020).

Classifying a burn into a wide category is necessary to determine the best course of treatment (Volety and Jeeva, 2022). Burns are classified into four degrees based on the depth of the burn (Cook *et al.*, 2022).

1.2.4.1.1. First-degree burn

First-degree burns are localized to the epidermal layer and are painful, erythematous, dry, and blanching. These burns do not blister and take 3 to 6 days to heal (Lanham *et al.*, (2020). First-degree burns are often uncomfortable but are self-limiting and generally don't require medical intervention unless there are additional complications, such as dehydration, or they encompass a large surface area (Miller, N. 2023)

1.2.4.1.2. Second-degree burn

Second-degree burns are referred to as partial-thickness burn because they extend into the dermis, which cause complete damage to the epidermis and a portion of the dermis. Second-degree burn injuries may expose intact sensory nerve endings, making them extremely sensitive and painful to touch. Re-epithelialization is contingent on the degree of dermal degradation and the quantity of injured skin appendages (Cook *et al.*, 2022). Most second-degree burns heal without surgical intervention (Blome-Eberwein *et al.*, 2021).

1.2.4.1.3. Third-degree burn

Third-degree burns affect the entire thickness, comprising the epidermis, dermis, hypodermis, all cutaneous annexes, and, in some cases, even the adipose tissue (Ocon *et al.*, 2019). These severe injuries are mostly painless. Third-degree burns cause the skin to become leathery, and they often accompany other burns of varying degrees, leading to the observation

of a wide range of colors, including pale white and brown. Some cases result in charred skin (He, McCarthy, and Camci, 2021). Third-degree burns remain the most common reason for flame burns (Durdu *et al.*, 2022).

1.2.4.1.4. Four-degree burn

The term "fourth-degree burn" is not commonly used in literature because it is typically associated with fatal injuries. These injuries occur mostly after high-voltage electrical burns or severe fire burns (Sahin *et al.*, 2012). Fourth-degree burns characterized by a complete carbonization of tissues. Its range covers the full thickness of the skin, sometimes also with muscles, fascias and bones frequently result in amputation or severe functional disability (Zdanowski, Radziszewski, and Gorgone, 2019).

1.2.4.2. Total body surface area

To ensure appropriate treatment, the percentage of the burned body surface area to the total body surface area is a critical parameter. An inaccurate burn evaluation may lead to incorrect medical decisions, which can have severe consequences for patients. These include, for example, fluid aggregation caused by burn edema and overresuscitation. (Giretzlehner, Ganitzer and Haller, 2021). Several long-standing methods exist to estimate burn size to include the Rule of Nines, Lund-Browder Chart, and Palmar method; all of which remain in clinical use today (Carrougher and Pham, 2024).

An elementary method of estimating the extent of a burn is to use the patient's hand as a reference for approximately 1% of the body surface according to the Rule of Palm. As a hand actually represents only about 0.7% of the body surface in females and 0.8% in males, the method overestimates TBSA (Holm *et al.*, 2021).

The rule of nines divides the body into different sections and assign each section a percentage. The head is worth 9%, each arm through the hand is worth 9%, the torso is worth 36%, each leg is worth 18%, and the genitalia are worth 1%. This rule also applies to children; however, due to variations in body ratios, the computation of surface area percentage differs (Miller, 2023).

Currently, the most extensively used and accurate chart for calculating the area of the whole body damaged by a burn injury is the Lund and Browder chart. The challenge of doing mathematical calculations based on the percentages assigned to different body parts that have only partially burned makes it difficult to utilize charts to compute burn percentages. Having to do mental calculations is often tiresome, particularly in an emergency (Murari and Singh, 2019).

Due to intensive medical research, it has been possible to develop threedimensional computer-based systems that consider patients' body characteristics and allow a very realistic burn size assessment Although traditional paper-based documentation is still used in practice, it no longer meets modern requirements. Instead, adequate documentation is ensured by electronic documentation systems. These models do not take into consideration physical defects, sex, age, body mass, or other pertinent variables (Giretzlehner, Ganitzer and Haller, 2021).

Three-dimensional model achieved through software of the same name, which is a thorough and accurate burn-treatment documentation schema, facilitated by three-dimensional digital models tracked over time. Systemic errors can be avoided by modifying these models according to sex, height, weight, and body shape. Superimposing photos of the burned areas on the model prevents individual error and can be combined with methods of burndepth evaluation. The program includes automatic encoding of diagnostic and therapeutic procedures. The model resolution is 1 cm2 and finer, allowing for the documentation of even small scars' locations and extents, thereby facilitating the registration of long-term results. Computer-aided methods can tremendously reduce these errors, but incorrect input of burn areas remains a problem (Haller *et al.*, 2009)

1.2.5. Risk factor for burn injury

There are several factors that increase an individual's risk of burn injuries (Spiwak, Sareen and Logsetty, 2022).

1.2.5.1. Age-related factors

1.2.5.1.1. The elderly

The world's population is increasing in age, as the proportion and numbers of elderly individuals in nearly every country are growing. World Population Prospects 2022 predicts a significant increase in the global population aged 65 and older, from 10% in 2022 to 16% in 2050 (Wu, Xi, and Xie, 2023). The elderly experience higher mortality rates and poorer outcomes compared to younger burn survivors with similar injuries (Harats *et al.*, 2019). The occurrence of burn injuries among older people has been attributed to decreasing physical strength, impaired protective mechanisms, poor vision, the existence of multiple co-morbidities, and decreased reaction time (Bayuo and Botcgway, 2017).

1.2.5.1.2. Child under five years

Compared to other age groups, burn injuries are more common in young children less than age of five (Van Zoonen *et al.*, 2022). The majority of burn injuries among children are caused by accidents at home (Lami and Al Naser, 2019). Risk factors for a higher prevalence in the pediatric population include inadequate supervision, crowded housing, low socioeconomic status, and low education levels (Elrod *et al.*, 2019). Other risk factors linked to cooking burn injuries included not having a separate kitchen in the home (Chauhan, Aundhakar and Patil, 2023).

1.2.5.2. Sex-related factor

On a global scale, females have higher rates of deaths due to burn injuries resulting from unsafe cooking environments, especially in low- and middle-income countries (Spiwak, Sareen, and Logsetty, 2022). Males are also at high risk for burn injuries chiefly due to males are responsible for most of the duties outside the home, which increases the risks of burn accidents occupation-related injuries (Al Laham, Elmanama and Tayh, 2013).

1.2.5.3. Socioeconomic factor

Individual-level socioeconomic disparities impact burn-related incidence, severity, and outcomes (Mason *et al.*, 2023). People's living conditions, lifestyles, and cultures greatly influence the risk of burns, partially explaining the global differences in burn-related injury rates and distribution, both between and within countries (Bolm *et al.*, 2016). Burns have remained a major health problem in most developing countries, which has increased mortality and morbidity among the population (Gatea, Nedjat, and Yekaninejad, 2019).

1.2.5.4. Comorbidities

Peripheral neuropathy, epilepsy, and other mental and physical impairments are comorbidities associated with an increased incidence of burn injuries. These comorbidities are common predisposing factors for burn injuries. Epilepsy in particular is a common cause of fires, severe burns, and burn-related fatalities, as those suffering from the condition may fall into an open fire or onto a cook stove (Lee, 2023). Despite a decrease in burn injuries due to seizures, such injuries still result in significant mortality and morbidity. Since these patients need to take their medication as prescribed, controlling them remains difficult (Johari, Mohammadi, and Dastgerdi, 2019).

1.2.5.5. Workplace burns

Occupational burns are among the important causes of work-related injuries (Basaran, and Ozlu, 2020). There are several reasons for workplace burn injuries, including thermal, electrical, and ultraviolet sunlight exposure
(Toolaroud, S., *et al.* (2023). Burn accidents in the workplace are mostly caused by the lack to use safety equipment and the presence of inadequate equipment (Bagheri *et al.*, 2022).

1.2.6. Pathogenesis of burn

A burn injury can be classified into three zones: the coagulation zone, which is the most damaged area in the centre; the zone of stasis, also known as the zone of ischaemia; and the hyperaemia zone (Jeschke *et al.*, 2020). The zone of coagulation represents the area of necrosis with irreversible tissue damage incurred at the time of injury, the stasis area surrounds the coagulation zone and is moderately damaged with vascular transudate, elevated vasoconstricting factors, as well as local inflammatory reactions, resulting in impaired tissue perfusion. Depending on the wound environment, the zone may recover or progress to necrosis. The zone of hyperaemia has dilated vessels caused by inflammation. It is characterised by increased blood flow to healthy tissues without much risk of necrosis, unless there is severe sepsis or prolonged hypoperfusion (Zwierełło *et al.*, 2023)

Burning, oedema, and inflammation are caused by a variety of factors. Patients typically experience generalized oedema when their burns exceed 30% of their total burned surface area. The heat can directly damage vessels and increase permeability. Increased capillary permeability to proteins is one of these changes. Equally important changes include the presence of an initial profound negative interstitial pressure sucking fluid into the tissue and a marked increase in interstitial space compliance. Heat alters proteins, which activate complement, resulting in histamine release and subsequent increases in vessel permeability, thrombosis and coagulation system activation. This leads to the release of serotonin (vasoconstriction) and bradykinin (increased permeability). The alteration or destruction of membrane phospholipids triggers the arachidonic acid cascade, resulting in the release of leukotrienes (which increase permeability and neutrophil recruitment), thromboxane A2 (vasoconstriction), prostacyclin (a vasodilator), and prostaglandins (increased dilation and constriction) (Roth and Hughes, 2015).

The increased permeability of capillaries and the resulting plasma leak persist for 48 hours and reach their maximum in the first 8 hours. The capillaries either return to normal permeability within 48 hours or undergo thrombosis, rendering them unavailable for circulation. This loss of plasma is the cause of hypovolemic shock. During the acute phase, thrombosed vessels beneath the burned skin lose red blood cells. Therefore, the loss of blood increases with the depth of the burn. Heat reduces the lifespan of the red blood cells in circulation, leading to early hemolysis. Extensive burns also cause bone marrow depression, which leads to anemia (Tiwari, 2012).

Severe burn often have systemic effects that extend beyond the injury's immediate area. Severe burns trigger a systemic inflammatory response. Multiple organs are involved. The circulatory system changes hemodynamics; the respiratory system increases breathing rates; the endocrine system causes hypermetabolism and hyperglycemic states; and the immunological system changes its function (Burgess *et al.*, 2022). Multiple organ dysfunction syndrome is common in severe burn patients, leading to poor outcomes. Altered organ function in two or more organ systems causes multiple organ dysfunction syndromes in acutely ill patients with severe trauma, burn, shock, and infection (Seada and Younis, 2020).

Severe organ dysfunction attributed to the host's disordered response to infection" defines sepsis, one of the most common burn complications, and is the primary cause of death in burn patients (Zhang *et al.*, 2021). Sepsis involves more than systemic inflammation. It affects many organ functions. On the cellular and molecular levels, the pathogenesis of sepsis is extremely complex, including an imbalance in the inflammatory response, immune

dysfunction, mitochondrial damage, coagulopathy, neuroendocrine immune network abnormalities, endoplasmic reticulum stress and other pathophysiological processes (Huang, Cai and Su, 2019).

1.2.7. Role of bacterial infection in the burns wound

Burn injuries may cause serious damage to the human skin, impairing one of the primary defenses against infection. For patients with burn wounds, infection is the main cause of death. Even among patients' survivors, infections can cause long-term harm and are notoriously difficult to treat, with longer hospital stays and delayed healing (Maslova *et al.*, 2021).

Hospital-acquired infections are defined as infections that occur within 48 hours after admission to the hospital or staying in a healthcare facility (Khammarnia *et al.*, (2021). Hospitals are the primary medical facilities for infection acquisition. Lack of financial funding, poor infrastructure and administration, incorrect use of antimicrobials, and an absence of educated personnel are major challenges for successful infection control in low-income countries's hospitals (Raka, 2010).

Hospital-acquired infections can be classified into two categories depending on the source of the pathogen: endogenous infections and exogenous infections (Custovic, Smajlovic, and Dzafic, 2020). Infection is endogenously acquired from body's flora. Bacteria are found on the skin and mouth, in the nose, gastrointestinal tract, throat, and in the female genital tract. Exogenous sources of infection may be either animate or inanimate. People, including patients and hospital personnel, release a large number of bacteria into the environment via their skin, as well as through their oral and nasal secretions, when they sneeze, speak, and other body movements (Nayek, S. 2019).

Patients with burn wounds have different bacterial types depending on the injury's location and timing. Gram-positive bacteria are the predominant microbes shortly after burning. After that, Gram-negative bacteria like *P. aeruginosa* and *Acinetobacter* species invade the burn site (Alturki, 2021).

Many cutaneous microorganisms are part of the skin's microbiota. *Staphylococcus epidermidis*, for example, can enter the wound, colonize it, and cause infection. *Staphylococcus aureus* is common in burn wounds. This bacterium has numerous virulent factors and colonizes the nasopharyngeal cavities. (Markiewicz-Gospodarek *et al.*, 2022). Also, the Gram-positive microbes in the inside of sweat ducts and hair follicles can withstand the heat of the original injury., and unless topical antibiotics are used, within 48 hours, these bacteria colonize the wounds extensively after injury (Nasser., Mabrouk, and Maher, 2003).

Burn wound infection may involve a number of dynamic pathophysiological mechanisms, such as microbial colonization, biofilm formation, and invasive burn wound infection. Eschar (avascular necrotic tissue) results from deep partial- and full-thickness burns, which provide a protein-rich environment for bacteria colonization and growth (Zhang *et al.*, 2021).

1.2.8. Pseudomonas aeruginosa

1.2.8.1. Pseudomonas aeruginosa general characteristics

Pseudomonas aeruginosa, belonging to the Pseudomonadaceae family, is Gram-negative, rod-shaped, motile (with a single polar flagellum), aerobic, non-spore forming, oxidase and catalase positive (Urgancı *et al.*,2022). It grows well at 37 °C, but it can survive in broad temperatures ranging from 4–42 °C. It is an important soil bacterium that is capable of breaking down polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons but is often also detected in water-reservoirs polluted by animals and humans, such as sewage and sinks inside and outside of hospitals (Diggle and Whiteley, 2020)

Pseudomonas' simple growth requirements and nutritional versatility enable its broad environmental distribution. They are capable of using many organic compounds as sources of carbon and nitrogen, and some strains can even grow in distilled water by using trace nutrients (Murray, Rosenthal, and Pfaller 2020). This bacterium is not fermentative and, in aerobic conditions, utilizes the glycolytic pathway to breakdown glucose, with oxygen serving as the final recipient of electrons. But nitrogen can function as an electron acceptor in anaerobic environments (De Sousa, *et al.*, 2021).

1.2.8.2. Virulence factor of Pseudomonas aeruginosa

Pseudomonas aeruginosa is able to adapt to the adverse environment in hosts by secreting a variety of virulence factors, which contribute to successful infection and causing disease (Qin *et al.*, 2022). The virulence of *P. aeruginosa* is characterized by the accumulation of six biologically competent attributes that initiate a multistep progression of the disease. Included them are colonization factors for hosts and motility of bacteria, the formation of biofilms, the production of damaging enzymes, siderophores that chelate iron, and toxin (Chadha, Harjai, and Chhibber, 2022).

1.2.8.2.1. Pili

The surface of *P. aeruginosa* contains long hair-like proteinaceous protrusion known as pili (Shanmugasundarasamy, Govindarajan, and Kandaswamy, 2022). Pili play versatile roles in bacterial physiology, including adhesion and host cell invasion, DNA and protein secretion and uptake, biofilm formation, and cell motility (Lukaszczyk, Pradhan, and Remaut, 2019).

1.2.8.2.2. Flagella

Pseudomonas aeruginosa has a single polar flagellum to swim in liquid and swarm across solid surfaces. Flagellum-dependent motility is essential for *P. aeruginosa* in establishing acute and chronic bacterial infections and evading host immune systems. Flagellum-dependent swimming motility enables the rapid dissemination of *P. aeruginosa* from the initial infection site of burn patients to cause potentially life-threatening systemic infections (Xin *et al.*, 2019)

1.2.8.2.3. Toxins

Bacterial toxins are thought to play a role in delayed wound healing in critically colonized and infected wounds. Endotoxins are released from Gram-negative bacteria when they are lysed by host phagocytic cells during an immune response, or by antimicrobial agents, potentially leading to a detrimental effect on the host tissues. Endotoxins can affect all aspects of the wound healing process, leading to delayed healing and contributing to wound chronicity. Release of endotoxins by bacteria can also have serious systemic effects (for example, septic shock) that can lead to high levels of patient mortality (Rippon, Westgate, and Rogers, 2022).

One of the most important virulence factors produced by *P.aeruginosa's* is Exotoxin A. It appears to play a role in both local and systemic *P. aeruginosa* disease processes. Exotoxin A It possesses necrotizing activity thus thought to aid in the colonization of the bacteria (Sekhi, 2022).

1.2.8.2.4. Enzymes

The degradation of elastin is accomplished by a synergistic action of two elastases, namely LasA (serine protease) and LasB (zinc metalloprotease). In acute infections, these enzymes can also break down complement components and stop neutrophils from moving and working properly, which can cause the infection to spread even more and damage tissues. Alkaline proteases, like elastases, facilitate the spread and destruction of tissue by *P. aeruginosa*. Additionally, it interferes with the host's immunological response. Phospholipase C is a heat-labile hemolysin that degrades lipids and lecithin, facilitating tissue destruction (Murray *et al.*, 2020).

1.2.8.2.5. Type 3 secretion system

Type 3 secretion systems (T3SS) are particularly relevant among the virulence factors, being one of the most important in *P. aeruginosa*. It is a complicated "molecular syringe" that can insert different effectors into host cells. This can break down cell machinery, change immune responses, and make it easier for bacteria to survive (Horna and Ruiz, 2021).

1.2.8.2.6. Biofilms

Autogenic extracellular polymeric substances primarily compose the structure known as biofilm. These compounds serve as structures that attach bacteria on surfaces together, shielding them from external pressures. As a result, biofilm enables the bacteria to establish colonies and survive for extended periods of time (Thi, Wibowo, and Rehm, 2020). The complex architecture of the *P. aeruginosa* biofilm enhances the harmful nature of this microbe, resulting in treatment inefficacy, avoiding the immune system and developing persistent infections that are difficult to eradicate (Tuon *et al.*, 2022).

1.2.8.3. Pathogenesis of Pseudomonas aeruginosa in burn patients

Chronic and acute infections caused by *P. aeruginosa* act a significant challenge to human health, especially in hospital settings. It has two antagonistic pathogenic strategies that parallel two different lifestyles: free-living cells are predominantly cytotoxic and induce an acute inflammatory reaction, while biofilm-forming communities cause refractory chronic infections (Valentini *et al.*, 2018) Acute infections often spread rapidly and can cause tissue damage and sepsis with high mortality rates; chronic infections can persist for weeks, months, or years in the face of intensive clinical intervention (Turner *et al.*, 2014).

Pseudomonas aeruginosa causes infections and diseases, particularly in immune-compromised patients, as well as many hospital-acquired infections. Given that *P. aeruginosa* is an opportunistic pathogen (Azam and Khan, 2019). It exhibits increased pathogenicity due to the presence of a wide range of virulence factors, including both cell-associated and extracellular factors. Some of these factors enhance bacterial invasion, while others promote colonization (Rocha *et al.*, 2019).

pseudomonas aeruginosa infections usually start as a localized, superficial lesion with a typical characteristic yellow or green color and a malodorous fruity smell, which may become an invasive infection termed "ecthyma gangrenosum," causing blue-purplish "punched-out" lesions in the skin *P. aeruginosa* can subsequently spread into deeper tissues rapidly to cause sepsis (Roy *et al.*, 2024).

1.2.8.4. Diagnosis of Pseudomonas aeruginosa

The use of microscopy to observe thin Gram-negative rods arranged singly and in pairs is suggestive of *Pseudomonas*; however, it is not definite because *Burkholderia* and other *Pseudomonads* have a similar appearance. Because *pseudomonas* has simple nutrition requirements, the bacteria are readily recovered on blood agar and MacConkey agar. *P. aeruginosa* requires aerobic incubation. Identification Colony morphology, odor, and rapid biochemical tests (for example, a positive oxidase reaction) are sufficient for the early identification of these bacteria. These bacteria produce green pigmentation caused by the production of blue (pyocyanin) and yellow-green (pyoverdin) pigments and a characteristic sweet, grapelike odor (Murray *et al.*, 2020).

The culture medium Cetrimide Agar Base selectively isolates and identifies *P. aeruginosa*. Cetrimide is a quaternary ammonium that inhibits a large number of bacteria, including those of the genus *Pseudomonas*, other than *P. aeruginosa* (Bonnet *et al.*, 2020). VITEK 2 system is the next generation of the best method to identify bacteria and represents advanced colorimetric technology (Al-Saffar and Jarallah, 2019).

20

1.2.8.5. Treatment of Pseudomonas aeruginosa

Antibiotics belonging to the β -lactam class, including Carbapenems, Monobactams, Cephalosporins, and Penicillins, are highly effective in treating infections caused by *P. aeruginosa*. However, many isolates of these bacteria are resistant to β -lactams, complicating therapy and leading to poor patient outcomes (Glen and Lamont, 2021).

Newer agents such as Ceftazidime-Avibactam, Ceftolozane-Tazobactam, Imipenem-Relebactam, and Cefiderocol are useful for treating MDR-P. aeruginosa infections. Pathogens resistant to first-line antipseudomonal-lactams can benefit from these agents, which offer improved efficacy and less toxicity compared to aminoglycosides and polymyxins (Blomquist and Nix, 2021).

Antibiotic resistance is a worldwide problem. Isolation in some countries is multi-drug-resistant (resistant to three or more classes of antimicrobials), extensively-drug-resistant (resistant to all but one or two classes), or even pan-drug-resistant (resistant to all available classes) (Meletis and Bagkeri, 2013). *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* can rapidly develop resistance to wide-spectrum antibiotics (Hasan, Najati, and Abass, 2019).

Generally, the major mechanisms of *P. aeruginosa* used to counter antibiotic attack can be classified into intrinsic, acquired and adaptive resistance. The intrinsic resistance of *P. aeruginosa* includes low outer membrane permeability, expression of efflux pumps that expel antibiotics out of the cell and the production of antibiotic-inactivating enzymes. The acquired resistance of *P. aeruginosa* can be achieved by either horizontal transfer of resistance genes or mutational changes (Pang *et al.*, 2019)

1.2.9. Monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 gene polymorphism

1.2.9.1. Monocyte chemoattractant protein-1gene define

Monocyte Chemoattractant Protein-1(MCP-1) is one of several cytokine genes clustered on chromosome 17 (He, Yao, and Li, 2023). In

1989 witnessed the birth of *MCP-1* into the light of scientific investigation at the National Cancer Institute, Maryland, USA. This protein was initially identified in the conditioned media of the human myelomonocytic cell line as the monocyte chemotactic factor. It was further named monocyte chemotactic and activating factor, which was found to be rapidly produced in normal human dermal fibroblasts (Panee, 2012).

Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 2, another name for *monocyte chemoattractant protein-1*, is an inflammatory mediator. It binds to CCR2, which is its receptor for increasing calcium flow and starting chemotactic activity (Zhu *et al.*, 2021). It is produced by a variety of cell types in response to different signals such as tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- α), interleukin-1 beta (IL-1 β) and interferon-gamma (Gupta, Chaturvedi, and Jain, 2013).

1.2.9.2. Role of *Monocyte chemoattractant protein-1* gene polymorphism in burns wound patients

Chemokines are small proteins that belong to the cytokine family. Their role is to control the migration of cells to sites of tissue damage or infection by binding appropriate receptors, thereby modulating the movement and function of target cells, especially leukocytes (Harvanová, Duranková, and Bernasovská, 2023).

Monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 is one of the most important chemokines that regulates the migration and infiltration of macrophages and monocytes throughout the immune response (Zhang, and Luo, 2019). Monocyte migration from the circulatory system across the vascular endothelium is critical for both regular immunological tissue surveillance and inflammation response (Mohammadi *et al.*, 2019).

In the pathophysiology of various illnesses, *MCP-1* is essential and hence *MCP-1* inhibition may have beneficial effects in such conditions (Yadav, Saini and Arora, 2010). Clinical studies have demonstrated that elevated systemic levels of *MCP-1* correlate with mortality in burn patients.

Hence, *MCP-1* is a myeloid-associated factor that is linked to worse clinical outcomes after thermal injury (Eitas *et al.*, 2017; Schaffrick, 2023).

Monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 is the most potent monocyte chemoattractant and inter-individual differences in its expression level have been associated with genetic variants mapping to the cis-regulatory regions of the gene. An A to G polymorphism in the *MCP-1* enhancer region at position 2578 (rs1024611; A>G) was found in most studies to be associated with higher serum *MCP-1* levels and increased susceptibility to a variety of diseases, such as HIV-1-associated neurological disorders, tuberculosis, and atherosclerosis (Pham *et al.*, 2012).

The genetic variation in *MCP-1* has been seen in multiple diseases and varies with ethnicity. A certain *MCP-1* gene polymorphism may affect a particular ethnic group but not act in the same manner in another (Singh, Anshita, and Ravichandiran, 2021). In addition, *MCP-1* was more commonly observed in septic shock patients than in those without shock, in non-survivors compared to survivors, and also in patients with fulminant meningococcal sepsis compared to those with mild meningococcal sepsis (Vermont *et al.*, 2006).

Chapter Two Subjects, Materials and Methods

2. Subjects, Materials and Methods

2.1. Subjects

The sample size includes (83) participants as the patient group with burn wounds. A burn swab was collected from each patient for bacterial culture. Also, 2 ml of blood were collected in an EDTA tube to determine the *MCP-1* gene polymorphism of 35 burn patients with bacterial infection. On the other hand, 2 ml of blood samples were collected in an EDTA tube from 35 individuals as a healthy control group for detection the *MCP-1* gene polymorphism by using the amplification refractory mutational system (ARMS). The samples were taken from both sexes (44) males and (39) females, whose ages ranged from (1-60) years old, attending the burn unit of Imam Al-Hussein Medical City, Karbala /Iraq during the period extended from August (2023) to December (2023). Case information sheets involving age, sex, and others were carried out for each patient.

Inclusion criteria include:

All patients with burn wound infections were diagnosed based on clinical symptoms and other investigations.

Exclusion criteria include:

Patients who have wounds other than a burn, autoimmune diseases, cardiovascular disease, asthma, septicemia, pneumonia, cancer, and others.

2.1.1. Ethical approval

The study protocol was sent to the relevant ethical committee in the health directorate. Also, verbal approval was taken from all the patients or any family members, before taking the sample. During sample collection, health measures and safety taken.

2.1.2 Study design

Case- control study.

2.1.2.1. Study Design Scheme

The design of study was illustrated in Figure (2-1).



Figure (2-1): Scheme of the Study Design.

2.2. Materials

2.2.1. Laboratory Equipment and instruments

The equipment and instruments used in this study were displayed in Table (2-1).

Table (2-1): Equipment and instruments with their manufacturing company and country of origin.

Names of laboratory Equipment and instruments	Company/ Origin	
Autoclave	Hirayama /Japan	
Benzene burner	Amal /Turkey	
Centrifuge	Hitachi/Japan	
Compound light microscope	Medline /England	
Conventional PCR system	Biobase/China	
Cooling centrifuge	Biobase/Cina	
Cotton	Almodawa/Iraq	
Deep freeze refrigerator	Concord /Lebanon	
DensiChek	Biomerieux / France	
Eppendrof tubes	Geneaid/korea	
EDTA tube	Zhongfan medical/china	
Filter paper	Himedia /India	
Gel electrophoresis	Biobase/China	
Glass cylinders (250,500 and 1000 ml)	Isolab/Germany	
Glass Flasks (250,500.1000 ml)	Isolab/Germany	
Gloves	Marco Medical SDN/Malaysia	
Incubator	Memmert (Germany)	

Inoculation Loop sterile	Himedia (India)	
Microbiologic safety cabinet	Nuve (turkey)	
microcentrifuge tube	Geneaid/Korea	
Micropipette (different sizes)	Eppendorf/ Germany	
Micropipette tips (different size)	Human/ Germany	
Microwave oven	Samsung /Korea	
Petri dishes	Himedia/India	
PH-meter	WTW (Germany)	
Plane tube (10 ml)	AFCO(Jordan)	
Refrigerator	Concord /Lebanon	
Sensitive electrical balance	WTW (Germany)	
Slide and cover slide	Super star/India	
Sterile cotton swab	AFCO/Jordan	
Syringes 3 ml	DMK/China	
UV Transilluminator	Biobase/China	
Vortex mixer	IKA (Germany)	
Water distiller	GFL(Germany)	

2.2.2. The culture media

The culture media used in this study demonstrated in Table (2-2).

Table (2-2) The cultures media used in this study with their manufacturing company and country of origin.

Name of culture media	Company/ Origin
Blood agar	
MacConkey agar	Liofilchem (Italy)
Mannitol salt agar	
Nutrient Agar	

2.2.3. Chemical and biological materials used in the study

Chemical and biological materials used in this study listed in Table (2-3).

Table (2-3). Chemical and biological materials are used with their manufacturing company and country of origin.

Name of material	Company/ Origin	
Absolute Ethanol	Bioneer/ Korea	
Agarose	Conda/Aspain	
Ethanol 70%	MIRNIA/Iraq	
Ethidium bromide	Bioneer/ Korea	
Gram stain kit	Himedia/India	
Human blood	Blood bank/Karbala	
Hydrogen peroxide	UN/Germany	
Normal saline (0.9%)	Choueifa/ Lebanon	
Oil immersion	BDH/ England	
Oxidase	Himedia (India)	
Povidone iodine	Onion/Australia	

2.2.4. VITEK2 kits that were used in this study

The VITEK2 kit for this study is found in Table (2-4).

Table (2-4) VITEK2 kits that were used in this study with their manufacturing company and country of origin.

Kits	Company /origin
ID- GN Card	
ID- GP Card	Biomerieux / France
AST-GN222	

2.2.5. Antibiotics groups for *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*

A list of Antibiotics to the contents of the AST-GN222 card used during this study for susceptibility testing by the VITEK2 compact system as shows in Table (2-5).

Table (2-5). Content Antibiotic cards for AST-GN222 that used in this study by VITEK2 compact system according to the manufactures company.

NO	A 4*h = - 4*	Disk Concentration		Company
NU	Antibioucs	Symbols	(µg/mL)	/origin
1	Amikacin	AN	8,16,64	
2	Cefepime	FEP	2,8,16,32	
3	Ceftazidime	CAZ	1,2,8,32	
4	Ciprofloxacin	CIP	0.5,2,4	
5	Colistin	CS	4,16.32	
6	Gentamicin	GM	4,16,32	Biomerieux
7	Imipenem	IPM	1,2.6.12	/ France
8	Meropenem	MEM	0.5,2,6,12	
9	Piperacillin	PIP	4,16,32,64	
10	Ticarcillin	TIC	16,32,64	
11	Ticarcillin/clavulanic acid	TCC	8/2,32/2,64/2	
12	Tobramycin	ТМ	8,16,64	

2.2.6. DNA Amplifications Materials

2.2.6.1 DNA Extraction kit

Kit for the DNA extraction that was used in this study is found in Tables (2-6).

Table (2-6) DNA extraction kits that were used in this study with their manufacturing company and country of origin.

DNA Extraction Kit	Company /origin
Proteinase k	
GB Buffer 40 ml	
W1 Buffer 45 ml	
Wash Buffer 45 ml	Geneaid/Korea
Elution Buffer 30 ml	
GD Colum100 pcs	
2ml collection tubes 100 pcs	

2.2.6.2. Master Mix

The contents of the master mix used in PCR are found in Table (2-7). Table (2-7) The contents of the master mix used in PCR with their manufacturing company and country of origin.

PCR Master Mix composition	Company /origin	
Taq DNA polymerase		
dNTPs (dATP, dCTP, dGTP, dTTP)	Bioneer/korea	
Reaction buffer with 1.5 mM MgCl2		
Stabilizer and tracking dye		

2.2.6.3. PCR Materials

The content of PCR materials was listed in Table (2-8).

Table (2-8) The PCR materials.

PCR Material	Company /origin	
Master mix	Bioneer/korea	
100–1500 bp DNA ladder	Bioneer/ Korea	
Free nuclease water	Bromeca /USA	
TBE (Tris-Borate EDTA) buffer	MarLiJu/ Korea	

2.2.6.4 Primer

Primer design according to nucleotide sequence gene bank website by using primer blast <u>https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/primer-blast/</u>. The following primers were used in this study to identify the *MCP-1* gene polymorphism listed in Table (2-9).

Table (2-9) primers sequences of *MCP-1* gene polymorphism used in this study.

Primer name	Primer sequences (5'_3')	Product size(bp)
Forward outer primer (FO)	5'-TAACTGAGGATTCTGGACAG-3'	379
Reverse outer primer (RO)	5'-TTATCTGATAAAGCCACAATC-3'	255
Forward inner primer (FI) (A allele)	5'-GTGGGAGGCAGACAGATA-3'	255
Reverse inner primer (RI) (G allele)	5'-AGAAAGTCTTCTGGAAAGTTAC-3'	379

2.3. Methods

2.3.1. Sample collection

2.3.1.1. Bacteriological sampling collection

The burn swabs were collected from 83 burn wound patients using sterile swabs. The swabs were sent to the laboratory as soon as possible.

2.3.1.2. Blood sample collection

Two ml of blood samples were collected in an EDTA tube from 35 burn patients with bacterial infections and from 35 individuals as a healthy control group for the detection of the *MCP-1* gene polymorphism. The tubes were stored in deep freeze until assayed for detection of the *MCP-1* gene polymorphism.

2.3.2. Sterilizing method

2.3.2.1. Ethanol 70%

The outer surface of the workbench and some study tools were treated with 70% ethanol (Harrigan and McCance, 2014).

2.3.2.2. Autoclave (moist heating)

The culture medium was sterilized using moist heat sterilization at a temperature of 121°C and under pressure of 1.5 bar for 20 minutes (Harrigan and McCance, 2014).

2.3.2.3. Oven (dry heating)

The glass wares were sterilized using dry heat in an electric oven at 160 °C for two hours (Harrigan and McCance, 2014).

2.3.3. Preparation of media

In this study, the culture media grade in the Table (2-2) was used

2.3.3.1. Blood Agar

Prepare this culture medium according to the manufacturer's instructions (Liofilchem/Italy) by dissolving 40.0 gm of Blood Agar in 1000 ml of D.W. The medium was heated until completely dissolved, and then sterilized by autoclave at 121 °C for 20 minutes, cooled to 45 °C, and

5% of fresh human blood was added. It was used as an enrichment medium for the bacterial isolates and to determine their ability to hemolyze RBCs (MacFadden, 2000).

2.3.3.2. MacConkey Agar

To prepare this medium, dissolve 51.5 gm of agar in 1 liter of D.W. This medium is selective for Gram-negative bacteria and differential for lactose-fermenting and lactose-nonfermenting bacteria (MacFadden, 2000).

2.3.3.3 Mannitol Salt Agar

Depending on the manufacturer, it prepared by dissolving 111 gm of powder in a liter of D.W. This type of media is selective for the isolation of staphylococci (MacFadden, 2000).

2.3.3.4. Nutrient Agar

It prepared depending on manufacturing company by dissolving 28.0 gm of powder in a liter of D.W. It has been used to cultivate, activate, and isolate bacteria, when it is required (MacFaddin, 2000).

2.3.4. Preparation of solutions and indicators

Ready-made reagents and solutions were used, such as Gram stain and normal saline, while in-stand reagents were prepared as needed, as follows

2.3.4.1. Oxidase reagent

According to the manufacturer's company, the oxidase reagent was prepared at a concentration of 1% by dissolving 0.1 gm of tetramethyl-pphenylenediamine dihydrochloride in 10 ml of distilled water. The oxidase test is useful in identifying microorganisms that may manufacture the cytochrome oxidase enzyme. The test distinguishes between the oxidasepositive Pseudomonacea and the oxidase-negative Enterobacteriacea groups (Green, and Goldman, 2021).

2.3.4.2. Catalase reagent

According to the manufacturer's company, the catalase reagent was prepared at a concentration of 3% by adding 1 ml of 30% hydrogen peroxide to 9 ml of distilled water. It has been used to detect the ability of bacteria to produce the catalase enzyme (Green, and Goldman, 2021).

2.3.4.3. Tris-Borate-EDTA Buffer

This solution was prepared according to the manufacturing company (MarLiJu/Korea) by dilution of the solution from $10 \times$ to 1x by adding 100 ml of tris-borate-EDTA buffer ($10 \times$ TBE) prepared by MarLiJu/Korea to 900 ml of sterile distilled water and kept at room temperature (Sambrook and Russell, 2001).

2.3.5. Specimens culturing

The burn wound swabs were streaked on MacConkey agar, blood agar and then incubated for 48 hours at 37°C under aerobic conditions. After that, the plates were examined for growth the next day, and then a pure colony for all bacterial types was prepared (Dubey and Maheshwari, 2023).

2.3.6. Identification of bacterial isolation

2.3.6.1. Macroscopic characteristics

All bacterial isolates were identified according to the general cultural characteristics (color, shape, and size) of the colony and their effects on media such as blood hemolysis, lactose fermentation, and their ability to ferment mannitol (Mahon and Lehman, 2022).

2.3.6.2. Microscopic examination

A small amount of a bacterial colony was spread on a clean slide with a drop of normal saline, fixed by a flame, stained with Gram stain, and then examined using an oil immersion (Atlas, 2010).

2.3.6.3. Biochemical test

2.3.6.3.1. Catalase test

The test was done on a slide by mixing a colony of bacteria with a few drops of 3% H2O2 and looking for bubble formation within 10 seconds. The hydrogen peroxide will be neutralized by the catalase enzyme generated by these bacteria, and bubbles will form, indicating a positive test (Benson, 2002)

2.3.6.3.2. Oxidase test

The test was carried out by impregnating a filter paper with 1% tetramethyl-p-phenylenediamine dihydrochloride, which acts as an artificial electron donor, and drying it. The bacterial colonies are smeared on a paper strip, and the color change is checked after 10 seconds (Benson, 2002)

2.3.6.3.3. Coagulase test (tube method)

The tube test was performed by adding the bacteria to plasma in a test tube. Coagulation of the plasma (including any thickening or formation of fibrin threads) within 24 hours indicates a positive reaction. The plasma is typically examined for clotting (without shaking) after about 4 hours because it is possible for coagulation to take place early and revert to liquid within 24 hours (Benson, 2002)

2.3.6.4. Identification of bacteria by VITEK2 compact system

The automated system VITEK-2, manufactured by BioMerieux in France, is used to determine the identity and susceptibility of bacterial isolates. It relies on biochemical reactions between the bacterial isolates suspended in their solutions and the media in the VITEK-2 Identification Cards (Pincus, 2006). The next step is the identification of bacteria according to the instructions provided by the manufacturer.

1. A single pure colony of bacterial isolate had been suspended in 3 ml of normal physiological saline in a sterile tube.

2. The turbidity of the bacterial suspension had been measured with the DensiChek VITEK device; the turbidity is 5.0–0.63.

3. The tubes had been placed in their own racks after the addition of a VITEK 2 cassette to each tube examination, depending on the diagnostic Gram stain.

4. The rack containing the tubes and the cassette had been transferred to the system, putted in the first field of fillers (filler), which automatically populates the cassete with bacterial suspension, and after finishing the process, the end signal had been delivered from the device.

5. The second field reader (reader) had been transferred to it, the first of which was to cut the tapes, and the offer order (burden) is a digital signal that had been held. The rack holding the tube moves from the device to provide the data for each sample on a computer connected to the VITEK2 compact system.

6.The taps had been left for 24 hours at 37 °C, then the results had been read for the diagnosis of bacteria. The findings were reported by the manufacturer as 96% to 100%, excellent identification; 93% to 95%, very good identification; 89% to 92%, good identification; 85% to 88%, acceptable identification; and on the other hand, no identification in another Isolates.

2.3.7. Genotyping Assay by Amplification-Refractory Mutation System (ARMS) Method

For detecting known point mutations was first described by Newton *et al.* (1989). The amplification-refractory mutation system (ARMS) is a simple procedure to find any variation that involves minor decreases or changes to a single base. The basic foundation of ARMS is on the use of PCR primers that are unique to a certain sequence. These tests only allow for the amplification of DNA when the target allele is present in the sample.

The absence or presence of PCR product following an ARMS reaction acts as a diagnostic indicator for the presence or absence of the target allele.

(Little, 1995). In a single-tube PCR, Tetra-ARMS-PCR amplifies both the wild-type and mutant alleles in addition to a control segment. A non-allele-specific control amplicon is obtained by amplifying the area surrounding the locus of interest using two common (outer) primers. The simultaneous amplification of the wild-type and mutant amplicons is possible by combining common primers with two allele-specific (inner) primers that have opposite orientations. The specificity of allele-specific primers is conferred by the match of the terminal 3'nucleotide with either the wild-type or the mutant allele, and it is enhanced by the introduction of a deliberate mismatch near the primer 3'end. The two allele-specific amplicons have different lengths and can be easily separated by standard gel electrophoresis because the mutation is asymmetrically located with respect to the common primers (Galmozzi *et al.*, 2011).

2.3.7.1. DNA Extraction Procedure

The DNA extraction included the following steps

1-The blood was collected in EDTA tubes.

2-A volume of 200 μ l of whole blood had been transferred to a 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tube.

3- A volume of 20 μ l of Proteinase K had been added to the sample tube and gently mixed.

4-The mixture had been placed in incubation at 60 °C for 10 minutes. During incubation, the tube was inverted every 3 minutes.

5- A volume of 200 μ l of GB buffer had been added to the sample and mixed by vortex for 10 seconds.

6- The tube was incubated for at least 10 minutes at 70°C to ensure that the sample lysate had been cleared. During incubation, the tube was inverted every 3 minutes.

7- A volume of 200 μ l of absolute ethanol had been added and immediately mixed by shaking vigorously for 10 seconds.

8-Carefully apply the mixture from step 7 to the GD Column (in a 2 ml collection tube), close the cap, and centrifuge at 14,000 rpm for 1 minute. Discard the filtrate and place the column in a new 2 ml collection tube.

9- A volume of 400μl of wash1 buffer had been added to the GD column. The centrifugation process was achieved at 14000 rpm for 30 seconds.

10- The flow-through had been discarded, and the GD column was placed back in the GD column.

9- A volume of 600 μ l of washing buffer (ethanol added) had been added to the GD column and centrifuged at 14000 rpm for 30 seconds.

10-The flow-through had been discarded, and the GD column was placed back into the GD column.

11-The centrifugation had been done at 14000 rpm for 1 minute to dry the column matrix.

12-The dried GD column had been transferred to a clean 1.5 microcentrifuge tube.

13-A volume of 100 μ l of pre-heated elution buffer had been added to the center of the column matrix and left to stand for at least 3 minutes to ensure the elution buffer was absorbed by the matrix.

14-The centrifugation process had been achieved at 14000 rpm for 30 seconds to elute the purified DNA. Eluted DNA was stored at -20 °C until used for PCR.

2.3.7.2. Primer preparation

The primers were prepared according to manufacturer instructions to form a stock solution with a concentration of 100 pmol/ μ l by dissolving the lyophilized primers with deionized D.W. Then the working solution was prepared by dissolved 25 μ l of 100 pmol/ μ l with 225 μ l of deionized distilled water to form 250 μ l of 10 pmol/ μ l.

2.3.7.3. Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) Mixture

Polymerase Chain Reaction Mixture were list in Table (2-10).

Table (2-10) Polymerase Chain Reaction Mixture.

PCR Mixture	Volume (µl)	
Master mix	3.5	
Forward outer primer	1	
Reverse outer primer	1	
Forward inner primer (A allele)	1	
Reverse inner primer (G allele)	1	
Nuclease free water	12.5	
template DNA	5	
Total volume	25 (µl)	

The components of the PCR mixture were placed in the PCR tubes prepared with the kit, then the tubes were carefully mixed with the vortex device for 5 seconds, after which the tubes were transferred to the PCR thermal cycle device to conduct thermal cycles according to the optimal conditions for DNA replication.

2.3.7.4. Polymerase Chain Reaction Conditions by amplificationrefractory mutation system (ARMS) method

To amplify a target DNA, specific primer pairs and the conventional-PCR were used. the amplification-refractory mutation system (ARMS) method used for producing a PCR product. Denaturation, annealing, and elongation were the three stages that comprise the process typical and they repeated cycle after cycle (amplicon). The conditions for the PCR were listed in Table (2-11).

Step	Temperature	Time	Number of cycles
Initial Denaturation	95 °C	5 Minutes	1 cycle
Denaturation	95°C	30 Seconds	
Annealing	58°C	58 Second	29 cycles
Extension	72°C	60 Seconds	
Final Extension	72°C	5 Minutes	1 cycle
Hold	4 °C	œ	

Table (2-11): PCR Conditions for Amplification of the *MCP-1* Gene.

2.3.7.5. Agarose Gel Electrophoresis

This process was carried out according to (Lodish, Berk, and Matsudaira, 2004). Successful PCR amplification was confirmed by agarose gel electrophoresis. Agarose gel was prepared by mixing 100 ml of previously prepared TBE buffer with 1 gm of agarose powder. (final concentration was 1 X and pH 8 after adding 900 ml of D.W. to 100 ml of TBE buffer 10X). After heating the mixture until it became clear, it was allowed to cool to 50°C then 0.5 µg/ml of ethidium bromide was added. The agarose was placed in a stabilized gel tray previously, set with a comb fixed to the end, and the tray of gel sealed at both ends. For 30 minutes, the agarose was left to solidify in the room temperature. Comb and seal were carefully removed from tray. The PCR product was loaded into the comb-made wells. After that, a ladder of DNA markers (five microliters) was added to one well in agarose gel well then, 1 X TBE buffer was added to the electrophoresis chamber until the gel tray was completely filled. The current of electricity was 60 volts for 35 minutes. Ultraviolet transilluminator was used for the observation of DNA bands.

2.3.8. Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS statistical package for Social Sciences (version 20.0 for windows, SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA). Quantitative data are represented as mean, standard deviation and range. Qualitative data are represented as count and percentage. ANOVA test (analysis of variance) was used to test the difference between multiple groups. Chi-square test was used to test the relation of qualitative data. *P value of* <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Chapter Three Results

3. Results

3.1. Sex, age, and weight characteristics of the patients and control groups

The patients consisted of 44 (53.0%) males and 39 (47.0%) females, whereas in control, 15 (42.9%) were males and 20 (57.1%) were females. There were non significant differences (P=0.420) between study groups regarding sex. The age of the patients ranged from (1-60) years, while the age of the controls ranged from (1-52) years, and they were classified into six groups. The results revealed that burn cases were more frequent in age < 11 years 37 (44.6%) than other age groups, and there were non significant differences (P=0.575) between the control and patient groups.

According to the weight of the patients, 78 (94.0%) of them were of normal weight, and 5 (6.0%) of them were overweight, while in the control group, all of them were of normal weight 35 (100%). There were non significant differences (p=0.320) when compared between patients and the control group, as shown in Table (3-1).

Variables		Group				
		Patients (N=83)		Control (N=35)		P value
		Count	%	Count	%	
sex	Male	44	53.0%	15	42.9%	0.420
	Female	39	47.0%	20	57.1%	
	Total	83	100%	35	100%	
Age (year)	<11	37	44.6%	12	34.3%	0.575
	11-20	11	13.3%	6	17.1%	
	21-30	8	9.6%	3	8.6%	
	31-40	13	15.7%	6	17.1%	
	41-50	8	9.6%	7	20.0%	
	51+	6	7.2%	1	2.9%	
	Total	83	100%	35	100%	
Weight	Normal wt.	78	94.0%	35	100.0%	0.320
	Over wt.	5	6.0%	0	0.0%	
	Total	83	100%	35	100%	

Table (3-1): Distribution of sex, age, and weight characteristics of the studied groups

*p value is non significant (chi-square test)

3.2. Clinical characteristics in patients' group

In analyzing the results concerning burn types, it was clear that patients with scalding burns had 44 (53.0%), followed by flame burns at 34 (41.0%), and then electrical burns at 5 (6.0%). About the patients with inhalation injuries, it was found that 80 patients (96.4%) had non-inhalation injuries, whereas only 3 patients (3.6%) had inhalation injuries. However, the number of patients with in-hospital mortality was 9 (10.8%), while 74 (89.2%)

patients were healed. For the patients with mechanical ventilation, it was found that 80 patients (96.4%) had non mechanical ventilation, whereas only 3 patients (3.6%) had mechanical ventilation. Also, total body surface area (TBSA) ranges from (4.00-75.00%) with a mean (17.05) and SD (14.02). Also mean length of hospital stays ranges from (2.00-21.00) days with a mean (9.31) and SD (4.36), as found in Tables 3-2.

Variables		Count	%	
	Scalding	44	53.0%	
Burn types	Flame	34	41.0%	
	Electrical	5	6.0%	
	Total	83	100	
Inhalation injury	-ve	80	96.4%	
innaration injury	s Flame 34 Electrical 5 Total 82 ury $-ve = 80$ +ve = 32 Total 82 -ve = 74 +ve = 92 Total 82 +ve = 92 Total 82 +ve = 92 Total 82 +ve = 80 +ve = 80 +ve = 80 -ve = 80 +ve = 92 Total 82 +ve = 92 Total 82 +ve = 92 Total 83 +ve = 92 Total 83		3.6%	
	Total	83	100%	
In hognital montality	-ve	74	89.2%	
m-nospital mortanty	+ve	9	10.8%	
	Total	83	100%	
Mechanical Ventilation	-ve	80	96.4%	
weenamear ventilation	chanical Ventilation -ve 8 +ve 3		3.6%	
	Total	83	100%	
		Mean (SD)*	Range	
Total body surface area (TBSA)		17.05 (14.02)	4.00-75.00	
Length of hospital stay		9.31 (4.36)	2.00-21.00	

*SD: Standard deviation

3.3. Severity of burn in patients' group

The degrees of burn severity as illustrated in Table (3.3) show that the second degree constituted the most common of cases 55 (66.3%), while the third-degree burn constituted 21 (25.3%), and the second +third degree constituted only 7 (8.4%), as presented in Table (3-3).

Variables		Count	%
	Second degree	55	66.3%
Burn severity	Third degree	21	25.3%
	Second + third degree	7	8.4%
	Total	83	100%

Table (3-3): Degrees of burn	severity in patients
------------------------------	----------------------

3.4. Bacterial culture results in patients' group

A total of 83 swab specimens were collected from patients with suspected burn wound infection; among them, 28 (33.735%) of specimens were found to be with Gram-negative bacteria, 7 (8.434%) with Grampositive bacteria, and 48 (57.831%) with negative culture., as demonstrated in Table (3-4)

Table (3-4):	Bacterial	culture results	in	cases	group
--------------	-----------	-----------------	----	-------	-------

Variables		Count	%
Bacterial Culture	Gram –negative	28	33.735%
	Gram +positive	7	8.434%
	No growth	48	57.831%
	Total	83	100%

3.5. Types of bacterial isolates in patients

Culturing investigation depending on morphological, biochemical and VITEK2 system results showed that Pseudomonas aeruginosa was the commonest isolate (31.43%), then *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (20.00), followed (14.29%), Acinetobacter by Escherichia coli baumannii (8.57), then Staphylococcus aureus, Staphylococcus haemolyticus and Coagulasenegative staphylococcus (5.71%) for each isolale, whereas Enterobacter aerogenes, Serratia liquefaciens, and Staphylococcus epidermidis represented the lowest isolated bacteria, and each of them was found only in one sample with a percentage equal to (2.86%), as shown in Figure 3-1.



Figure (3-1): Distribution of bacterial isolates in patients swabs
3.6. Association of bacterial isolates to burn severity in patients with bacterial infection

Table (3-5) showed that patients with second-degree burns had more positive cultures (28) isolates compared to the positive cultures 3 and 4 isolated from patients with third-degree and second+ third-degree burns, respectively, (28) isolates in the second-degree burn patients were divided into 9 types of bacteria, *P. aeruginosa* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae* were 6 (21.429%) for each isolate, than *Escherichia coli* was 5 (17.857%), *Acinetobacter baumannii* was 3 (10.714%), *Staphylococcus aureus, Coagulase-negative staphylococcus* and *Staphylococcus haemolyticus* were 2 (7.143%) for each isolate, while *Serratia liquefaciens* and *Staphylococcus epidermidis* were only 1(3.571%) for each isolate. The isolates with third-degree burns were *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* 2 (66.7%) and *Enterobacter aerogenes* was 1 (33.3%), only while the isolates with second+ third-degree burns were *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* 3 (75.0%) and *Klebsiella pneumoniae* was 1 (25.0%). There were non significant differences (P= 0.342) between bacterial isolates and burn severity, as clarified in Table (3-5).

 Table (3-5): The relation of bacterial isolates to burn severity in patients

 with bacterial infection

	Burn severity						
Types of bacteria	Degree 2		Degree 3		Degree 2+3		P value
Types of Dacterra	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	value
Psudomonas aeruginosa	6	21.429%	2	66.7%	3	75.0%	
Klebsiella pneumoniae	6	21.429%	0	0.0%	1	25.0%	
Escherichia coli	5	17.857%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	
Acinetobacter baumannii	3	10.714%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	
Enterobacter aerogenes	0	0.0%	1	33.3%	0	0.0%	
Serratia liquefaciens	1	3.571%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0.342*
Staphylococcus aureus	2	7.143%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	
Coagulase-negative Staphylococcus	2	7.143%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	
Staphylococcus haemolyticus	2	7.143%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	
Staphylococcus epidermidis	1	3.571%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	
Total	28	100%	3	100%	4	100%	

* *p value* is non significant (chi-square test)

3.7. Association of bacterial isolates to sex in patients with bacterial infection

In the present study, it was observed that the number of *P*. *aeruginosa* were higher in males 6 (37.5%) compared to females 5 (26.32%), the number of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* were higher in females 4 (21.05%) compared to males 3 (18.75%), while the number of *Escherichia*

coli were higher in males 3 (18.75%) compared to females 2 (10.53%). The number of *Acinetobacter baumannii* in females were 2 (10.53%), while in males it was 1 (6.25%). Also, the number of *Coagulase-negative staphy*lococcus in females were 2 (10.53%), while in males it was 0 (0.0%). The equal numbers of *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Stapylococcus haemolyticus* in both males and females were 1(6.25%) and 1 (5.26%), respectively. Also, the equal number of *Enterobacter aerogenes* and *Serratia liquefaciens* in females was 1 (5.26%), while in males it was 0 (0.0%), and the number of *Staphylococcus epidermidis* in males was 1 (6.25%), while in females it was 0 (0.0%). There were non significant differences (p=0.707) concerning the relation of bacterial isolates to sex in patients with bacterial infection, as found in Table (3-6).

Type of bacteria	Male]	<i>P</i> value	
	Count	%	Count	%	
Pseudomonas aeruginosa	6	37.5%	5	26.32%	
Klebsiella pneumoniae	3	18.75%	4	21.05%	
Escherichia coli	3	18.75%	2	10.53%	
Acinetobacter baumannii	1	6.25%	2	10.53%	
Enterobacter aerogenes	0	0.0%	1	5.26%	0.707*
Serratia liquefaciens	0	0.0%	1	5.26%	
Staphylococcus aureus	1	6.25%	1	5.26%	
Coagulase-negative Staphylococcus	0	0.0%	2	10.53%	
Staphylococcus haemolyticus	1	6.25%	1	5.26%	
Staphylococcus epidermidis	1	6.25%	0	0.0%	
Total	16	100%	19	100%	

Table 3-6: The relation of bacterial isolates to sex in patients with bacterial infection

* *p value* is non significant (chi-square test)

3.8. The relation of bacterial isolates to age in patients with bacterial infections

Pseudomonas aeruginosa isolate in ages of patients ranged from (2.00-52.00) years with a mean value (27.00), while the *Klebsiella pneumonia*e isolate in ages of patients ranged from (1.00-45.00) years with a mean value (22.86). Also, the *Escherichia coli* isolate in ages of patients ranged from (1.00-50.00) years with a mean value (19.40), whereas the *Acinetobacter baumannii* isolate in ages of patients ranged from 3.00–46.00 years with a mean value (26.67). The *Enterobacter aerogenes* isolate in the ages of patients ranged from 14.00-14.00 years with a mean value (14.00) and *Serratia liquefaciens* isolate in the ages of patients ranged from 6.00-6.00 years with a mean value (6.00). However, the *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates in the ages of patients ranged from 5.00-10.00 years, with a mean value (7.50). Also, the *Coagulase-negative Staphylococcus* isolate in ages of patients ranged from (3.00-3.00) years with a mean value (3.00), while, the *Staphylococcus haemolyticus* isolate in ages of patients ranged from (3.00–3.00) years with a mean value (3.00), while, the *Staphylococcus haemolyticus* isolate in ages of patients ranged from (33.00–52.00) years with a mean value (42.50). The *Staphylococcus epidermidis* isolate in the ages of patients ranged from 50.00-50.00 years, with a mean value (50.00). There were non significant differences (p=0.357) regarding the relation of bacterial isolates to ages in patients with bacterial infection, as presented in Table (3-7).

Table 3-7: The relation of bacterial isolates to age in patients with bacterial infection

Type of bacteria	Mean	Iean SD Minimun		Maximum	P value
Pseudomonas aeruginosa	27.00	15.96	2.00	52.00	
Klebsiella pneumoniae	22.86	19.18	1.00	45.00	
Escherichia coli	19.40	23.66	1.00	50.00	
Acinetobacter baumannii	26.67	21.83	3.00	46.00	
Enterobacter aerogenes	14.00	0.00	14.00	14.00	
Serratia liquefaciens	6.00	0.00	6.00	6.00	0.357*
Staphylococcus aureus	7.50	3.54	5.00	10.00	
Coagulase-negative Staphylococcus	3.00	0.00	3.00	3.00	
Staphylococcus haemolyticus	42.50	13.44	33.00	52.00	
Staphylococcus epidermidis	50.00	0.00	50.00	50.00	

A	σe	٢v	ea	r)
Π	gu	(Y	Ca	IJ

* *p value* is non significant (ANOVA test)

3.9. PCR-Based Detection of SNP

3.9.1. Evaluation of genomic DNA extract quality and integrity

The quality and integrity were checked by agarose gel electrophoresis before performing the PCR reaction, as shown in Figure (3-2). All DNA extracts showed a single bright band.

3.9.2. Monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 Gene Amplification

DNA extracts from each patient with a bacterial burn infection of the wound and a healthy control group were amplified to identify the gene segment that may have a single nucleotide polymorphism within the *MCP-1* gene region. The polymerase chain reaction was carried out under optimal conditions using a specific primer; the PCR result was then electrophoresis on an agarose gel at a 1% concentration. The results showed a single distinct band with a molecular size of the G allele (379 bp) and the A allele (255 bp). The amplicon's size was determined by comparing it to the 100 bp DNA ladder, as shown in Figure (3-3).



Figure (3-2): Evaluation of DNA Extract Quality and Integrity. 1 % Agarose Gel Electrophoresis of Genomic DNA in 60 Volts at 15 Minutes.



Figure (3-3): Gel Electrophoresis for PCR Product of the SNP (-2581 A/G *MCP-1* Gene with DNA Ladder 100bp (M) on Agarose Gel 1 % in 60 Volts, 35 Minutes and Detection of the Result by UV Documentation System. The size of product is 594 bp-control, 379 bp—G allele and 255 bp—A allele.

3.9.3. Detection of *MCP-1*Gene (rs1024611) Polymorphism in Patients and Control by conventional PCR

Three distinct genotypes of a genetic polymorphism (rs1024611) in the *MCP-1* genome have been identified: GG, AA, and AG. in burn wound infection patients as well as controls. The Patients showed an elevated AA genotype compared to the control (40.0% vs. 8.6%, respectively), the AG gene was discovered to be in higher rates in control than patients (17.1% vs. 14.3%, respectively), and The GG gene was found to be more prevalent in controls compared to patients (74.3% vs. 45.7%, respectively). There were a significant difference in the genotype with the group studied (P=0.008). The "A" allele had a greater frequency in patients than the control group (47.2% vs. 17.2%, respectively), whereas the "G" allele increased in control in

contrast to patients (82.8% vs. 52.8%, respectively), as shown in Table 3–8. There were a significant difference in alleles between the patients and the control groups (P=0.001)

Table (3- 8): Genotype and allele frequency distribution of MCP-1 genepolymorphism in patients and control groups.

Variables		Pat	ients	Con	P value	
		Count	%	Count	%	
MCP-1 genotype	A/A	14	40.0%	3	8.6%	
	A/G	5	14.3%	6	17.1%	0.008*
	G/G	16	45.7%	26	74.3%	
	Total	35	100%	35	100%	
MCP-1 allele	А	33	47.2%	12	17.2%	
	G	37	52.8%	58	82.8%	0.001*
Total		70	1005	70	100%	

* *p value* is significant (chi-square test)

3.10. Genotype and allele frequency distribution of *MCP-1* gene polymorphism according to severity groups in patients with bacterial infection

According to the frequency distribution of *MCP-1* gene polymorphism to burn severity in patients with bacterial infection. The AA genotype was found to be at a higher frequency in patients with second degree 13 (46.4%) while with third degree and second +third were 0 (0.0%), 1 (25.0%) respectively, the AG genotype was found to be at a higher frequency in patients with second+third degree 1(25.0%) while with second and third degree were 4 (14.3%), 0 (0.0%), respectively, the GG genotype was found to be at a higher frequency in patients with third degree 3 (100%), while with second and second+third degree were 11 (39.3%), 2 (50.0%) respectively. There was non significant difference between the genotype and the burn severity (P=0.323). The "A" allele was elevated in patients with second degree 30 (53.6%) compared with third and second +third degree were 0 (0.0%) and 3 (37.5%), respectively. The "G" allele was elevated in patient with a third degree of 6 (100%) compared with those with a second degree and second+third degree were 26 (46.4%), 5 (62.5%) respectively. There was a significant difference in the alleles with burn severity (P=0.037), as shown in the Table (3-9).

Table (3-9): Genotype and allele frequency distribution of *MCP-1* gene polymorphism according to severity groups in patients with bacterial infection

Variables		Deg	Degree 2		Degree 3		ee 2+3	P value
		Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	
	A/A	13	46.4%	0	0.0%	1	25.0%	
MCP-1 genotype	A/G	4	14.3%	0	0.0%	1	25.0%	0.323*
	G/G	11	39.3%	3	100.0%	2	50.0%	
Total		28	100%	3	100%	4	100%	
MCP-1 allele	А	30	53.6%	0	0.0%	3	37.5%	0 027**
	G	26	46.4%	6	100.0%	5	62.5%	0.057
Total	-	56	100%	6	100%	8	100%	

* *p value* is non significant, ** *p value* is significant (chi-square test)

3.11. Relation of MCP-1 genotypes according to bacterial culture results

Table (3-10) showed that patients with the GG genotype had more positive cultures (16) isolates compared to the positive cultures 14 isolated from patients with the AA genotype and 5 isolated from patients with the AG genotype. The number of *P. aeruginosa* from the bacterial isolate was higher in patients with AG genotype 2 (40.0%) compared to AA and GG genotypes 3 (21.43%), 6 (37.5%) respectively. Also, the number of Klebsiella pneumoniae was higher in patients with GG genotype 4 (25.0%) compared to AA and AG genotypes, which were 2 (14.28%) and 1 (20.0%), respectively; however, the number of *Escherichia coli* were 3 (21.43%), 2 (12.5%), and 0 (0.0%), respectively, in patients with AA, GG, and AG genotypes. In addition, the numbers of Acinetobacter baumannii in patients with AA, AG, and GG genotypes were 1 (7.14%), 1 (20.0%) and 1 (6.25%) respectively; however, the numbers of Enterobacter aerogenes and Staphylococcus epidermidis in patients with GG genotypes were equal to 1 (6.25%) for each isolate, while in AA and AG were 0 (0.0%). About the number of Coagulase-negative Staphylococcus and Staphylococcus haemolyticus in patients with AA, genotypes were 2 (14.29%) for each isolate, while AG and GG were 0 (0.0%). Regarding the number of Staphylococcus aureus in patients with AA, GG and AG genotypes, they were 1 (7.14%), 1 (6.25%), and 0 (0.0%), respectively. Whereas, the number of Serratia liquefaciens in patients with AG genotype was 1 (20.0%), while in patients with AA and GG genotypes were 0 (0.0%). There was non significant difference (P=0.453) according to the relationship between bacterial culture results and MCP-1 genotype.

		_					
Types of hacteria	A	A/A	A/	/G	G	/G	P value
Types of Success	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	
P. aeruginosa	3	21.43%	2	40.0%	6	37.5%	
K. pneumoniae	2	14.28%	1	20.0%	4	25.0%	
Escherichia coli	3	21.43%	0	.0%	2	12.5%	
Acinetobacter baumannii	1	7.14%	1	20.0%	1	6.25%	
Enterobacter aerogenes	0	0.0%	0	.0%	1	6.25%	
Serratia liquefaciens	0	0.0%	1	20.0%	0	.0%	
Staphylococcus aureus	1	7.14%	0	0.0%	1	6.25%	0.453*
Coagulase-negative Staphylococcus	2	14.29%	0	0.0%	0	.0%	
S. haemolyticus	2	14.29%	0	0.0%	0	.0%	
S. epidermidis	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	1	6.25%	
Total	14	100%	5	100%	16	100%	

Table (3-10): Distribution of *MCP-1* genotype according to bacterial types results.

* *p value* is non significant (chi-square test)

3.12. Antibiotic susceptibility test for Pseudomonas aeruginosa

In vitro susceptibility of *P. aeruginosa* isolates was determined with minimal inhibitory concentration by VITEK2 system. The antibiotic sensitivity test was performed on 11 burn wound isolates. The results showed

Chapter Three

that these isolates were found to be resistant to Ticracillin, Ticracillin clavulanic acid, Piperacillin, Ceftazidime, Cefepime, Imipenem, Meropenem, Amikacin, Gentamicin, Tobromycin, and Ciprofloxacin (100%), while the results showed susceptibility (100%) for Colistin only, as shown in Figure (3-4).



Figure 3-4 antibiotic susceptibility profile of *p. aeruginosa* isolate

Chapter Four Discussion

4.Discussion

4.1. Distribution of sex, age, and weight characteristics of the patients and control groups

Burn injuries are a significant cause of both mortality and morbidity, leaving the patient with lifelong physical, psychological and emotional disabilities (Abdilkarim, 2022).

In this study, there were non significant differences (P=0.420) between study groups regarding sex, as found in Table 3-1. This finding was similar to the study accomplished by Matsuura et al. (2019) who showed non significant differences regarding sex between the patients with burns and the controls. Additionally, in the present study, it was observed that the number of patients with burn wounds was higher in males compared to females, these results were in line with the results of Hasan and Al-Humairi (2022) who found that the number of significant burn wounds was higher in males (53.4%) than in females (46.6%). This result was also in agreement with other studies that showed that males have a higher frequency of burn wounds than females (Obaid, Baiee, and Ismail, 2020; Mulatu et al., 2022). On the contrary a study conducted by Almutlag et al. (2020) found that the highest incidence of skin burn cases was recorded among females (80%) compared to males (20%), The increased risk of burns in women may be attributed to their propensity for cooking, the use of stoves that are unsafe and can catch fire, as well as self-inflicted or interpersonal violence.

There were non significant differences (P=0.575) between study groups regarding age. This finding was similar to the study by Matsuura *et al.* (2019), who showed non significant differences regarding age between the patients with burns and the controls. Additionally, it was observed that the number of patients with burn wounds was higher in ages less than 11 years, these results were in line with the study in Babylon conducted by Obaid and Baiee (2022), who found that the number of significant burn wounds in children of age 1–9 years constituted 35.8% of burning people. This may be attributed to that children tend to be more active and thus more exposed to stoves, fire places, hot kitchen appliances, and hot liquid.

According to the weight of the patients, there were non significant differences (p=0.320) when compared between the patients and the control group. On the contrary, a study result was conducted by Aghaei *et al*, (2018), who found that the body mass index had a positive and significant relationship (p < 0.0004), which indicates that by increasing the body mass index, the chance of burning increased. It was decided that the risk of burns in obese patients was higher than that of normal people.

4.2. The clinical characteristics of the burn patients' group

Table (3-2) showed that from the results concerning burn types, it was clear that the most common cause of burns in burn patients was scalding burns (53.0%), followed by flame burns (41.0%), and leas frequency was electrical burns (6.0%). This study was in the same line as the study in Al-Hilla City by Hasan and Al-Humairi (2022), who showed that 43.9% of patients had scald burn, followed by flame burn at 34.2% and electrical burn at only 1.4%. Also, this study agreed with other studies, such as those by Tibebu et al. (2021); Mulatu et al. (2022), which found that scald burn was the major cause, followed by flame burn. This may be explained based on the fact that hot liquids are of high importance at home and are most frequently used in many life situations. The current study did not agree with the study in Duhok and Erbil by Qader, Solmaz, and Merza (2020), which demonstrated that burns from a flame were the most common cause of burn wounds, representing 55.5% of the patients, whereas scalding was the second most common cause of burn wounds, representing 37.7% of the patients. Also, a study by Polse, Khalid, and Mero (2023) found that flame burn had the highest rate (38.18%), followed by scald burn (15.45%). The differences between these results may be due to the fact that most flame injuries occur at home and that most women in society perform daily household tasks like cooking and heating in areas of the kitchen where there is a greater danger of flame burns.

The current study found that only 3.6% of patients had an inhalation injury. It is less than the study in China conducted by Yu *et al.* (2016), which showed that 6.7% of patients had inhalation injuries. This result was also less than a study in Saudi Arabia by Al-Mutairi *et al.* (2023), who found that (9.9%) of patients had inhalation injuries. The variety could be due to population distribution, burn severity, and causes of burns.

However, in Table 3-2, the frequency of in-hospital mortality was 10.8%, compared to 89.2% of the patients who healed. This study is in line with study conducted by Kirschbaum-Rubin *et al.*, (2021) who found that (9%.) of the patients were dead. On the contrary, a study result in western Uganda conducted by Baraka *et al.* (2023), who found that (4.7%) of the patients were dead. Also, a study result in Basra by Al-Shamsi and Othman (2017), which showed that the outcome of accidents was 79% of patients cured and discharged and 21% dead. The mortalities are different, which is possibly due to the difference in care, treatment, and following the standards. Goodarzi *et al.* (2014) suggested that the high mortality rate of burns can be due to inappropriate routine resistance to bacteria and septicemia. The presence of large TBSA% burns and inhalation injuries were predicting factors for mortality linked to burn injuries (Ismaeil *et al.*, 2020).

Also in this study, the patients were placed on mechanical ventilation; it was found that only 3 patients (3.6%) had mechanical ventilation, as shown in Table (3-2). In contrast to other studies by Pirat *et al.* (2010) and Ismaeil *et al.* (2020), which revealed that 21% and 20% of the patients required mechanical ventilation respectively. The increasing severity of inhalation injuries has been consistently shown to be associated with mechanical ventilation. However, in this study, total body surface area (TBSA) had a mean value (17.05) and SD (14.02) as showed in Table (3-2). The present study was consistent with a study accomplished by Mulatu *et al.* (2022), who found a total body surface area with a mean value (15.49%) and a standard deviation (13.78%). on contrast a study by Harish *et al.* (2019) who showed that the mean TBSA was $1.9 \pm 2.1\%$.

Also, in this study, length of hospital stay had a mean value (9.31) and SD (4.36), as clarified in Table 3-2. It was in the same line with study conducted by Baraka *et al.* (2023), who found that the mean length of hospital stay was 9 days with a standard deviation of (5.7), the minimum was 3 days and the maximum was 28. The current study is inconsistent with the study conducted by Sari *et al.*, (2024) who reported that the mean length of hospital stay was 10.29 ± 9.59 (minimum 1–maximum 74) days. The differences noted in the length of hospital stay in comparison to those seen in other studies are possibly because of the differences in the characteristics of the study participants, age, depth, size of burn, and other burn-specific characteristics may be affecting the length of hospital stay.

4.3. The degrees of burn severity in the patients group

The results of the current study in Tables (3–3) showed that the highest percentage of burn degrees was in patients with second-degree burns (66.3%), followed by third-degree burns (25.3%), and the lowest percentage was in second+third degree burns with a percentage of 8.4%. This study agreed with a study in Cameroon conducted by Forbinake *et al.* (2020), who found that almost half (48.9) of all burns were 2nd degree. Also, a study by Babakir-Mina, (2017) showed that second-degree burns were the majority (72.6%), while third and mixed-degree burns were (27.4%). The current study differs from a study in Sulaimanyah accomplished by Abdilkarim (2022), who found (51%) of burn patients had second+third degree burns, while 38% were second and 11% were third degree burns. The longer burn

exposure times increase the possibility of prolonged skin-to-burn contact, which raises the degree of burn.

4.4. Bacterial culture results in patients

Gram-negative bacteria were the most frequently encountered bacteria in the present study (33.735%) compared to Gram-positive bacteria (8.434%), as demonstrated in Table (3-4). This study agreed with a study accomplished by Tchakal-Mesbahi, Abdouni, and Metref (2021) who revealed that Gram-negative bacteria were the most common bacteria isolated from burn wound swabs (68.95%), followed by Gram positive bacteria (28.62%). Also, the current study result is compatible with the results of other studies by Jobayer et al. (2021); Gomersall et al., (2023) and Abdilkarim (2022) which found that the Gram-negative bacterial isolate was more than Gram-positive bacteria. The results of the present study differed from study of Alam et al. (2021), who revealed that the presence of Grampositive and Gram-negative bacterial isolates were 68.8% and 66.0%, respectively. Another study in Turkey was accomplished by Durgun and Yiğit (2023), who found that the most common bacterial isolates were Grampositive bacteria (70.55%), followed by Gram-negative bacteria (28.68%). The variability in study populations and sample sizes amongst studies could be the reason for this unevenness.

A negative culture does not exclude a burn wound infection. Ganatra and Ganatra (2007) suggested that the reasons for "no growth" in burn wounds should be looked at with the possible causes of dry surface swabs in burn centers. Data from dry swabs are qualitative. In addition to being a lowcost method, it cannot distinguish between superficial contamination and deeper wound infection. Moreover, this subeschar space is not sampled by surface swab cultures, where the growth of microorganisms takes place before they invade the underlying living tissues. Even quantified swab cultures from the wound surface could contain false positives or false negatives due to erroneous counts.

4.5. Distribution of bacterial isolates in patients

In this study, the most common bacterial isolate from burn wounds was P. aeruginosa (31.43%), as shown in Figure (3-1). This study was in the same line as the study in Maysan by Hateet (2021), who found that Pseudomonas aeruginosa was the most common pathogen (20%), also other studies by Alwaeli (2021)., Ellithy et al. (2021) and Fatema et al. (2021), whose found that *P. aeruginosa* was the highest pathogen recovered from burn swabs. The remarkably high prevalence of *P. aeruginosa* in burn wounds may be due to the fact that the organism grows in a moist environment, and *P. aeruginosa* is known for its ability to resist killing by a variety of antimicrobials. In addition, the minimal nutritional requirements of P. aeruginosa, including its ability to grow in distilled water and its tolerance to a wide variety of physical conditions, contribute to its ecological success and ultimately to its role as an effective opportunistic pathogen (Ahmed, Al-Ghanimi and Abboud, 2014). Also, the pathogenicity of P. aeruginosa is mediated by its ability to create a wide range of virulence factors, which is bolstered by its inherent resilience to environmental stresses and xenobiotics, including antibiotics, antiseptics, and heavy metals. Based on this data, it has been established that these characteristics facilitate the pathogen's ability to achieve efficient invasion, colonization, and persistence within the host organism (Hateet, 2021). The results of the current study differed from the results reported in Baghdad by Al-Azzawi and Alkalifawi (2023), who showed that the predominant bacteria was Staphylococcus aureus (25%). Another study by Thomas, Arora, and Arora, (2022) who found that most common bacterial isolate was Klebsiella pneumoniae (27.43%) while Study conducted by Sheeba, Prathyusha, and Anila, (2024) showed that the most common bacterial isolate from burn wound

Chapter Four

was *Escherichia coli* (23%). This difference could be attributed to differences in age, distribution of populations and data analysis period.

However, the current study showed that the highest isolate rate was for P. aeruginosa bacteria with an isolate rate of (31.43%), followed by Klebsiella pneumonia with an isolated percentage of (20.00%) and the percentage of infection with Escherichia coli bacteria with an isolate rate of (14.29%), as clarified in Figure (3-1). This result was in agreement with a study by Kanagapriya et al., (2015), who found the percentage of isolates of P. aeruginosa, K. pneumonia and E. coli was 28%, 20%, and 8%, respectively. Also, a study by Jasim and Hussein, (2023) found that the most frequent isolate was P. aeruginosa (31.37%), followed by K. pneumonia (17.64%) and then *E coli* (15.68%), unlike a previous study in Kirkuk city by Al-Byti et al. (2019), who found an increase in the rate of isolation of Staphylococcus aureus (33.33%), followed by P. aeruginosa (31.81%), and E. coli (15.15%). The reason may be due to the number of samples that were included in the study or because, according to the geographical location, it varies from one location to another and from one hospital to another, as these bacteria were not found in this percentage in another hospital in the same city.

4.6. The relation of bacterial isolates to burn severity in patients' group

Tables (3-5) showed that patients with second-degree burns had more positive cultures isolated compared to the positive cultures isolated from patients with second+third degree and third-degree. The number of *P. aeruginosa and Klebsiella pneumonia*e from bacterial isolates were higher in patients with second+third degrees of burns compared to those with second and third degree of burns. Whereas, the number of *Escherichia coli*, *Staphylococcus aureus, Coagulase-negative staphylococcus, Staphylococcus epidermidis, Acinetobacter baumannii, Serratia liquefaciens, and Staphylococcus haemolyticus* were higher in patients with second-degree of burn compared with third and secod+third degree of burn. *Enterobacter aerogenes* was higher in patients with the third-degree compared with other degrees of burn. A study by Moghadam *et al.*, (2022) showed that patients with second-degree burns *P. aeruginosa, Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *Staphylococcus aureus* were isolated from 22.2%, 0%, and 11.1%, respectively, from burns. In addition, a study by Mohammed, (2022) showed that isolation of bacteria in patients with second-degree burns were *Enterobacter sp, P. aerugionsa* and *Klebseilla sp.* were (33%), (22%) and (12%) respectively.

4.7. The relation of bacterial isolates to sex in patients with bacterial infection

Table (3-6) showed that there were non significant differences (P=0.707) between males and females. The *P. aeruginosa* had a higher frequency in males (37.5%) compared to females (26.32%). This study was in the same line with a study by Qader, Solama, and Merza (2021), whose showed that *P. aeruginosa* isolated from males, accounting (60.4%) whereas (39.6%) of them were isolated from females. However, a study by Al-Azzawi and Alkalifawi, (2023) whose found that (11.66%) of isolates were males and 5% of *P. aeruginosa* were females. The current study is incompatible with a study in Duhok City by Polse *et al.* (2023), who found that (26.36%) were isolated from males and (38.18%) from females. There were statistically non-significant (P > 0.05) differences between both sexes. Also, the present study is in contrast to a study in Kirkuk City by Hasan, Najati, and Abass (2019), which found that *P. aeruginosa* was more prevalent among females than males (61.1%) and (38.9%), respectively.

On the other hand, in Table (3-6) the frequency of *Klebsiella pneumonia*e were higher in females (21.05%) compared to males (18.75%). This study, with the same line as the study in Al-Najaf city by Oda Alquraishi and Al-Fatlawi, (2020), showed that *Klebsiella pneumonia*e was higher in

females (60%) compared to males (40%). Also, the current study was in the same line with a study in Egypt by Ahmed *et al.* (2023), who found that females were higher (12,50%) compared to males (11.40%). On contrast, the study in Iran by Vaziri *et al.*, (2020) demonstrated that *K. pneumonia* isolates showed a prevalence of (57.9%) and (42.1%) for males and females, respectively.

However, in this study, the frequency of *Escherichia coli* was higher in males (18.75%) compared to females (10.53%), as illustrated in Table (3-6). This study agreed with a study by Ahmed *et al.* (2023), who found that *E coli* isolates were (8%) in males and (3,10%) in females. In contrast, a study in Kirkuk City by Magthab, (2023) who found that most of the patients infected with *E. coli* were females (71.43%) and males (28.57%). These discrepancies may be related to variations in the bacterial culture method and the different geographical settings of these studies.

4.8. The relation of bacterial isolates to age in patients with bacterial infection

In the present study, there was non significant difference (P=0.357) between bacterial isolates and ages in patients with bacterial infection. This study is in the same line as a study conducted by Gupta, Naik, and Singh (2019), who reported non significant differences in bacterial infection with age (P=0.212). *P. aeruginosa* isolates in patients with mean age (27.00) and a SD (15.96) as shown in Table (3-7). This study agreed with the study in Basra by Jalil, Abdul-Hussien, and Al-Hmudi (2017), who found that *P. aeruginosa* isolates had a mean age of 21.3 and a SD of 15.8 years; also, a study by Coetzee, Rode, and Kahn (2013) found that *P. aeruginosa* isolates had a mean age of 3 years. On the other hand, the current study revealed that *Klebsiella pneumonia* isolates patients with mean age (22.86) and SD (19.18). Other study by López-Camacho *et al.* (2014) who showed that *Klebsiella pneumonia* isolate had a mean and SD of 54.9+16.8, also, a study

by Vaziri *et al.* (2020) who reported that *Klebsiella pneumonia* isolate had a mean age of participants was (36.11) and SD (48.42). However, a study by Melake *et al.* (2016) showed that *Klebsiella pneumonia* isolates with mean value (54.32) and SD (19.12). However, the present study found the *Escherichia coli* isolate in patients with mean age (19.40) and a standard deviation (23.66). Other study by Loan and Viet, (2023) showed that *Escherichia coli* isolate had a mean age 69.93.

4.9. The detection of *MCP-1* gene (rs1024611) polymorphism in patients and control by conventional PCR

Two distinct areas located in the 5'-flanking domain of the *MCP-1* genes control the *MCP-1* transcription (Ueda *et al.*, 1994). The -2518 A/G (rs1024611) promoter polymorphisms affect the distal regulating region, which is upstream from the transcriptional starting site (1.9–2.7 kb) (Ping, Jones, and Boss, 1996). It is considered a strong candidate for a genetic vulnerability to a range of inflammatory disorders, such as sepsis (He *et al.*, 2017) and spontaneous bacterial peritonitis (Hassen *et al.*, 2022)

This study was our knowledge to explore the clinical relevance of a specific MCP-1 gene promoter polymorphism, rs1024611 (-2518 A>G), for burn wound infection in the Iraqi population. This study revealed an elevated AA genotype in patients compared to controls. However, the AG and GG genes were shown to be elevated in control compared to patients with a significant difference (P=0.008). The "A" allele showed an increase in patients compared with control, while the "G" allele increased in control when compared to patients with significant difference (P=0.001), as shown in Table (3-8). Rovin, Lu, and Saxena, (1999) originally reported this A-2518G polymorphism in MCP-1. Subsequently, numerous studies have linked this polymorphism to various diseases. For example, a study by Li *et al.* (2022) demonstrated the connection between the onset and progression of type 2 diabetes (T2DM) with sepsis and the rs1024611 polymorphism in

the MCP-1 promoter region. Their findings demonstrated that the T2DM with sepsis group had a considerably greater ratio of G allele frequency and rs1024611 AG/GG genotype frequency than the control group. However, study in China by He et al. (2017) showed that the frequency of the rs1024611 AG/GG genotyping within the septic group was significantly higher than in the control group (P=0.0001). The frequencies of the rs1024611 G alleles were more prevalent in sepsis patients relative to control (P=0.0004); a study in Egypt by Hassen *et al.* (2022), who found there were statistically highly significant variations between the tested groups (spontaneous bacterial peritonitis and control groups) among MCP-1 (-2518A/G) polymorphisms and statistically significant variations concerning alleles. Ascitic patients with the AG genotypes had a 5.24-fold increased risk of spontaneous bacterial peritonitis compared to those with the GG genotypes. Ascitic patients with the G allele were less likely to develop spontaneous bacterial infections. However, a study by Kim et al. (2012) found that between Behçet's disease patients and the control, there were no statistically significant variations in allele (G versus. A, with p=0.845) or genotype associated with the -2518 SNP in the MCP-1 gene (GG versus. GA versus. AA, p = 0.916). No clinical features were related to genotypes having the -2518 polymorphism for MCP-1. Also, in a study by Khan, Murthykumar, and Ganapathy (2023), they found that there was no statistically significant difference in the prevalence of the MCP-1 genotype compared to the control and periodontal groups. The AG and AA polymorphisms weren't more prevalent in the periodontitis group than in the group with healthy controls. The frequency of both A and G alleles remained the same in the periodontitis groups as in the healthy control group. These findings show that MCP-1 may not be a periodontal biomarker.

4.10. Genotype and allele frequency distribution of *MCP-1* gene polymorphism according to severity groups in patients with bacterial infection

the frequency distribution of MCP-1 According to gene polymorphism to burn severity in patients with bacterial infection. Patients with a second-degree showed a greater frequency of the AA gene compared to those with other severity degrees. While AG genotypes were shown to be present at greater prevalence in patients with second+ third degree, the GG genotype was identified as occurring at a greater occurrence in patients with third degree., with non significant difference (P=0.323). Also, the "A" variant frequency increased in patients second degree compared with the G allele, which was higher in the third degree with a significant difference (P=0.037), as shown in the Table (3-9). Other studies, such as a study by He et al. (2017), showed that those with mild sepsis had genotype distributions based on the rs1024611 polymorphism that were found to be significantly distinct from those who had septic shock (P=0.010) and severe sepsis (P=0.0005). The subgroups for septic shock and severe sepsis showed dominant frequencies of the rs1024611 G alleles, compared to the mild septic group. This observation suggests that the rs1024611 A>G allele contributes to the progression from mild sepsis to severe sepsis/septic shock. Also study by Li et al. (2022) found that the occurrence of the rs1024611G allele within the type 2 diabetes. with septic shock was substantially higher than in the type 2 diabetes group. The rs1024611G allele, with the general sepsis group (P =0.02), might have an influence on the development of type 2 diabetes, from sepsis in generalized sepsis to septic shock after infection. Patients with T2DM who had sepsis with GA/GG genotypes had significantly higher acute physiological and chronic health evaluation II scores compared to those with AA genotypes (P < 0.05). However, a study by Kim *et al.* (2012) revealed that in Behçet's disease in people who had moderate to severe lesions, the

incidence of either the GA or AA genotype was considerably higher than in those with the GG genotype (p = 0.044 and p = 0.038, respectively). The AA genotype had greater total severity ratings compared to the GG and GA genotypes. (p = 0.039 and p = 0.003, respectively). Furthermore, patients who had a GA or AA genotype scored higher compared to those with the GG genotype (p = 0.041).

4.11. Relation of MCP-1 genotypes according to bacterial culture results

Table (3-10) showed that patients with the GG genotype had more positive culture isolates compared to the positive cultures isolated from patients with the AA and AG genotypes. The number of P. aeruginosa, Acinetobacter baumannii and Serratia liquefaciens in the bacterial isolate was higher in patients with the AG genotype compared to the AA and GG genotypes. Whereas, number of Escherichia coli, Staphylococcus aureus, Coagulase-negative Staphylococcus and Staphylococcus haemolyticus were higher in patients with the AA genotype compared with the AG and GG genotypes. Klebsiella pneumoniae, Enterobacter aerogenes and Staphylococcus epidermidis were higher in patients with GG genotype compared with other genotypes. There was non significant difference (P=0.453) according to bacterial culture results for MCP-1 genotypes. A study in India about spontaneous bacterial peritonitis by Murthy *et al*, (2021) showed that the patients with AG/GG genotypes had a higher yield of positive ascitic fluid culture positivity (20%) than those with the AA genotype (7.7%), the Gram-negative organisms were predominant in both groups, and Gram-positive organisms were found only in patients with AG/GG genotypes in this study. In patients with AG/GG and AA genotypes, the numbers of *Escherichia coli* were 5 and 2, respectively, also numbers of Klebsiella pneumoniae were 3 and 1 respectively and number of Coagulasenegative staphylococci were 2 and 0, respectively.

4.12. The antibiotic susceptibility test for *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*

In this study, 100% of isolates were susceptible to Colistin, as shown in Table (3-11). This result was consistent with other studies by AL-Fridawy, Al-Daraghi, and Alkhafaji, (2020); Barzelighi *et al.* (2020), Kumar *et al.* (2020); Raheem and Hussein (2022) whose found that (100%) of the isolates were susceptible to Colistin. A study by Cai *et al.* (2018) who demonstrated the efficacy of this antibiotic in treating infections brought on by multidrug-resistant *P. aeruginosa.* Bassetti *et al.* (2019) suggested that the use of polymyxins (Colistin) should be adjusted for dosage and indications in order to minimize side effects, increase efficacy, and stop additional polymyxin resistance from developing.

On the other hand, the results of the present study showed that 100% of the isolates were resistant to Gentamicin, Tobramycin and Amikacin compatible with a study by Barzelighi *et al.* (2020), who found that 100% of the isolates were resistant to Gentamicin and Tobramycin. Also, the present results were much higher than those of the study by Mohamed, Mohamed and Afifi, (2022) whose demonstrated that *P. aeruginosa* resistant to the Aminoglycoside group by (66.7%), (74.4%) and (74.4%) to Amikacin, Gentamycin and Tobramycin, respectively. *P. aeruginosa* frequently develops resistance to aminoglycosides through the acquisition of aminoglycoside-modifying enzyme genes as well as mutations in the *parRS*, *fusA1, mexZ, and armZ* genes (Atassi *et al.*, 2023).

However, 100% of the isolates were resistant to Ceftazidime and Cefepime. This study was in the same line with the previous studies carried out by Al-Janahi *et al*, (2020); Alkhudhairy and Azeez (2022), and Jasim and Hussein (2023), which showed an excessive rate of resistance to Ceftazidime and Cefepime reported in (100%) of *P arruginosa* isolates. The present results were much higher than those reported in Bakistan by Ismail and Altaai

(2021), who found that the *P. aeruginosa* isolates displayed resistance to Cefepime (77.55%) and Ceftazidime (48.96%).

Also in this study, 100% of the isolates were resistant to Imepenem and Meropenem. The present results were much higher than those reported in Baghdad by Jasim and Hussein (2023), who showed that Imipenem and Meropenem resistance were (52.08%) and (79.18%) respectively.

In addition, in this study, 100% of the isolates were resistant to Ticracillin, Piperacillin, and Ticarcillin/Clavulanic. This study was in the same line as a study by Attiah, Majeed, and Mohammed (2021), who reported that the highest MIC of the antibiotics was (90%) for Ticarcillin, (96%) for Ticarcillin/Clavulanic acid, and (96%) for Piperacillin.

Furthermore, in this study, 100% of the isolates were resistant to Ciprofloxacin. This study agreed with a study by Barzelighi *et al.* (2020), who found that about (98.5%) of *P. aeruginosa* isolates were resistant to ciprofloxacin. *P. aeruginosa* resistance to fluoroquinolones, including Ciprofloxacin, is a result of efflux pump effects or chromosomal mutations (Nabilou, Babaeekhou, and Ghane, 2021). Patients are exposed to various antibiotics due to the elevated prevalence rate of *P. aeruginosa*, which results in the development of multidrug resistance (Ullah *et al.*, 2023).

Conclusions and Recommendations

Conclusions:

1- The present study showed that the highest risk groups were males and ages less than 11 years. The main burn etiology was hot liquid (scalds). Seconddegree burns were prevalent in burn patients.

2- It was observed that *P. aeruginosa* was the dominant and most prevalent type in burn wound patients compared to other bacterial species. The antibiotic colistin may be an effective choice of drug in cases of resistance of *P. aeruginosa* to polymyxins, a class of antibiotics.

3- The result of this study has shown that in patients, the AA genotype was higher than in controls. Therefore, the *MCP-1* gene (rs1024611) polymorphism may have a protective role in burn wound bacterial infection.

Recommendations:

The current study recommends the following.

1- A drug combination regimen must be achieved due to resistance to multiple agents.

2-For a better understanding of the role and association of the *MCP-1*gene (rs1024611) polymorphism in burn wound infection, more research is needed with larger sample size and different population.

3-Other studies are required to examine the association between other SNPs of the *MCP-1* gene and other genes such as *CCL7* and *CCL11* polymorphism with burn wound infection.

References

- Abdilkarim, D.A. (2022). Medical Investigation and Clinical Changes in the Early Phases of Post Burn Adult Inpatients as Indicators for Prompt Infection Diagnosis, in the Hospital for Burn and Plastic Surgery, Sulaimanyah, Iraq: Medical Investigation and Clinical Changes in the Early Phases of Post Burn Adult Inpatients. *Iraqi National Journal of Medicine*, 4(1), 1-14.
- Agbenorku, P., Akpaloo, J., Aboah, K., Klutsey, E., Hoyte-Williams, P. E., Farhat, B. and *et al*, (2015). Chemical burn injury in Kumasi: the trend and complications following and their management. *Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery–Global Open*, 3(10), e548.
- Aghaei, A., Mehrabi, Y., Ramezankhani, A., and Soori, H. (2018). Factors related to pediatric burn in Iran: A case-control study. *International Journal of Pediatrics*, 6(6), 7823-7832.
- Ahmed, E. F., Rasmi, A. H., Darwish, A. M., and Gad, G. F. M. (2023). Prevalence and resistance profile of bacteria isolated from wound infections among a group of patients in upper Egypt: a descriptive cross-sectional study. *BMC Research Notes*, 16(1), 106-1016.
- Ahmed, M.M., Al-Ghanimi, N.H. and Abboud,Z.H. (2014). An insight into bacterial profile and antimicrobial susceptibility of burn wound infections in Kerbala, Iraq. *Kerbala Journal of Medicine*, 7(2), 2023-2032
- Akelma, H. and Karahan, Z. A. (2019). Rare chemical burns: review of the literature. *International wound journal*, 16(6), 1330-1338.
- Al Laham, N. A., Elmanama, A. A. and Tayh, G. A. (2013). Possible risk factors associated with burn wound colonization in burn units of Gaza strip hospitals, Palestine. *Annals of burns and fire disasters*, 26(2), 68-75.
- Alam, M. M., Islam, M. N., Hawlader, M. D. H., Ahmed, S., Wahab, A., Islam, M., *et al* (2021). Prevalence of multidrug resistance bacterial

isolates from infected wound patients in Dhaka, Bangladesh: a crosssectional study. *International Journal of Surgery Open*, 28, 56-62.

- Al-Azzawi, M. H., and Alkalifawi, E. J. A. (2023). Detection of Bacteria Causing Burn Infection Isolated from Several Hospitals in Baghdad. *Ibn AL-Haitham Journal For Pure and Applied Sciences*, 36(3), 1-8.
- Al-Byti, A. M., SA, C., AA, W., and MA, A. (2019). Study of isolated bacteria from burn wound of patients attended Plastic Surgery and Burns Unit. *Indian Journal of Forensic Medicine and Toxicology*, 13(4), 1462-1466.
- AL-Fridawy, R. A. K., Al-Daraghi, W. A. H., and Alkhafaji, M. H. (2020). Isolation and Identification of Multidrug Resistance Among Clinical and Environmental *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* Isolates. *Iraqi journal of biotechnology*, 19(2), 37-45.
- Aljanaby, A. A. J. and Aljanaby, I. A. J. (2018). Prevalence of aerobic pathogenic bacteria isolated from patients with burn infection and their antimicrobial susceptibility patterns in Al-Najaf City, Iraq-a three-year cross-sectional study. *F1000Research*, 7, 1157 -1170
- Al-Janahi, H. C. L., Khalil, S. A., Almohana, A. M., and Al-sherees, H. A. A.
 (2020). DISSEMINATION OF NEW DELHI METALLO-B-LACTAMASE (*BLA*nmd) GENE IN *PSEUDOMONAS AERUGINOSA* ISOLATES FROM BURN CENTER IN NAJAF, IRAQ. *International Journal of Information Research and Review*, 7(9),7071-707.
- Alkhudhairy, M. K., and Azeez, M. A. (2022). Detection of Some Virulence Factors in Extended Spectrum Lactamase Producing-*Pseudomonas* aeruginosa Isolated from Wound Infections in Al-Najaf City, Iraq. NEUROQUANTOLOGY, 20(15), 1314-1329.
- Al-Mutairi, A. M., Labani, S., Alasmari, M. J., Alamri, M. S., Alqahtani, A.
 S., Albabtain, I., *et al* (2023). Burn injury characteristics and outcomes among pediatric and adult patients admitted to Ministry of National

Guard Health Affairs (MNGHA) hospitals in Saudi Arabia. *Burns* Open, 7(4), 146-152.

- Almutlaq, B. A., Jarman, A., Alfraihi, R., Albasher, G., Alotaibi, R. M., Alqahtani, A. S., *et al.* (2020). Skin burns in Saudi Arabia: causes, management, outcomes and quality of life after skin burns. *International journal of burns and trauma*, 10(2), 28-37.
- AL-Sabagh, F.S.H and Ghaima, K.K AL-Dabbagh A H.Sh. (2023). The antibacterial activity of LL-37 peptide against multidrug-resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* isolated from burn infections. *Revista Bionatura*, 8(1), 69-173.
- Al-Saffar, M. F. and Jarallah, E. M. (2019). Isolation and characterization of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* from Babylon province. *Biochemical and Cellular Archives*, 19(1), 203-209.
- Al-Shamsi, M and Othman, N. (2017). The epidemiology of burns in Basra, Iraq. *Annals of burns and fire disasters*, 30(3), 167-171.
- Alturki, A. (2021). Burn Wound Infections; A Review Article. *World Family Medicine*, 19(5), 111-116.
- Alwaeli, A. Z. (2021). Detection of the Some Dominant Aerobic Microorganisms in Burn Injury and Testing their Susceptibility for Different Antibiotics in Najaf. *Indian Journal of Forensic Medicine and Toxicology*, 15(1), 737-743.
- Atassi, G., Medernach, R., Scheetz, M., Nozick, S., Rhodes, N. J., Murphy-Belcaster, M., *et al* (2023). Genomics of aminoglycoside resistance in *pseudomonas aeruginosa* bloodstream infections at a United States Academic Hospital. *Microbiology Spectrum*, 11(3), 05087-05022.
- Atlas, R. M. (2010). Hanbook of Microbiological Media. CRC; 4th ed. United State of America,2056
- Attiah, S. A., Majeed, G. H., and Mohammed, T. K. (2021). Molecular Detection of the *exoU* and *toxA* genes among *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*
of patients with burn and wound infection in Baghdad City. *Annals of the Romanian Society for Cell Biology*, 25(6), 109-122.

- Azam, M. W., and Khan, A. U. (2019). Updates on the pathogenicity status of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. *Drug discovery today*, 24(1), 350-359.
- Babakir-Mina, M. (2017). Characteristics of burn injury and factors in relation to infection among pediatric patients. *MOJ Gerontol Geriatr*, 1(3), 57-66.
- Bagheri, T., Fatemi, M., Far, S. A., Rahbar, A., Asgari, M., Hoveidamanesh, S., et al. (2022). Investigation of common burn mechanisms, and training and safety conditions in the workplace. Annals of burns and fire disasters, 35(3), 179-185.
- Bailey, M., Sagiraju, H., Mashreky, S. and Alamgir, H. (2019). Epidemiology and outcomes of burn injuries at a tertiary burn care center in Bangladesh. *Burns*, 45(4), 957-963.
- Baraka, S. M., Kiswezi, A., Edyedu, I., Molen, F. S., Muhumuza, J., Kyomukama, L., *et al* (2023). Length of hospital stay and its predictors among burn patients in a resource limited setting; a multicenter prospective cohort. *Research Square*,1,(3)1-11.
- Barry, N. P., Jackson, S. R., D'Jamirze, A., Gates, R. J., Maitz, P. K. and Issler-Fisher, A. (2023). Cold burns as a result of cosmetic cryolipolysis: An emerging concern from the NSW Statewide Burn Injury Service. Journal of Plastic, Reconstructive and Aesthetic Surgery, 76, 289-291.
- Barzelighi, H. M., Bakhshi, B., Daraei, B., Fazeli, H., and Nasr Esfahani, B. (2020). Global Sequence Analysis and Expression of Azurin Gene in Different Clinical Specimens of Burn Patients with *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* Infection. *Infection and Drug Resistance*, 13(2), 2261-2275

- Basaran, A., and Ozlu, O. (2020). Inpatient data of occupational burn injuries treated at a tertiary burn center. *Journal of Burn Care and Research*, 41(2), 398-401.
- Bassetti, M., Peghin, M., Vena, A., and Giacobbe, D. R. (2019). Treatment of infections due to MDR Gram-negative bacteria. *Frontiers in medicine*, 6 (74)1-10.
- Bayuo, J. and Botchway, A. E. (2017). Burns among older persons: A narrative review. *Burns Open*, 1(1), 2-8.
- Becker, G., Brusco, I., Casoti, R., Marchiori, M. C. L., Cruz, L., Trevisan, G., and *et al* (2020). Copaiba oleoresin has topical antinociceptive activity in a UVB radiation-induced skin-burn model in mice. *Journal of ethnopharmacology*, 250, 112476-112486.
- Blom, L., Klingberg, A., Laflamme, L., Wallis, L. and Hasselberg, M. (2016). Gender differences in burns: A study from emergency centres in the Western Cape, South Africa. *Burns*, 42(7), 1600-1608.
- Blome-Eberwein, S., Amani, H., Lozano, D., Gogal, C., Boorse, D. and Pagella, P. (2021). A bio-degradable synthetic membrane to treat superficial and deep second degree burn wounds in adults and children– 4year experience. *Burns*, 47(4), 838-846.
- Blomquist, K. C. and Nix, D. E. (2021). A critical evaluation of newer βlactam antibiotics for treatment of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* infections. *Annals of Pharmacotherapy*, 55(8), 1010-1024.
- Bonnet, M., Lagier, J. C., Raoult, D. and Khelaifia, S. (2020). Bacterial culture through selective and non-selective conditions: the evolution of culture media in clinical microbiology. *New microbes and new infections*, 34, 100622.
- Boyd, A., Hartman, B., Sood, R. and Walroth, T. (2019). A voltage-based analysis of fluid delivery and outcomes in burn patients with electrical injuries over a 6-year period. *Burns*, 45(4), 869-875.

- Benson, H.J., 2002. *Microbiological applications: a laboratory manual in general microbiology*. McGraw-Hill.
- Burgess, M., Valdera, F., Varon, D., Kankuri, E. and Nuutila, K. (2022). The immune and regenerative response to burn injury. *Cells*, 11(19), 3073-3084
- Cai, Y., Yang, D., Wang, J., and Wang, R. (2018). Activity of colistin alone or in combination with rifampicin or meropenem in a carbapenemresistant bioluminescent *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* intraperitoneal murine infection model. *Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy*, 73(2), 456-461.
- Camponogara, C. and Oliveira, S. M. (2022). Are TRPA1 and TRPV1 channel-mediated signalling cascades involved in UVB radiation-induced sunburn? *Environmental Toxicology and Pharmacology*, 92, 103836-103844
- Carrougher, G. J., and Pham, T. N. (2024). Burn size estimation: A remarkable history with clinical practice implications. *Burns Open*.8(2), 47-52
- Chadha, J., Harjai, K. and Chhibber, S. (2022). Revisiting the virulence hallmarks of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*: a chronicle through the perspective of quorum sensing. *Environmental Microbiology*, 24(6), 2630-2656.
- Chauhan, R., Aundhakar, C. and Patil, C. (2023). Assessment of risk factors of Cooking-related burn injury among children. *Pakistan Heart Journal*, 56(2), 96-100
- Chen, L., He, X., Xian, J., Liao, J., Chen, X., Luo, Y., *et al.* (2021). Development of a framework for managing severe burns through a 17year retrospective analysis of burn epidemiology and outcomes. *Scientific reports*, 11(1), 9374-9385

- Coetzee, E., Rode, H., and Kahn, D. (2013). Pseudomonas aeruginosa burn wound infection in a dedicated paediatric burns unit. South African Journal of Surgery, 51(2), 50-53.
- Gomersall, J., Mortimer, K., Hassan, D., Whitehead, K. A., Slate, A. J., Ryder, S. F., *et al.* (2023). Ten-year analysis of bacterial colonisation and outcomes of major burn patients with a focus on *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. *Microorganisms*, 12(1), 42-54.
- Cook, K. A., Martinez-Lozano, E., Sheridan, R., Rodriguez, E. K., Nazarian,
 A., and Grinstaff, M. W. (2022). Hydrogels for the management of second-degree burns: currently available options and future promise. *Burns and trauma*, 10, 47-64.
- Custovic, A., Smajlovic, J. and Dzafic, F. (2020). Epidemiological surveillance of endogenous and exogenous nosocomial infections, *Journal of Turgut Ozal Medical Center* 27(4)1172-1178
- De Sousa, T., Hébraud, M., Dapkevicius, M. L. E., Maltez, L., Pereira, J. E., Capita, R., et al. (2021). Genomic and Metabolic Characteristics of the Pathogenicity in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 22(23), 12892-12920.
- Di, H., Xia, T. Y., Zhang, M., Guo, H., Cao, D., Xie, J., et al. (2022).
 Reconstruction of Giant Defects Due to Electrical and Radiation Burns in the Lower Leg with Free Anterolateral Thigh Flaps. Journal of Plastic, Reconstructive and Aesthetic Surgery, 75(5), 1596-1601.
- Diggle, S. P., and Whiteley, M. (2020). Microbe Profile: *Pseudomonas* aeruginosa.opportunistic pathogen and lab rat. *Microbiology*, 166(1), 30-33.
- Dimitrova, A. (2023). Factors determining the severity of thermal burns in childhood. *knowledge-International Journal*, 57(4), 597-601.
- Ding, H., Huang, M., Li, D., Lin, Y. and Qian, W. (2020). Epidemiology of electrical burns: a 10-year retrospective analysis of 376 cases at a burn

centre in South China. Journal of International Medical Research, 48(3), 1–10.

- Dubey, R. C and Maheshwari, D. K. (2023). *A textbook of Microbiology*. S. Chand Publishing.2.
- Durdu, T., Erdem, A. B., Çelikel, E., Selahattin, G. and ŞENER, A. (2022). Patients with third degree burns in an emergency department. *Archives* of Current Medical Research, 3(1), 36-42.
- Durgun, C., and Yiğit, E. (2023). Burn wound bacterial profile and antibiotic sensitivity results in Turkey's southeast region of Anatolia. *Dicle Tup Dergisi*, 50(2), 141-148.
- Eftekhari, H., Sadeghi, M., Mobayen, M., Esmailzadeh, M., Feizkhah, A., Lahiji, M. S., *et al.* (2023). Epidemiology of chemical burns: An 11year retrospective study of 126 patients at a referral burn centre in the north of Iran. *International wound journal*.20(7) 2788-2794.
- Eitas, T. K., Stepp, W., Sjeklocha, L., Long, C., Riley, C., Callahan, J., *et al.* (2017). Differential regulation of innate immune cytokine production through pharmacological activation of Nuclear Factor-Erythroid-2-Related Factor 2 (NRF2) in burn patient immune cells and monocytes. *PloS one*, 12(9), 184164-184178
- Ellithy, M., Mitwally, H., Saad, M., Mathias, R., Shaukat, A., Elzeer, H., *et al.* (2021). Mortality incidence among critically ill burn patients infected with multidrug-resistant organisms: A retrospective cohort study. *Scars, burns and healing*, 7(3), 1–8.
- Elrod, J., Schiestl, C. M., Mohr, C. and Landolt, M. A. (2019). Incidence, severity and pattern of burns in children and adolescents: an epidemiological study among immigrant and Swiss patients in Switzerland. *Burns*, 45(5), 1231-1241.

- Fakhry, A. K., and Aljanabi, A. O. (2024). The Effect of *Pseudomonas* Infection with Burns Patients. *Journal of Current Medical Research* and Opinion, 7(02), 2135-2157
- Fatema, K., Sultana, S., Ali, M. H., Akter, T and Islam, S. (2021). Detection of pathogenic microorganisms from burn patients admitted in Tertiary Medical College Hospital and their antimicrobial patterns. *Open Journal of Medical Microbiology*, 11(1), 58-67.
- Forbinake, N. A., Ohandza, C. S., Fai, K. N., Agbor, V. N., Asonglefac, B.K., Aroke, D., *et al* (2020). Mortality analysis of burns in a developing country: a Cameroonian experience. *BMC Public Health*, 20(1), 1-6.
- Galmozzi, E., Menico, B. D., Rametta, R., Dongiovanni, P., Fracanzani, A.
 L., Benedan, L., *et al*, (2011). A tetra-primer amplification refractory mutation system polymerase chain reaction for the evaluation of rs12979860 IL28B genotype. *Journal of Viral Hepatitis*, 18(9), 628-630.
- Ganatra, M. A., and Ganatra, H. A. (2007). Method of quantitative bacterial count in burn wound. *Pakistan Journal of Medical Sciences*, 23(3), 415-419.
- Gandhi, G., Parashar, A. and Sharma, R. K. (2022). Epidemiology of electrical burns and its impact on quality of life-the developing world scenario. *World journal of critical care medicine*, 11(1), 58-69.
- Gatea, A., Nedjat, S. and Yekaninejad, M. S. (2019). Reasons and experiences of self-inflicted burns among women in reproductive age in Baghdad, Iraq: a qualitative study. *International journal of burns and trauma*, 9(3), 73-81.
- Giretzlehner, M., Ganitzer, I. and Haller, H. (2021). Technical and medical aspects of burn size assessment and documentation. *Medicina*, 57(3), 242-258

- Glen, K. A. and Lamont, I. L. (2021). β-lactam resistance in *Pseudomonas* aeruginosa: Current status, future prospects. *Pathogens*, 10(12), 1638-1670
- Goodarzi, M., Reisi-Dehkordi, N., Daryabeigi, R., and Zargham-Boroujeni,
 A. (2014). An epidemiologic study of burns: Standards of care and patients' outcomes. *Iranian journal of nursing and midwifery research*, 19(4), 385-289.
- Green, L. H., and Goldman, E. (Eds.). (2021). *Practical handbook of microbiology*. CRC press.
- Gupta, A., Soni, R., and Ganguli, M. (2021). Frostbite-manifestation and mitigation. *Burns Open*, 5(3), 96-103.
- Gupta, M., Chaturvedi, R., and Jain, A. (2013). Role of *monocyte* chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1) as an immune-diagnostic biomarker in the pathogenesis of chronic periodontal disease. Cytokine, 61(3), 892-897.
- Gupta, M., Naik, A. K., and Singh, S. K. (2019). Bacteriological profile and antimicrobial resistance patterns of burn wound infections in a tertiary care hospital. *Heliyon*, 5(12),2405-8440.
- Haller, H. L., Dirnberger, J., Giretzlehner, M., Rodemund, C. and Kamolz, L. (2009). "Understanding burns": research project Burn Case 3D—overcome the limits of existing methods in burns documentation. *Burns*, 35(3), 311-317.
- Hameed, I. H., Ibraheam, I. A. and Fakhir, F. D. (2019). Severe Injury of Burns: Retrospective Study in a Teaching Hospital-Iraq. *Prof. RK Sharma*, 13(1), 384-389.
- Harats, M., Ofir, H., Segalovich, M., Visentin, D., Givon, A., Peleg, K., *et al.* (2019). Trends and risk factors for mortality in elderly burns patients: a retrospective review. *Burns*, 45(6), 1342-1349.

- Harish, V., Tiwari, N., Fisher, O. M., Li, Z., and Maitz, P. K. (2019). First aid improves clinical outcomes in burn injuries: evidence from a cohort study of 4918 patients. *Burns*, 45(2), 433-439.
- Harrigan, W. F and McCance, M. E. (2014). Laboratory methods in *microbiology*. Academic press
- Harvanová, G., Duranková, S., and Bernasovská, J. (2023). The role of cytokines and chemokines in the inflammatory response. *Alergologia Polska-Polish Journal of Allergology*, 10(3), 210-219.
- Hasan, H. K. and Al-Humairi, A. K. (2022). Sociodemographic characteristics and fate of hospitalized burned patients in Al-Hilla city. *Medical Journal of Babylon*, 19(4), 547-553.
- Hasan, S. A., Najati, A. M. and Abass, K. S. (2019). Isolation and identification of multi-drug resistant" *pseudomonas aeruginosa*" from burn wound infection in Kirkuk City, Iraq. *EurAsian Journal of BioSciences*, 13(2), 1045-1050.
- Hassen, R. M., Elnemr, S. A., Pasha, H. F., Khafagy, A. S. A., and Mohammed, A. S. (2022). Genetic Polymorphisms of Monocyte Chemotactic Protein-1 and Risk of Spontaneous Bacterial Peritonitis in Post Hepatitis C Cirrhotic Patients. *The Egyptian Journal of Hospital Medicine*, 87(1), 1517-1522
- Hateet, R. (2021). Isolation and Identification of Some Bacteria Contemn in Burn Wounds in Misan, Iraq. Archives of Razi Institute, 76(6), 1665-1670.
- He, J. J., McCarthy, C., and Camci-Unal, G. (2021). Development of hydrogel-based sprayable wound dressings for second-and third-degree burns. *Advanced nanobiomed research*, 1(6), 2100004-2100025.
- He, J., Chen, Y., Lin, Y., Zhang, W., Cai, Y., Chen, F., and *et al.* (2017). Association study of *MCP-1* promoter polymorphisms with the

susceptibility and progression of sepsis. *PLoS One*, 12(5), 0176781-176793.

- He, S., Yao, L., and Li, J. (2023). Role of MCP-1/CCR2 axis in renal fibrosis: Mechanisms and therapeutic targeting. *Medicine*, 102(42), 35613-35621.
- Hebron, C., Mehta, K., Stewart, B., Price, P. and Potokar, T. (2022).Implementation of the World Health Organization Global BurnRegistry: Lessons Learned. *Annals of Global Health*, 88(1),34-44.
- Hendrickson, C., Linden, K., Kreyer, S., Beilman, G., Scaravilli, V., Wendorff, D., *et al.* (2019). 1H-NMR metabolomics identifies significant changes in metabolism over time in a porcine model of severe burn and smoke inhalation. *Metabolites*, 9(7), 142 -156
- Holm, S., Engström, O., Petäjä, I., and Huss, F. (2021). Does the estimation of burn extent at admission differ from the assessment at discharge. *Scars, burns and healing*, 7(2), 1–13
- Horna, G. and Ruiz, J. (2021). Type 3 secretion system of *Pseudomonas* aeruginosa. Microbiological research, 246, 126719-12735
- Hu, Y., Yu, B., Jia, Y., Lei, M., Li, Z., Liu, H., *et al.* (2023). Hyaluronate-and gelatin-based hydrogels encapsulating doxycycline as a wound dressing for burn injury therapy. *Acta Biomaterialia*, 164(3), 151-158.
- Huang, M., Cai, S. and Su, J. (2019). The pathogenesis of sepsis and potential therapeutic targets. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 20(21), 5376-5407
- Ismaeil, T., Alramahi, G., Othman, F., Mumenah, N., Alotaibi, L., Baazim, H., et al (2020). Survival analysis of mechanically ventilated patients in the burn unit at king abdulaziz medical city in Riyadh 2016-2019. *International journal of burns and trauma*, 10(4), 169-173.

- Ismail, S. T., and Altaai, M. I. N. (2021). Study *ndvB* gene expression in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* producing biofilm. *Prof. (Dr) RK Sharma*, 21(1), 961-665.
- Jalil, M.B., Abdul-Hussien, Z.R. and Al-Hmudi, H.A., 2017. Isolation and identification of multi drug resistant biofilm producer Pseudomonas aeruginosa from patients with burn wound infection in Basra province/Iraq. *International Journal of Development Research*, 7(11), pp.17258-17262.
- Jasim, A. K., and Hussein, A. A. (2023). Effect nanoparticles zirconium on bacteria growth multidrug resistance *pseudomonas aerginosa* isolated from burns patients. *In BIO Web of Conferences*. 65(4), 5047-5056.
- Jeschke, M. G., van Baar, M. E., Choudhry, M. A., Chung, K. K., Gibran, N. S. and Logsetty, S. (2020). Burn injury. *Nature Reviews Disease Primers*, 6(1), 11-36
- Jobayer, M., Rahman, M., Akter, N., Shareef, N., Rana, R. A., and Shamsuzzaman, S. M. (2021). Organisms isolated from wound swab and pus with their antibiotic susceptibility pattern in a tertiary care hospital in Bangladesh.: Antibiogram of organisms from wound infection. *Bangladesh Medical Research Council Bulletin*, 47(2), 181-187.
- Johari, M. G., Mohammadi, A. A. and Dastgerdi, V. (2019). Burn: a predictable but preventable tragedy in epileptic patients. *World journal of plastic surgery*, 8(2), 254-258.
- Kadhim, T. A., Al Sa'ady, A. T., Khayoon, H. A., Hameed, D. M., Hussain,
 S. S., Kareem, A. S., *et al.* (2023). The Bacterial Contamination in the
 Burn Unit of Al-Hussain Teaching Hospital at Al-Samawa City, Iraq. *Medical Journal of Babylon*, 20(2), 357-361.

- Kanagapriya, M., Pandiyaraja, S., Sucilathangam, G., and Revathy, C. (2015). Aerobic bacterial isolates in burns patients and their antibiogram. *Paripex-Indian Journal of Research*, 4(7), 357-360.
- Karim, A. S., Shaum, K. and Gibson, A. L. (2020). Indeterminate-depth burn injury—exploring the uncertainty. *Journal of surgical research*, 245(2), 183-197.
- Khammarnia, M., Ansari-Moghaddam, A., Barfar, E., Ansari, H., Abolpour, A., Setoodehzadeh, F., *et al.* (2021). Systematic review and metaanalysis of hospital acquired infections rate in a middle east country (1995-2020). *Medical Journal of the Islamic Republic of Iran*, 35, 102-111.
- Khan, H. L. A., Murthykumar, K and Ganapathy, D. (2023). Genetic Association of the CC Motif Chemokine Ligand 2 (*CCL2*) rs1024611
 Polymorphism with Periodontitis. *Cureus*, 15(10), 46438-46446.
- Kim, S.-K., Jang, W.-C., Ahn, Y.-C., Lee, S.-H., Lee, S.-S., and Hur, J.-W. (2012). Promoter–2518 single nucleotide polymorphism of monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 is associated with clinical severity in Behçet's disease. *Inflammation Research*, 61, 541-545.
- Kirschbaum-Rubin, S., Flores-Ortega, D., Navarro-Murgueytio, W., and Lucchetti-Rodríguez, A. (2021). Suspected Inhalation Injury and other Factors related to Mortality in Hospitalized Burn Patients in Peru. *Dominio de las Ciencias*, 7(3), 822-834.
- Koh, D.-H., Lee, S.-G. and Kim, H.-C. (2017). Incidence and characteristics of chemical burns. *Burns*, 43(3), 654-664.
- Kour, A., Jaglan, S., Sharma, S., and Sharma, S. (2023). A new strategy to treat *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* infected burn wounds: Antimicrobial cocktails as potent topical therapy. *Medical Hypotheses*, 180, 11167-11175

- Kumar, A., Das, S., Anjum, N., Oraon, V., and Das, S. (2020). Antimicrobial susceptibility pattern of extended spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL) and non ESBL producing *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, isolated from pus samples from a tertiary care hospital in Bihar. *International Journal of Current Microbiology and Applied Sciences*, 9(6), 3646-3655
- Lachowski, F., Bernecka, P., Pruska, A., Ossowska, D., Łątkowska, A., Błażyńska-Spychalska, A., *et al.* (2023). Epidemiology of burns at the University Clinical Center in Gdańsk in 2017-2022. *Burns Open.*7(3)89-93
- Laggner, M., Lingitz, M.-T., Copic, D., Direder, M., Klas, K., Bormann, D., et al. (2022). Severity of thermal burn injury is associated with systemic neutrophil activation. *Scientific reports*, 12(1), 1654-1664
- Lami, F. H., and Al Naser, R. K. (2019). Epidemiological characteristics of burn injuries in Iraq: A burn hospital-based study. *Burns*, 45(2), 479-483.
- Lanham, J. S., Nelson, N. K., Hendren, B., and Jordan, T. S. (2020). Outpatient burn care: prevention and treatment. *American family physician*, 101(8), 463-470.
- Lee, J. O. (2023). Essential Burn Care for Non-Burn Specialists, Springer Nature
- Li, H., Tan, J., Zhou, J., Yuan, Z., Zhang, J., Peng, Y., et al. (2017). Wound management and outcome of 595 electrical burns in a major burn center. *Journal of surgical research*, 214, 182-189.
- Li, Y., He, J., Shao, Y.-m., Chen, L., Li, M., Tang, D et al. (2022). Study on the association between the polymorphism of MCP-1 rs1024611 and the genetic susceptibility of type 2 diabetes with sepsis. *Medicine*, 101(32), 29903-29910.
- Lin, C., Wang, Z., Shen, L., Yi, G., Li, M. and Li, D. (2021). Genetic variants, circulating level of *MCP1* with risk of chronic obstructive pulmonary

disease: a case-control study. *Pharmacogenomics and Personalized Medicine*,14(2), 561-567.

- Little, S. (1995). Amplification-refractory mutation system (ARMS) analysis of point mutations. *Current protocols in human genetics*, 7(1), 8-9.
- Lixia, W., Weimin, W., Yunbo, J., Bo, Z., Lei, W., Yapeng, L., et al. (2021). Flame Burn Injury in Yichang of China: the Trends, Complications, and Risk Factor Analysis. *Chinese Journal of Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery*, 3(1), 17-26.
- Loan, V. T. T., and Viet, N. T. (2023). Characterization of Escherichia coli isolated from burn and chronic wound patients in Le Huu Trac National Burns Hospital. *Tap chi Y hoc Tham hoa và Bong*, (6), 27-33.
- Lodish, H.; Berk, A. and Matsudaira, P. (2004). *Mol. cell boil*. 5th ed. W.H. Freeman: *New York*: 978-980.
- López-Camacho, E., Gómez-Gil, R., Tobes, R., Manrique, M., Lorenzo, M., Galván, B., et al. (2014). Genomic analysis of the emergence and evolution of multidrug resistance during a *Klebsiella pneumoniae* outbreak including carbapenem and colistin resistance. *Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy*, 69(3), 632-636.
- Lukaszczyk, M., Pradhan, B., and Remaut, H. (2019). The biosynthesis and structures of bacterial pili. *Bacterial cell walls and membranes*, 92,369-413.
- MacFaddin J. F. (2000). Biochemical Tests For Identification of Medical Bacteria, 3rd Edition. Lippincott Williams and Williams Philadelphia, 113(7).
- Magthab, E. A. (2023). Molecular Analysis of Some Virulence Genes of *Escherichia Coli* Isolates from Wound and Burn Samples in Kirkuk City. Journal for Research in Applied Sciences and Biotechnology, 2(6), 19-24.

- Mahon, C. R and Lehman, D. C. (2022). Textbook of Diagnostic Microbiology-E-Book: Textbook of Diagnostic Microbiology-E-Book. Elsevier Health Sciences.
- Marín, L., Fioravanti, G., Cristaldo, E., Sereday, C. E., Merbilhaá, O. and Portas, M. (2020). Hyperbaric oxygen therapy for a pediatric electrical burn: A case report. *Burns Open*, 4(3), 137-139.
- Markiewicz-Gospodarek, A., Kozioł, M., Tobiasz, M., Baj, J., Radzikowska-Büchner, E. and Przekora, A. (2022). Burn wound healing: clinical complications, medical care, treatment, and dressing types: the current state of knowledge for clinical practice. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 19(3), 1338-1363
- Maslova, E., Eisaiankhongi, L., Sjöberg, F. and McCarthy, R. R. (2021). Burns and biofilms: priority pathogens and in vivo models. *npj Biofilms* and Microbiomes, 7(1), 73-92
- Mason, S., Gause, E., McMullen, K., Sibbett, S., Holavanahalli, R., Schneider, J., *et al.* (2023). Impact of community-level socioeconomic disparities on quality of life after burn injury: a Burn Model Systems Database study. *Burns*, 49(4), 861-869.
- Matsuura, H., Matsumoto, H., Osuka, A., Ogura, H., Shimizu, K., Kang, S. et al., (2019). Clinical importance of a cytokine network in major burns. Shock, 51(2), 185-193.
- Melake, N. A., Mahmoud, A. B., Elraghy, N. A., Labib, A. Z., Hassan, D. M., and Elbrolosy, A. M. (2016). Detection of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* carbapenemases and metallo-β-lactamases among *Klebsiella pneumoniae* isolates from hospitalized patients at Menoufia University Hospitals, Egypt. *Menoufia Medical Journal*, 29(4), 801-811.
- Meletis, G. and Bagkeri, M. (2013). Pseudomonas aeruginosa: Multi-drugresistance development and treatment options. Infection Control, 2(1), 34-45.

- Miller, N. (2023). Nursing assessment and care of major burn injuries. Nursing made Incredibly Easy, 21(1), 6-13.
- Mobayen, M. and Sadeghi, M. (2022). Prevalence and related factors of electrical burns in patients referred to Iranian medical centers: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *World journal of plastic surgery*, 11(1), 89-93.
- Mobayen, M., Zarei, R., Masoumi, S., Shahrousvand, M., Mazloum, S. M.
 H., Ghaed, Z., *et al.* (2021). Epidemiology of childhood burn: a 5-year retrospective study in the referral burn center of Northern Iran. *Caspian Journal of Health Research*, 6(3), 101-108.
- Moghadam, S. S., Momeni, M., Atabaki, S. M., Shabestari, T. M., Boustanshenas, M., Afshar, M., *et al* (2022). Topical Treatment of Second-Degree Burn Wounds with Lactobacillus plantarum Supernatant: Phase I Trial. *Iranian Journal of Pathology*, 17(4), 460-468.
- Mohamed, M. A., Mohamed, H. A., and Afifi, M. M. (2022). Prevalence of MDR *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in Intensive care units and burned patients. *Journal of Environmental Studies*, 27(1), 10-15.
- Mohammadi, A., Blesso, C. N., Barreto, G. E., Banach, M., Majeed, M., and Sahebkar, A. (2019). Macrophage plasticity, polarization and function in response to curcumin, a diet-derived polyphenol, as an immunomodulatory agent. *The Journal of nutritional biochemistry*, 66, 1-16.
- Mohammed, G. J. (2022). Bacterial Infections of Second-Degree Burns and their Antibiotic Resistance Patterns with Residence Time in Al-Hilla General Teaching Hospital, Iraq. *Journal of Coastal Life Medicine*, 10(1), 40-47.
- Mulatu, D., Zewdie, A., Zemede, B., Terefe, B and Liyew, B. (2022). Outcome of burn injury and associated factor among patient visited at

Addis Ababa burn, emergency and trauma hospital: a two years hospital-based cross-sectional study. *BMC emergency medicine*, 22(1), 1-14.

- Murari, A. and Singh, K. N. (2019). Lund and Browder chart-modified versus original: a comparative study. *Acute Crit Care*, 34(4), 276-281.
- Murray, P. R., Rosenthal, K. S., and Pfaller, M. A. (2020). Medical microbiology E-book. *Elsevier Health Sciences*, 9(2), 426-433.
- Murthy, K. V., Subrahmanian, M., Sairam, T., Leelakrishnan, V., and Sankaran, R. (2021). Cirrhotics with Monocyte Chemotactic Protein 1 Polymorphism are at Higher Risk for Developing Spontaneous Bacterial Peritonitis–A Cohort Study. *Journal of Clinical and Translational Research*, 7(3), 320-325
- Nabilou, M., Babaeekhou, L., and Ghane, M. (2021). Fluoroquinolone resistance contributing mechanisms and genotypes of ciprofloxacinunsusceptible *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strains in Iran: emergence of isolates carrying *qnr/aac* (6)-*Ib* genes. *International Microbiology*, 25, 405–415.
- Nasser, S., Mabrouk, A and Maher, A. (2003). Colonization of burn wounds in Ain Shams University burn unit. *Burns*, 29(3), 229-233.
- Nayek, S. (2019). A study on hospital acquired infection and prevention in CCU at College of Medicine and JNM Hospital. *IOSR Journal of Dental and Medical Sciences (IOSR-JDMS)*, 18(3), 51-72.
- Newton, C. R., Graham, A., Heptinstall, L. E., Powell, S. J., Summers, C., Kalsheker, N., *et al.* (1989). Analysis of any point mutation in DNA. The amplification refractory mutation system (ARMS). *Nucleic acids research*, 17(7), 2503-2516.
- Obaid, E. M and Baiee, H. A. (2022). Epidemiological and clinical characteristics of burn injuries among hospitalized patients in Babylon Province. *Medical Journal of Babylon*, 19(1), 9-14.

- Obaid, E. M., Baiee, H. A., and Ismail, I. S. (2020). Aspects of fatal burn injury cases admitted to Al–Sadiq Teaching Hospital, Babylon Province/Iraq during 2020. *Medico-legal Update*, 20(4), 661-667.
- Obed, D., Schroeter, A., Gruber, L., Bucher, F., Salim, M., Bingoel, A. S., *et al.* (2023). Epidemiology and outcome analysis of 1359 intensive care burn patients: a 14-year retrospective study in a major burn center. *Burns*, 49(5), 1209-1217.
- Ocon, C. A., Dos Santos, S. A., Caires, J. R., de Oliveira, M. F. D., Serra, A. J., Leal-Junior, E. C., *et al.* (2019). Effects and parameters of the photobiomodulation in experimental models of third-degree burn: systematic review. *Lasers in Medical Science*, 34, 637-648.
- Oda Alquraishi, Z. H., and Al-Fatlawi, B. A. (2020). Bacteriological Study of Klebsiella pneumoniae Isolated from Burn Patient in Al-Najaf City. *Indian Journal of Forensic Medicine and Toxicology*, 14(2),1987-1996.
- Panee, J. (2012). Monocyte Chemoattractant Protein 1 (*MCP-1*) in obesity and diabetes. *Cytokine*, 60(1), 1-12.
- Pang, Z., Raudonis, R., Glick, B. R., Lin, T. J., and Cheng, Z. (2019). Antibiotic resistance in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*: mechanisms and alternative therapeutic strategies. *Biotechnology advances*, 37(1), 177-192.
- Pham, M.-H. T., Bonello, G. B., Castiblanco, J., Le, T., Sigala, J., He, W. *et al* (2012). The rs1024611 regulatory region polymorphism is associated with *CCL2* allelic expression imbalance. *PloS one*, 7(11), 1-15.
- Pincus, D., H. (2006). Microbial identification using the bioMérieux Vitek®2 system. *Encyclopedia of rapid microbiological methods*, 1, 1-32.
- Ping, D., Jones, P. L., and Boss, J. M. (1996). TNF regulates the in vivo occupancy of both distal and proximal regulatory regions of the *MCP*-*1*/JE gene. *Immunity*, 4(5), 455-469.

- Pirat, A., Zeyneloglu, P., Kundakci, A., Aydogan, C., Arslan, G., and Haberal, M. (2010). Predictors of mechanical ventilation after burn injury. *Critical Care*, 14(1),51-59.
- Polse, R. F., Khalid, H. M., and Mero, W. M. (2023). Distribution of *bla* OXA-10, *bla PER-1*, and *bla SHV* genes in ESBL-producing *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strains isolated from burn patients. *Scientific* reports, 13(1), 18402-18410.
- Qader, M. K., Solmaz, H., and Merza, N. S. (2021). Molecular characterization of virulence factors among antibacterial resistant pseudomonas seruginosa isolated from burn infections from Duhok and Erbil hospitals /Iraq. *Journal of Duhok University*, 24(1), 1-9.
- Qin, S., Xiao, W., Zhou, C., Pu, Q., Deng, X., Lan, L, et al. (2022). Pseudomonas aeruginosa: pathogenesis, virulence factors, antibiotic resistance, interaction with host, technology advances and emerging therapeutics. Signal transduction and targeted therapy, 7(1), 199-226.
- Raheem, H. Q., and Hussein, E. F. (2022). Incidence of Aminoglycoside Resistance Genes in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* Isolated from Burns and Wounds Infections. *Annals of the Romanian Society for Cell Biology*, 26(01), 274-281.
- Raka, L. (2010). Prevention and control of hospital-related infections in low and middleincome countries. *Open Infect Dis* J, 4(1), 125-131.
- Rippon, M. G., Westgate, S., and Rogers, A. A. (2022). Implications of endotoxins in wound healing: a narrative review. *Journal of Wound Care*, 31(5), 380-392.
- Rocha, A. J., Barsottini, M. R. D. O., Rocha, R. R., Laurindo, M. V., Moraes,
 F. L. L. D. and Rocha, S. L. D. (2019). *Pseudomonas aeruginosa:* virulence factors and antibiotic resistance genes. *Brazilian Archives of Biology and Technology*, 62, 19180503-19180518.

- Roth, J. J. and Hughes, W. (2015). *The essential burn unit handbook* 2nd Edition:CRCPress.
- Rovin, B. H., Lu, L and Saxena, R. (1999). A novel polymorphism in the MCP-1 gene regulatory region that influences MCP-1 expression. Biochemical and biophysical research communications, 259(2), 344-348.
- Roy, A., Mallick, B., Ghosh, R. and Mallik, S. (2022). A Clinico-Epidemiological Study among Burn Injury Patients in a Tertiary Care Hospital of Eastern India. *Journal of Medical Sciences*, 8(2), 139-142.
- Roy, S., Mukherjee, P., Kundu, S., Majumder, D., Raychaudhuri, V., and Choudhury, L. (2024). Microbial infections in burn patients. *Acute and Critical Care*, 39(2), 214-225.
- Sahin, I., Eski, M., Acikel, C., Kapaj, R., Alhan, D. and Isik, S. (2012). The role of negative pressure wound therapy in the treatment of fourthdegree burns. Trends and new horizons. *Annals of burns and fire disasters*, 25(2), 92-97.
- Sambrook, J and Russell, D. W. (2001). Molecular Cloning-Sambrook and Russel-Vol. 1, 2, 3. Cold Springs Harbor Lab Press: Long Island, NY, USA.
- Sánchez-Pérez, J.F., Vicente-Agullo, D., Barberá, M., Castro-Rodríguez, E. and Cánovas, M. (2019). Relationship between ultraviolet index (UVI) and first-, second-and third-degree sunburn using the Probit methodology. *Scientific reports*, 9(1), 733-746.
- Sari, H., Akkoc, M. F., Kilinç, Z., Dayanir Çok, F. N., Özel, M., and Özel, V. (2024). Investigation of morbidity, length of stay, and healthcare costs of inpatient paediatric burns. *International wound journal*, 21(1), 14385-14313.

- Schaffrick, L., Ding, J., Kwan, P., and Tredget, E. (2023). The dynamic changes of monocytes and cytokines during wound healing post-burn injury. *Cytokine*, 168, 156231-156240.
- Seada, A. and Younis, G. (2020). Identification of predisposing factors to multiple organ dysfunctions syndrome among burned patients in intensive care unit at Mansoura University. *Int. Acad. J. Health Med. Nurs*, 2(1), 12-25.
- Sekhi, R. J. (2022). *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*: A review article. *European Scholar Journal*, 3(3), 78-84.
- Shadrina, A. S., Smetanina, M. A., Sevost'ianova, K. S., Seliverstov, E. I., Ilyukhin, E. A., Voronina, E. N., *et al.* (2017). Functional polymorphism rs1024611 in the *MCP1* gene is associated with the risk of varicose veins of lower extremities. *Journal of Vascular Surgery: Venous and Lymphatic Disorders*, 5(4), 561-566.
- Shanmugasundarasamy, T., Govindarajan, D. K. and Kandaswamy, K. (2022). A review on pilus assembly mechanisms in Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria. *The Cell Surface*, 8, 100077-100093.
- Sheeba, P. M., Prathyusha, K., and Anila, M. A. (2024). Antibiotic susceptibility trends in bacterial isolates from wound infections. *Microbiology Independent Research Journal (MIR Journal)*, 11(1), 1-9.
- Singh, S., Anshita, D. and Ravichandiran, V. (2021). MCP-1: Function, regulation, and involvement in disease. International immunopharmacology, 101, 107598-107608.
- Sonbul, H. M., Alqahtani, M. A. M., Bajebair, A. M., Aljameely, A. A. A., Aloudah, S. A., Alshamrani, M. A. M., *et al.* (2021). Emergent Management of Thermal Burns in Emergency Rooms Saudi Arabia-A Review. *Journal of Pharmaceutical Research International*, 33(46), 266-272.

- Spiwak, R., Sareen, S. and Logsetty, S. (2022). Techniques to Assess Long-Term Outcomes after Burn Injuries. *European Burn Journal*, 3(2), 328-339.
- Stokes, M. A. R., and Johnson, W. D. (2017). Burns in the Third World: an unmet need. *Annals of burns and fire disasters*, 30(4), 243-246
- Tanaka, Y., Uchi, H. and Furue, M. (2019). Antioxidant cinnamaldehyde attenuates UVB-induced photoaging. *Journal of Dermatological Science*, 96(3), 151-158.
- Tasleem, S., Zuberi, M. A. W., Hussain, M. S., Sultan, S. M. M. B., Siddiqui,
 A. I., Shah, H. H., *et al.* (2023). Exploring gender disparities in burn injuries: A retrospective study at a burns centre in Karachi, Pakistan. *Burns Open*, 7(4), 117-120.
- Tchakal-Mesbahi, A., Abdouni, M., and Metref, M. (2021). Prevalence of Multidrug-Resistant Bacteria Isolated from Burn Wounds in Algeria. *Annals of burns and fire disasters*, 34(2), 150-156.
- Thi, M. T. T., Wibowo, D.and Rehm, B. H. (2020). Pseudomonas aeruginosa biofilms. International journal of molecular sciences, 21(22), 8671-8696.
- Thomas, B. J., Arora, B. S., and Arora, S. (2022). Antimicrobial susceptibility profiles of bacterial isolates from burn wound infections: experience at a tertiary care hospital teaching institution. *International Journal of Research in Medical Sciences*, 10(11), 2467-2473.
- Tibebu, N. S., Desie, T., Marew, C., Wubneh, M., Birhanu, A., and Tigabu, A. (2021). Health-Related Quality of Life and Its Associated Factors Among Burn Patients at Governmental Referral Hospitals of Amhara Regional State, Northwest Ethiopia, 2020: Institutional-Based Cross-Sectional Study. *Clinical, Cosmetic and Investigational Dermatology*, 14(3), 367-375.

- Tiwari, V. (2012). Burn wound: How it differs from other wounds? *Indian journal of plastic surgery*, 45(02), 364-373.
- Toolaroud, P.B., Attarchi, M., Haghdoust, R.A., Feizkhah, A., Esmailzadeh, M., Rimaz, S., *et al.* (2023). Epidemiology of work-related burn injuries: A ten-year retrospective study of 429 patients at a referral burn centre in the north of Iran. *International wound journal*, 20(9), 3599-3605.
- Tracy, L. F., Shehan, J.and Grillone, G. A. (2020). Upper Airway Burn Injury. Operative Techniques in Otolaryngology-Head and Neck Surgery, 31(4), 295-300.
- Tuon, F. F., Dantas, L. R., Suss, P. H. and Tasca Ribeiro, V. S. (2022). Pathogenesis of the *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* biofilm: *A review*. *Pathogens*, 11(3), 300-319.
- Turner, K. H., Everett, J., Trivedi, U., Rumbaugh, K. P., and Whiteley, M. (2014). Requirements for *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* acute burn and chronic surgical wound infection. *PLoS genetics*, 10(7),1004518-1004530.
- Ueda, A., Okuda, K., Ohno, S., Shirai, A., Igarashi, T., Matsunaga, K *et al.* (1994). NF-kappa B and Sp1 regulate transcription of the human monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 gene. *Journal of immunology*, 153(5), 2052-2063.
- Ullah, R., Amir, M., Anjum, S., Rehman, M. U., Hasan, T. N., Naqvi, S. S., et al. (2023). Presence of T3SS (exoS, exoT, exoU and exoY), susceptibility pattern and MIC of MDR-*Pseudomonas aeruginosa* from burn wounds. *The Journal of Infection in Developing Countries*, 17(08), 1130-1137.
- Urgancı, N. N., Yılmaz, N., Alaşalvar, G. K., and Yıldırım, Z. (2022). Pseudomonas aeruginosa and its pathogenicity. Turkish Journal of Agriculture-Food Science and Technology, 10(4), 726-738.

- Valentini, M., Gonzalez, D., Mavridou, D. A. and Filloux, A. (2018). Lifestyle transitions and adaptive pathogenesis of *Pseudomonas* aeruginosa. Current opinion in microbiology, 41(3), 15-20.
- van Zoonen, E. E., Pijpe, A., van Baar, M. E., Nieuwenhuis, M. K., van Schie, C. H., Trommel, N., *et al.* (2022). Aetiology of severe burn incidents in children under 5 years of age in the Netherlands: A prospective cohort study. *Burns*, 48(3), 713-722.
- Vaziri, S., Afsharian, M., Mansouri, F., Azizi, M., Nouri, F., Madadi-Goli, N., et al. (2020). Frequency of qnr and aac (6') Ib-cr Genes among ESBL-producing *Klebsiella pneumoniae* strains isolated from burn patients in Kermanshah, Iran. Jundishapur journal of microbiology, 13(7), 100348-100356.
- Vermont, C. L., Hazelzet, J. A., de Kleijn, E. D., van den Dobbelsteen, G. P. and Groot, R. d. (2006). CC and CXC chemokine levels in children with meningococcal sepsis accurately predict mortality and disease severity. *Critical Care*, 10(1), 1-8.
- Volety, R. and Jeeva, J. (2022). Classification of Burn Images into 1st, 2nd, and 3rd Degree Using State-of-the-Art Deep Learning Techniques. ECS Transactions, 107(1), 18323.
- Waghmare, C. M. (2013). Radiation burn from mechanism to management. Journal of Ethnopharmacology, 39(2), 212-219.
- Wu, H., Xi, M. and Xie, W. (2023). Epidemiological and clinical characteristics of older adults with burns: a 15-year retrospective analysis of 2554 cases in Wuhan Institute of Burns. *BMC geriatrics*, 23(1), 1-13.
- Xin, L., Zeng, Y., Sheng, S., Chea, R. A., Liu, Q., Li, H. Y., et al., (2019). Regulation of flagellar motor switching by c-di-GMP phosphodiesterases in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Journal of Biological Chemistry, 294(37), 13789-13799.

- Yadav, A., Saini, V. and Arora, S. (2010). MCP-1: chemoattractant with a role beyond immunity: a review. Clinica chimica acta, 411(21-22), 1570-1579.
- Yoon, H. S. and Na, Y. C. (2019). Sunburn deteriorated to a deep seconddegree wound in a healthy young female without risk factors. *Journal* of Wound Management and Research, 15(2), 113-116.
- Yu, M., Lv, Q., Ding, H., Zeng, X., Cao, J., Liu, J., *et al.* (2016). Evaluation of blast injury patients from the 2015 Tianjin explosions in China. *Burns*, 42(5), 1133-1140.
- Zdanowski, R., Radziszewski, J., and Gorgone, C. (2019). Burn disease-the possibility of limiting its effects in the prehospital phase. *Critical Care Innovations*, 2(4), 25-35.
- Zhang, K., and Luo, J. (2019). Role of *MCP-1* and CCR2 in alcohol neurotoxicity. *Pharmacological research*, 139, 360-366.
- Zhang, P., Zou, B., Liou, Y. C. and Huang, C. (2021). 'The pathogenesis and diagnosis of sepsis post burn injury'. *Burns and trauma*, 9(2),47-63.
- Zhu, S., Liu, M., Bennett, S., Wang, Z., Pfleger, K. D and Xu, J. (2021). The molecular structure and role of *CCL2* (*MCP-1*) and C-C chemokine receptor CCR2 in skeletal biology and diseases. *Journal of cellular physiology*, 236(10), 7211-7222.
- Zwierełło, W., Piorun, K., Skórka-Majewicz, M., Maruszewska, A., Antoniewski, J., and Gutowska, I. (2023). Burns: Classification, pathophysiology, and treatment: A review. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 24(4), 3749.

Appendices

Appendix I: Burn wound patients' questionnaires

1- Age years

2- Sex - Male - Female

- 3- Type of burn
 - Flame Burn (FB).....
 - Scalding burn (SB)
 - Electrical burn (EB).....
 - Chemical burn (CB).....

4- Burn severity

- Degree 1.....
- Degree 2.....
- Degree 3.....
- Degree 4
- 5- % TBSA (total body surface area)
- 6- Inhalational Injury
- 7- In-Hospital Mortality
- 8- Mechanical Ventilation
- 9- HAI (healthcare associated infection)-
- 10- Length of Hospital Stay
- 11-Weight
 - Normal weight.....
 - Overweight.....
 - Obese

Appendix II: Healthy control questionnaires

1- Age years

2- Sex - Male - Female

- 3-Weight
 - Normal weight.....
 - Overweight.....
 - Obese

Appendix III: VITEK2 System



Appendix IV: Conventional PCR



Appendix V: Bacterial growth on MacConkey Agar.

a. *P*. aeruginosa, **b**. *E*. coli **c**. *K*. pneumoniae



a



b

الخلاصه

عدوى جروح الحروق هي واحدة من أكثر أنواع العدوى البكتيرية انتشارا في جميع انحاءالعالم. سبب هذه الالتهابات في الغالب هي بكتريا الزائفة الزنجارية. يرتبط Monocyte I منائج سريرية أسوأ بعد الإصابة *chemoattractant protein-1* ، وهو عامل مرتبط بالنخاع ، بنتائج سريرية أسوأ بعد الإصابة الحرارية. تحتوي منطقة الجين*I-chemoattractant protein ع*لى تعدد الانماط *Monocyte chemoattractant protein ع*لى تعبير Monocyte م الوراثيه عند (S < A > G) ، والذي يؤثر على تعبير يومماريا *Chemoattractant protein و chemoattractant protein و chemoattractant protein protein protein و Chemoattractant protein و chemoattractant protein و chemoattractant protein protein و*

أظهرت النتائج أن نسبة الذكور المصابين بحروق الجلد بلغت 53.0% ، بينما كانت نسبة الإناث 1.0% (47.0%) بينما في مجموعه السيطرة (42.9%) ذكور و (57.1%) إناث. لم تكن هناك فروق ذات دلالة إحصائية (9.02%) بينما في مجموعه السيطرة (42.9%) ذكور و (57.1%) إناث. لم تكن هناك فروق ذات دلالة الحصائية (9.02%) بين مجاميع الدراسة فيما يتعلق بالجنس. وكان أعلى معدل للإصابة في الفئة العمرية <11 سنة مقارنة مع الفئات العمرية الأخرى ولم تكن هناك فروق ذات دلالة إحصائية (= P) بين مجاميع الدراسة فيما يتعلق بالجنس. وكان أعلى معدل للإصابة في الفئة العمرية <12 سنة مقارنة مع الفئات العمرية الأخرى ولم تكن هناك فروق ذات دلالة إحصائية (= 0.400) بين المرضى والاصحاء فيما يتعلق بالعمر. و سجلت الدراسه أعلى نسبة لإصابات الحروق ناتجة عن الحروق بالسوائل بنسبة 53.0%، تليها الحروق بالنار بنسبة (41.0%)، وكانت أقل نسبة حروق الكهرباء (6.0%). وفيما يتعلق بدرجات الحروق، كانت الحروق من الدرجة الثانية أكثر

الحالات (66.3٪)، بينما الحروق من الدرجة الثالثة كانت (25.3٪) وحروق من الدرجه الثانية + الدرجة الثالثة شكلت فقط (8.4٪). كما أظهرت نتائج الدراسة أن *الزائفة الزنجارية* المعزوله من جروح الحروق هي البكتريا الأكثر شيوعا (31.43٪) ، ثم الكلبسيلا الرئوية (20.0٪) ، تليها الإشريكية القولونية (14.29٪). أظهرت النتائج أيضا معدلات مقاومة عالية للزائفة الزنجارية لجميع المضادات الحيوية (100٪) ، باستثناء ال Colistin كانت الحساسية (100٪) لهذا المضاد الحيوي.

اما حول تعدد الانماط الجيني لجين الم الم الم على المراحد في المرضي مقارنة rs1024611 ، أظهرت الدراسة الحالية أن النمط الجيني AA كان مرتفعا في المرضى مقارنة AG بمجموعة السيطرة (40.0% مقابل 8.6% ، على التوالي) ، بينما تم العثور على النمط الجيني AG بنسبة أعلى في مجموعة السيطرة مقارنة بالمرضى (17.1% مقابل 14.3% ، على التوالي) ، كما وجد أن النمط الجيني GG في مجموعة السيطره أعلى مقارنة بالمرضى (74.3% مقابل 74.3% ، على التوالي). كانت هناك فروق ذات دلالة إحصائية في الأنماط الجينية (80.00 السيطرة (27.4% والمجموعة السيطرة. كما وجد ان الأليل "A" في المرضى اعلى مقارنة بمجموعة السيطرة (27.4% مقابل 17.2% ، على التوالي) ، في حين كان الأليل "G" مرتفعا في مجموعة السيطرة مقارنة بالمرضى (82.8% مقابل 52.8% ، على التوالي) ، كانت هناك فروق ذات دلالة إحصائية (2001) بينهما.

أظهرت نتيجة هذه الدراسة أنه في المرضى ، كان النمط الجيني AA أعلى منه في السيطرة. لذلك ، قد يكون لتعدد انماط الجين I-rs1024611 Monocyte chemoattractant protein الجين I دور وقائي في العدوى البكتيرية لجرح الحروق. بالإضافة إلى ذلك ، فإن الزائفة الزنجارية هي البكتيريا الأكثر انتشارا في المرضى المصابين بحروق الجلد.



جمهورية العراق وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي جامعة كربلاء كلية الطب فرع الأحياء المجهرية

العلاقة بين تعدد الأشكال الجيني Chemokine MCP-1 وشدة الاصابه بالعدوى البكتيرية الهوائية لدى مرضى الحروق

رسالة مقدمة الى مجلس كلية الطب/جامعة كربلاء كجزء من متطلبات نيل درجة الماجستير في الاحياء المجهرية الطبية

> من قبل الطالب حسن فاضل خضير مطر بكالوريوس علوم حياه/ كلية العلوم /جامعة كربلاء

أ. د عبير ظاهر ناجي الحسناوي أ. د علي جليل علي الياسري

A 1445