## Correspondence

## More research is needed before we can accurately define and understand 'critical colonisation' Dear Sic

With the increasing focus on wound microbiology and infection in recent years, the Wound Infection Continuum has been proposed as a model to account for different stages of bioburden and related pathology. Within this continuum is the stage of critical colonisation. This has been widely accepted as a separate entity (Sibbald et al, 2001; Kingsley, 2003; Moore, 2006; Ziegler et al, 2006) but claimed by others to be synonymous with 'local infection', a state of 'pre-infection' or, as a concept that is beyond the realms of reality. What is generally agreed is that critical colonisation has not yet been definitively characterised.

The development of wound infection is known to be dependent upon both microbial and host factors. The number of species and the number of organisms present have been shown to be an important factor in the development of infection (Trengove et al, 1996). However, the host response or immune status of the individual is claimed to be a key factor.

To those who accept it as a distinct entity, critical colonisation is a stage where wound healing is delayed without the overt signs and symptoms of infection and occurs despite the patient being given optimum treatment (Kingsley, 2003). Could this situation arise without the host response playing a part? Certainly, numerous authors have reported delayed ulcer healing influenced by microorganisms (Lookingbill et al, 1978; Daltrey et al, 1981; Halbert et al, 1992; Hansson et al, 1995), without an overt host response.

In terms of wound infection, the host response is recognised by signs and symptoms of inflammation, such as heat, redness, swelling and pain. The occurrence of signs of spreading erythema around the wound is usually indicative of infection such as erysipelas or cellulitis (Eron et al, 2003). However, not all such erythema necessarily has endogenous inflammatory or 'immunological' origins. Recent findings have shown that Morganella species commonly found in chronic wounds, notably *M. morganii*, produce histamine in physiologically significant amounts (Cooper et al, 2004). Thus peri-wound erythema could be attributable to histamine-induced vasodilation from wound colonisation with *M.morganii*. In effect, a 'false positive' sign of wound infection.

Delayed healing is also intimately linked with 'uncontrolled inflammation' (Moore, 1999) or immunopathology (Page et al, 2006).This is not always visually evident in chronic wounds, as it is not always accompanied by the classic signs of inflammation or may be masked, for example, by haemosiderin staining and lipodermatosclerosis in venous leg ulcers. It is, however, histologically evident (Abd-El-Aleem et al, 2005).

The supporters of the concept of critical colonisation believe that delayed healing can often be attributed to microbial factors (Gray et al, 2005) and that diagnosis is often only confirmed retrospectively once antimicrobial measures have been taken and found to be effective. However, our knowledge of wound bacteria and their roles in inflammation — and hence chronicity — is incomplete. We know little of the events that trigger the change from colonisation to infection. Nor do we understand the mechanisms of bacteria-induced inflammation as occurs, for example, through the induction of interleukin-8, tumour necrosis factor- $\alpha$ , matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) and tissue inhibitors of MMPs (TIMPs), or activation of toll-like receptors, nuclear factor- $\kappa\beta$  and p38 mitogenactivated protein signalling pathways. In short, there is much research to be conducted before we can be categorical.

How can delayed healing be associated with microbial factors and not elicit an obvious host response? There are three or more 'modes of action' whereby bacteria can delay wound healing without any apparent inflammatory, or immunological, response. The first is through the expression of immunoevasion factors (Allen et al, 2005) or immune response modifiers (Schiller et al, 2006); the second, biofilm formation (Serralta et al, 2001); and the third by suppression of cellular wound healing responses (Stephens et al, 2003). These occur when the wound is colonised by certain specific bacteria. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is an organism commonly found in chronic wounds (Bowler et al, 1999) and is associated with delayed healing (Heggers et al, 1992). It is also associated with chronic infection in other tissues (Lau et al, 2004). It is known to form biofilms (Costerton, 2001) and secrete immunoevasive factors (Usher et al, 2002) that are active against polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs). To this effect, activation of the type III secretion system, an identified virulence determinant of *P. aeruginosa*, has been reported (Dacheux et al, 2002).

P. aeruginosa is likely to be of far greater significance to wound chronicity and infection than has been hitherto recognised. Experienced wound clinicians have long noticed green colouration in chronic wounds and have associated it with the presence of *P. aeruginosa* and with delayed healing (Hamilton Jakobsen and Danielsen, 1997). The green pigment is pyocyanin, a phenazine which is a highly-diffusable exotoxic metabolite (Denning et al, 2003). This has been shown to inhibit many cell functions (Lau et al, 2004) and even impair host defences through apoptosis. Many pathogens, including P.aeruginosa, are known to induce inappropriate or premature apoptosis of immune cells such as macrophages and neutrophils (Zychlinsky and Sansonetti, 1997a) and that this can promote inflammation (Zychlinsky and Sansonetti, 1997b).

*P. aeruginosa* has evolved immunoevasive strategies by which it affects host immunity (Buret and Cripps, 1993). Indeed, pyocyanin and other, similar phenazines have been shown to be pro-apoptotic upon human neutrophils (Usher et al, 2002). This is postulated to be a clinically important mechanism of persistence of *P.aeruginosa* in human tissue.

Staphyloccocus aureus is also an important human wound pathogen that interferes with host-cell functions. Impaired healing is often observed in S. aureus infected wounds where the extracellular adherence protein (EAP) has been implicated (Athanasopoulos et al, 2006). EAP is a potent anti-inflammatory (Chavakis et al, 2002) and antiangiogenic agent, preventing recruitment of inflammatory cells to the wound site as well as inhibiting neovascularisation (Haggar et al, 2004).

## Correspondence

A similar phenomenon is that of wound malodour. This is a regular feature of chronic wounds and is linked to short chain fatty acids (SCFA) (Bowler et al, 1999). These volatile compounds are the metabolic by-products of anaerobic bacterial metabolism (Reed and Sanderson, 1979). Malodour is associated with organisms known to generate SCFA such as Bacteroides spp and anaerobic cocci (Bowler, 1998). In an in vitro study, Stephens et al (2003) demonstrated that SCFA generated by Peptostreptococci inhibited the growth of key cells responsible for wound healing – keratinocytes, fibroblasts and endothelial cells. This, if translated to the in vivo situation, would give rise to delayed healing without infection. It is reasonable, therefore, that SCFA contribute to delayed healing in many, if not all, malodorous wounds.

A chronic wound colonised, but not infected, with Morganella spp, Pseudomonas, and Peptostreptococci among others may exhibit erythema and delayed healing, without an otherwise evident host response. This situation, involving any or all of these organisms is possibly what we recognise as critical colonisation. Local infection, on the other hand, is generally accepted by clinicians as being more easily diagnosed. Clearly, this is an area for research before mechanisms can be defined.

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