

Scientific Research is Our Means to Serve the Community



The role of Vitamin D deficiency in patients with Diabetic Foot Ulcer

Sura Mustafa Qasim¹, Alaa Zanzal Ra'ad Al-dorri², Mohanad Hasan Mahmood Al-Izzi¹

¹Department of Biology, Science College, Tikrit University, Iraq.

²Department of Medical Microbiology, Tikrit University College of Medicine (TUCOM), Iraq
Princesssoul92@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is identification the relationship between vitamin D deficiency in the diabetic foot ulcer patient and the aerobic bacterial types, because it's, with know their resistance to some antibiotics used. The present study was cross sectional type which carried out from 12th of August 2019 to 25th of February 2020 in Salah al-Din Governorate. Seventy patients suffered from DM presented with diabetic foot ulcer (41 male and 29 female), blood sample was drawn and taken swab from foot ulcer by swab transport media and send to the lab. We found the high significant ratio in decrease blood serum concentration ($p \leq 0.01$) of vitamin D in persons with diabetic foot and in persons with diabetes compared with the control group. Also, we found high significant level at ($p \leq 0.01$) in the number of patients with DM and DFU for males compared to females and (87%) patients with DFU had a bacterial infection, in addition, the poly-microbial infection was (60.7%) case more than single microbial infection (39.3%), plus showed that the infection with positive bacteria (58.7%) was more than negative bacteria (41%). The highest rate of bacterial infection in DFU was recorded for *S. aureus* (36.7%), while *S. ficaria* was the only cause of infection, and it was isolated (0.9%). Most of bacterial isolates that cause DFU were resistant to the antibiotics used except for Levofloxacin, which most bacteria were sensitive, while bacteria were resistance to carbincillin (100%).

Keywords: diabetic foot ulcer, diabetes mellitus, vitamin D

Introduction

Diabetes mellitus is common endocrine disease as a result of heterogeneous metabolic disorders, causes hyperglycemia due to deficiency in secretion and/or insulin action⁽¹⁾. It include two main types: type 1, is resulting from destruction of insulin-producing pancreatic β -cells; while type 2, results from the peripheral resistance of insulin hormone⁽²⁾. The prevalence of diabetes has been increasing in epidemic proportions, with long-term complications⁽³⁾. DM have many complication, one of these complication is diabetic foot ulcer (DFU) has described as infection, ulceration and/or destruction of deep tissues associated with neurological abnormalities and various degrees of peripheral vascular disease⁽³⁾, its commonly caused by repetitive stress in patients with peripheral neuropathy, or initial injury (trauma) that is not detected by the patient, together with a peripheral vascular disease, plus contributes to the development of foot ulcers⁽⁴⁾. An infection is a common origin of a DFU that can lead to a partial or complete lower limb amputation if not treated properly⁽⁵⁾. Some bacterial species considered as non-pathogenic, when alone or not capable of maintaining a chronic infection on their own, may co-aggregate symbiotically in a pathogenic biofilm and

act synergistically to cause a chronic infection and causes delayed healing of DFU⁽⁶⁾. Generally, different microorganisms are found in infected DFUs, including: gram-positive aerobic *S. aureus*, *S. epidermidis*, *S. saprophytic* and *Streptococcus* spp, plus gram negative aerobes including *P. aeruginosa*, *P. mirabilis*, and *E. coli* spp.⁽⁷⁾. Vitamin D is steroid hormone fat-soluble⁽⁸⁾. Its synthesizing mainly made on the skin with the effect of ultraviolet light, and activated by two hydroxylation reactions in the liver and kidneys⁽⁹⁾. Hypovitaminosis D, will affect to the brain, heart, muscle, immune system, and bones, thus, leads to autoimmune diseases, infections, and neurological disorders⁽¹⁰⁾, linked to the onset of diabetes by Vitamin D receptor (VDR) found on β -cell⁽¹¹⁾. Low vitamin D causes block insulin secretion⁽¹¹⁾, via autoimmune destruction β -cell lead to T1DM or changes in tissue response to insulin causes T2DM⁽¹²⁾.

Material and Methods

A cross sectional study was carried out from 12th of August 2019 to 25th of February 2020 in Salah al-Din Governorate. Seventy patients with D.M had diabetic foot ulcer (41 male and 29 female), blood was drawn and taken swab from foot ulcer by swab transport

media, containing gel media to save the sample until transferred to the laboratory. Whereas 128 DM patients (65` male and 63 female) without diabetic foot. They had taken drawn blood from them. Blood sample (5 ml) collected from the vein by venipuncture in tube without having any anticoagulant. Serum were immediately separated by centrifugation and it was divided into two parts, one stored in Eppendorf Tubes at -80°C for ELISA test, and another for measurement level fasting blood glucose (FBG). After taken by swab transport media transported to the laboratory and transplanted to the appropriate culture media, namely Blood Agar, MacConkey Agar and Mannitol Salt Agar as a primary transplant, and incubated at 37 °C temperature for 18-24 hours ⁽¹²⁾, then implanted on culture media and chemical tests were made with confirmation of the diagnosis of some samples by Vitek, for the purpose of identifying the bacteria causing the ulceration, with a sensitivity test for 6 antibiotics to know how resistant bacteria ⁽¹³⁾.

Result and Discussion

The total number of patients with DM were 198 of clinical samples were collected from the general surgery wards, the internal resuscitation wards, and the internal consultation at General Hospitals in Salah al-Din Governorate. Out of 198 patients with DM were 70 (64.5 %) case suffered from DFU, while 128 (35.5 %) case were presented with DM only. They were compared with 80(100%) cases healthy individuals (control group) as in (Table 1).

Table 1: Distribution of patients (DM, D.F.U) and healthy people.

Diseases	Patient		Control	
	NO.	%	NO.	%
Diabetic mellitus	128	64.5 %	0	0
Diabetic foot ulcer	70	35.5 %	0	0
Total	198	71 %	80	100%

* $\chi^2 = 50.086$ * $P \leq 0.01$ *significant

1. Levels of Vitamin D in patients with diabetic mellitus, diabetic foot ulcer and the control group.

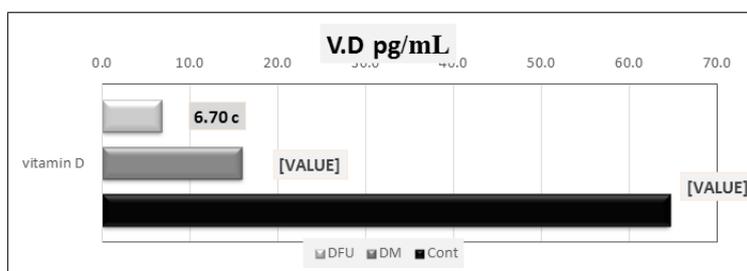


Figure 1: Levels of vitamin D in patients with DFU, DM and the control group.

*F. ratio=236.829 * $P \leq 0.01$ * Highly Significant (HS)

The prevalence of this study shown in (figure 1), the mean of vitamin D level (6.70 pg. /ml) was occurred in patients with DFU who were infected with bacteria followed by patients with DM without ulcer infection (15.90 pg. /ml), while the highest mean was recorded in the control group (64.55 pg./ml). The relation was statistically highly significant. This study showed high significant decrease in Vitamin D levels in DFU and DM groups in comparison with control during the study period. These data Confirmed, that diabetic foot ulcer patients were greater vitamin D deficient and harmed, because they had significant lower serum vitamin D levels than diabetic patients without these DFU complications.

These result agree with the other studies, such as Tajik, E. (2019) ⁽¹⁴⁾; Oraby *et al.* (2019) ⁽¹⁵⁾; Patel and Pandya, (2020) ⁽¹⁶⁾; and Dai *et al.* (2019) ⁽¹⁷⁾, that showed significantly reduced vitamin D levels in DM patients, severe with DFU, also some they reported that deficiency vitamin D an increased risk of DFU, and other complication T2DM. Also many studies such as Al-Rawaf *et al.* (2019) ⁽¹⁸⁾; Hu *et al.* (2019) ⁽¹⁹⁾; and Park *et al.* (2018) ⁽²⁰⁾, they were noticing, improve level Vitamin D could significantly improvement in DFU healing and less the complication T2DM by using Vitamin D because ability to modulates impaired pancreatic b-cell

function, insulin resistance, and systemic inflammation ⁽²¹⁾.

Vitamin D deficiency could be associated to the pathophysiology ⁽²²⁾, by existence 36 different tissues in the body able to interact with the physiology of vitamin D, like the kidneys, bones, intestines, the heart, liver, pancreatic beta cells, immunologic system cells pathophysiology ⁽²³⁾. Vitamin D deficiency contributes to both the initial insulin resistance and the subsequent onset of diabetes caused by β -cell death ⁽²⁴⁾. Vitamin D deficiency has been linked to the onset of diabetic, by the role of Vitamin D in maintaining the normal release of insulin by the pancreatic beta cells (β -cells) and overcome this resistance by releasing more insulin, thus preventing hyperglycemia ⁽²⁵⁾. Poor glycemic control causes increased fatty acid and protein kinase, which reduces insulin signals due to a change in adipo-kinase secretion and phosphorylation of substance insulin receptor ⁽²⁶⁾, ditto glucose toxicity bring about Increased (calcium and AGE) deposition thus, insulin resistance and ischemia and vascular nerve damage result of stimulation of cellular immunity, in addition ⁽²⁷⁾, deposition of immune complex in the blood vessels a result of the activation monocyte, release of pro-inflammatory cytokine and stimulation migration neutrophils ⁽²⁸⁾.

Likewise Vitamin D deficiency with glucose toxicity, activation of oxidative stress and pro-inflammatory reactions, formation of non-enzymatic proteins, hypoxia and insulin resistance in type 2 diabetes, have a role in the formation and progression of diabetic peripheral neuropathy⁽²⁹⁾. Moreover Vitamin D has play an important role in increasing the expression of insulin receptors, furthermore effect induces antimicrobial peptides production in keratinocytes from diabetic foot ulcers hence, and healing was delayed⁽³⁰⁾. Furthermate, Vitamin D regulate the function of both innate and adoptive immune systems.

2. Blood Serum Glucose level for D.M, D.F.U and control.

From the frequency of the fasting blood glucose level testing in this study showed a significant increase in the concentration of blood glucose compared to the control group. The measurement blood level glucose for control group was ≥ 100 mg/dl in 71 (88.8%) persons which meant they do not have diabetes, while there was found DM 3(2.34) cases, but lack of case recorded for DFU patients in this level. Increase FBS level in DFU that exceeded the 450 mg/dl in some patients.

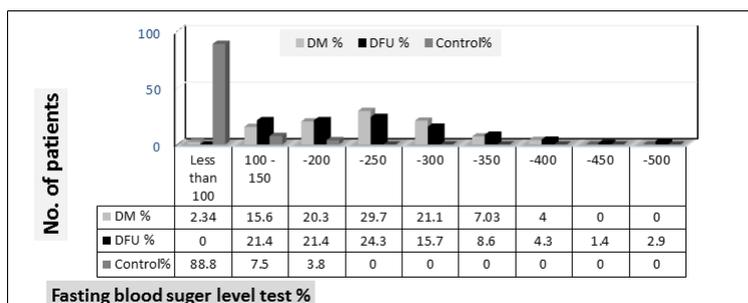


Figure 2: Distribution of D.M, D.F.U and control according to the Sugar test.
* $X^2=236.851$ * $P \leq 0.001$ *Significant.

The current study showed high significance increase in blood glucose concentration ($P \leq 0.001$) in DM and DFU as compared with control group. These results corresponding with the studies of Asfandiyarova, (2015)⁽³¹⁾ who saw that diabetes is made when the fasting blood glucose level is 126 mg/dL or higher on at least two tests. Also Alshayban and Joseph, (2020)⁽³²⁾; Wallia (2019)⁽³³⁾ and Vatansever *et al.* (2020)⁽³⁴⁾, who reported that the incidence of diabetic mellitus with high blood glucose level in diabetes drastically lowers insulin's effects on body by pancreas is unable to produce insulin, or by resistant tissue to the effects of insulin or doesn't produce enough insulin to maintain a normal glucose level. As a result, glucose tends to build up in your bloodstream (hyperglycemia) and may reach dangerously high levels if not treated properly. Insulin or other drugs are used to lower blood sugar levels⁽³⁵⁾. The presence of hyperglycemia and diabetes in elderly patients is associated with increased risk of complications, include damage to the eye, kidneys, nerves, heart, and the peripheral vascular system, and increased mortality compared with subjects with normoglycemia⁽³⁶⁾ result of accumulation cytotoxic, free radicals resulted from initial inflammation, followed by infiltration of activated macrophages and lymphocyte in the inflammatory DFU; this leads to a reduction in plasma insulin concentration, and leading chronic hyperglycemia state⁽³⁷⁾.

3. Isolation of Bacteria from patients with DFU

After taking a swab for each patient and cultured on the culture media for aerobic bacterial, found that 61 cases (87%) positive for microbial infection and 9

patient (13%) were no microbial growth. These findings are in agreement with those Gupta *et al.* (2019)⁽³⁸⁾, who reported that bacterial growth in DFU was (92.31%) cases. It is likely that no bacterial growth will take place for patients to take antibiotics, or the causative may be a virus, fungus, or anaerobic bacteria that cannot be isolated in the same way that used in this study, because they need special media and special implant methods. As it is expected the results revealed a significant difference at 1% probability level ($P = 0$) in the recurrence D.F.U patient according to the growth bacteria in D.F.U swab as shown in (Figure 3).

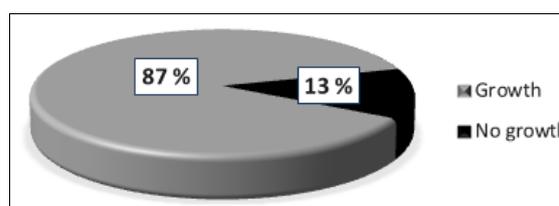


Figure 3: Distribution of D.F.U patient according to the growth of bacteria in D.F.U.
* $X^2=38.629$ * $P \leq 0.01$ *significant.

The growth of bacterial isolates was classified into two types: The first case was culture samples had infection derived from a single microorganism, as a pathogen for DFU in 24 cases (39.3%), the second case was mixed growth includes more than one type of bacteria that causative diabetic foot ulcers in 37 cases (60.7 %). This study revealed non-significant difference at ($P = 0.121$) in according to the single or mixed bacteria growth, showing in (Figure 4).

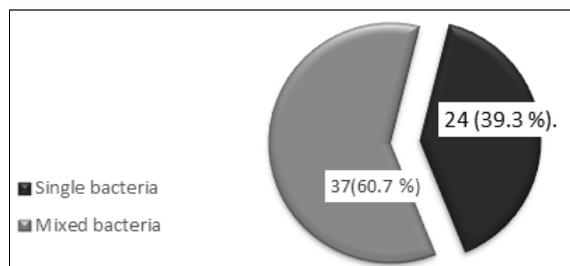


Figure 4: Distribution of D.F.U patient according to the growth bacteria.

* $X^2=2.400$ * $P = 0.121$ *non-significant

From the positive cases of microbial growth, 109 isolates were collected. First diagnosis by using Gram stain, because it's one of the most rapid, reliable, and inexpensive methods for estimating bacteria, showed aerobic bacteria isolates were including 64 positive isolates (58.7%) and 45 negative isolates (41.3%) from diabetic foot ulcer. This study showed significance increase in gram positive bacteria ($P=0.069$), in diabetic foot ulcer as compared with gram negative bacteria during the experiment period, showing in (Figure 5).

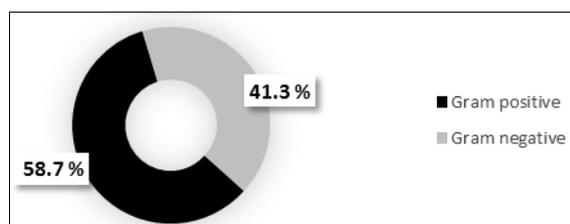


Figure 5: Distribution of D.F.U bacteria according to the gram stain.

* $X^2=3.312$ * $P \leq 0.01$ *Non-significant.

These results agree with other study such as Ogba *et al.* (2019) (39); and Radji *et al.* (2014) (40) who indicated that (62.8%) were poly-microbial in DFI, also study of Barman and Jain, (2017) (41); reported a preponderance of mono-microbial culture growth (64%). Poly-microbial growths were seen in 29% of patients whereas 7% of the specimens were sterile. Also in agreement with these findings, several studies have reported a high prevalence rate of poly-

microbial infections 55.7%, than mono-microbial infections (Saseedharan *et al.*, 2018). (42) Also Perim *et al.* (2015) (43) reported that infections were mostly due to Gram-positive bacteria and poly-microbial bacteremia, Ogba *et al.* (2019) (39); the poly-microbial infection rate in this study was 36 (72.0%) while the mono-microbial rate was 14 (28.0%). Our findings is higher than the 67.2% reported by Shanmugam *et al.* (2013) (44) but lower than the 87.2% poly-microbial infection rates reported by Altrichter *et al.* (2015) (45). The high poly-microbial infection rate reported in this study point to the fact that most of our subjects suffered severe diabetic foot infections. M *et al.* (2018) (46) were reported that mono-microbial infections were less common ($n = 81$; 31.2%) than poly-microbial infections ($n = 132$; 50.7%), while Nelson, A *et al.* (2018) (47), whose reported that the groups of pathogens were: Gram-positive cocci (70.6%); Gram-negative bacilli (36.7%). The presence of bacteria as poly-microbial flora isolated from a DFU does not reveal which microorganisms are pathogens, determining the role of specific bacteria is all the more difficult because poly-microbial interactions may modulate the pathogenic potential of one or the other (48), and ordinary non-pathogenic species are able to collaborate and interact together with synchronization to create a functionally equivalent path group (FEP) responsible for the infection chronicity and the maintenance of the pathogenic biofilm, therefore, some bacterial species considered as non-pathogenic, when alone or not capable of maintaining a chronic infection on their own, may co-aggregate symbiotically in pathogenic biofilm and act synergistically to cause a chronic infection, like *S. aureus* exposed to other bacteria shifts towards commensalism with the attenuation of virulence characteristics that concept may explain the delayed healing of chronic wounds (49), therefore cultures from chronically infected DFUs are often poly-microbial.

4. Sensitivity test of bacterial isolates to some antibiotics

Table 2: Diameter of antibiotic inhibition zone of gram positive bacteria isolation from D.F.U.

Bacteria	Carbincillin (py)		Penicillin (G)		Vancomycin (VN)		Levofloxacin (Lev)		Ceftriaxone (CRO)		Augmentin (Au)	
	R%	S%	R%	S%	R%	S%	R%	S%	R%	S%	R%	S%
<i>S. aureus</i>	100	0	100	0	52.5	47.5	0	100	100	0	85.7	14.28
<i>S. epidermidis</i>	100	0	82	12	66.7	33.3	33	77	66.7	33.3	100	0
<i>S. saprophytic</i>	100	0	71.4	28.6	57.2	42.8	28.5	71.4	100	0	92.8	7.2
<i>S. pyogenes</i>	100	0	75	25	100	0	25	75	100	0	25	75
Total antibiotic R/S	100	0	82.1	17.9	69.1	30.9	34.6	89.2	91.7	8.3	75.9	24.1

* $X = 110.123$ * $P \leq 0.01$ *Significant.

The results showed that all Gram positive and negative bacteria were showed high resistance (100%) for Carbincillin, followed by penicillin G.

While all bacteria isolate were sensitive to Levofloxacin, these result converge with I and Ma (2017) (50), which showed the almost bacteria isolated

from DFU were sensitive to Levofloxacin. Also all Gram negative isolates and Staphylococcus spp., were appearance resistance to Vancomycin, these result differentia with Shareef et al (2018)⁽⁵¹⁾, adduce that maximum susceptibility coagulase negative *Staphylococcus aureus* to Vancomycin (73.34%), and *Staphylococcus aureus* (86.67%), but Patil et al. (2017)⁽⁵²⁾, reported that all gram positive aerobic organisms were sensitive for vancomycin. In addition, Augmentin was very effective against *S. pyogenes* (75%), which agree with Hasan (2017)⁽⁵³⁾, but resistance to gram negative isolate (65.24%), these Contradicts Ogba et al (2019)⁽³⁹⁾, showed that while gram-negative bacteria were more susceptible to Augmentin (87.5%). Due to the small number of *S. ficaria* and first isolated from DFU, so it was found to be sensitive (100%) to Levofloxacin and resistant (100%) to all other antibiotics, addendum Dorgham (2019)⁽⁵⁴⁾, reported that the bacteria resistance

levofloxacin were *P. aeruginosa* (76%), *K. pneumoniae* (76 %), *P. mirabilis* (63.6%), *E. coli* (87.5%) and *S. aureus* (33.3%). In another way, results of the present study harmonize with Sarla (2019)⁽⁵⁵⁾, that reported *S. aureus* sensitive to Levofloxacin (84.21%), *Pseudomonas* resistance to Ceftriaxone (100%), and resistance *S. aureus* and *E.coli* to Augmentin (80.39%),(83.33%) respectively, where Ji et al. (2014)⁽⁵⁶⁾, showed Augmentin, Ceftriaxone and Levofloxacin resistance *P. aeruginosa* (66.7%),(50.0%),(25.0%) *E. coli* (75.0%), (0 %), (25.0%) and *P. mirabilis* (50.0%), (33.3%), (16.7%) respectively, but Dai, J., et al. (2020)⁽¹⁷⁾, reported that the *S. aureus*, *S. epidermidis* and *S. pyogenes* resistance to Penicillin (84.6%), (90.9%), (75 %) and Levofloxacin (0%), (36.4%), (25.0%) respectively. Also Kang et al. (2018)⁽⁵⁷⁾, reported that long-term use of antibiotics makes the patients with diabetic foot ulcers resistant to the antibiotics

Table (3): Diameter of antibiotic inhibition zone of gram negative bacteria from D.F.U.

Bacteria	Carbincillin (py)		Penicillin (G)		Vancomycin (VN)		Levofloxacin (Levo)		Ceftriaxone (CRO)		Augmentin (Au)	
	R%	S%	R%	S%	R%	S%	R%	S%	R%	S%	R%	S%
<i>P. mirabilis</i>	100	0	100	0	100	0	20	80	66	34	66.5	33.5
<i>Ps. Aeruginosa</i>	100	0	100	0	100	0	12.5	87.5	69	31	87.5	12.5
<i>E. coli</i>	100	0	100	0	81.2	18.8	16.7	83.3	61	39	88.9	11.1
<i>S. ficaria</i>	100	0	100	0	100	0	0	100	100	0	100	0
<i>K. pneumoniae</i>	100	0	100	0	100	0	16.7	83.3	100	0	83.3	16.7
Total antibiotic R/S	100	0	100	0	96.2	3.8	13.2	86.8	59	41	65.2	34.8

*X =26.908, * P< 0.01,*Significant.

The higher prevalence of multidrug-resistant organisms was also observed in study of Stacy et al. (2014). The higher antibiotic resistance in tertiary care hospitals is because, widespread use of broad-spectrum antibiotics results in selective survival of drug-resistant organisms In the present study, univariate analysis showed that, poor glycemic control, previous hospitalization, previous history of amputation, previous antibiotic usage, size of the ulcer, necrotic ulcer, recurrent ulcers, higher grade of ulcer, presence of osteomyelitis, peripheral vascular disease, neuropathy, and ischemic causes microcirculation , which may lead to poor penetration of antibiotics into the deep site of the ulcer and creates conditions that increase resistance diabetic foot bacterial infection⁽⁶⁰⁾. Also DFU infections were predominantly poly-microbial with the ability to form biofilm, and the transfer of resistance genes by transport means which is an important virulence factor to make it multidrug-resistant⁽⁶¹⁾. Moreover resistance in bacteria develops because of mutations or horizontal gene transfer from increased antibiotic exposure causing selection pressure that provides a

competitive advantage for mutated strains for better survival in changed host environment also Gram negative organisms more liable to become drug resistant due to the presence of a more mature multilayered cell membrane structure and the elaboration of many different plasmids and other mobile genetic elements responsible for horizontal gene transfer between bacteria⁽⁶²⁾.

Conclusion

We can conclude the vitamin D-level decrease in DFU more than DM patients, plus vitamin D plays an important role in activating immune cells and enhancing their work in addition to regulating insulin secretion while reducing cell resistance to insulin. *Staphylococcus aureus* and *E. coli*, were higher rates in infection of DFU insolation have been shown and play an important role in the development of DFU disease. Also *S. ficaria* can infect DFU as a pathogen. Levofloxacin was the most effective antibiotic in bacterial inhibition, but Carbincillin didn't effective against bacteria.

References

1. **Mukhtar, Y., Galalain, A.M., and Yunusa, U.M. (2019).** A Modern Overview on Diabetes Mellitus: A Chronic Endocrine Disorder: European Journal of Biology Vol.4, Issue 1 No.1, pp 1-14. 2520-4738.
2. **Nazik, Selçuk, et al. (2019)** Evaluation of Self-Care Agency of Patients with Diabetic Foot Infection: A Cross-Sectional Descriptive Study. Journal of Surgery and Medicine, Surg Med. 3: 00-00.
3. **Pu, Danlan, et al. (2019).** Lower Limb Arterial Intervention or Autologous Platelet-Rich Gel Treatment of Diabetic Lower Extremity Arterial Disease Patients with Foot Ulcers. Annals of Translational Medicine, vol. 7, no. 18, pp. 485–485.
4. **Boulton, A.J. (2013).**The Pathway to Foot Ulceration in diabetes Med Clin N Am, 97, 775–790
5. **Perez Favila, et al. (2019).** Current Therapeutic Strategies in Diabetic Foot Ulcers Medicina, vol 55, no 11 , p 714
6. **Ngba Essebe C, Visvikis O, FinesGuyon M, Vergne A, Cattoir V, Lecoustumier A, et al. (2017).** Decrease of Staphylococcus aureus virulence by Helcococcus kunzii in a Caenorhabditis elegans Model Front Cell Infect Microbiol;7:77
7. **Grigoropoulou, P; Eleftheriadou, I; Jude, EB; Tentolouris, N. (2017).** Diabetic Foot Infections: An Update in Diagnosis and Management Curr Diabetes Rep, 17, 3
8. **Maurya, Vaibhav Kumar, et al. (2020).** Vitamin D Microencapsulation and Fortification: Trends and Technologies. The Journal of Steroid Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, vol. 196, p. 105489.
9. **Ozkan GO. (2019).**The Effects of Vitamin D on Obesity, Insulin Resistance and Type 2 Diabetes. J Obes Overweig 5(1): 101.
10. **Yagüe, Mirian De La Puente, et al. (2020).** Role of Vitamin D in Athletes and Their Performance: Current Concepts and New Trends. Nutrients, vol. 12, no. 2, p. 579.
11. **Lips P, Eekhoff M, van Schoor N, Oosterwerff M, de Jongh R, et al. (2017).** Vitamin D and type 2 diabetes. J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol 173: 280-5.
12. **Alam, U., Arul-Devah, V., Javed, S. and Malik, R.A. (2016).** Vitamin D and diabetic complications: true or false prophet? Diabetes Ther. 7, 11–26.
13. **Wimalawansa, S.J. (2016).** Associations of vitamin D with insulin resistance, obesity, type 2 diabetes, and metabolic syndrome. J. Steroid Biochem. Mol.Biol. pii: S0960-0760(16)30253-9.
14. **Tajik, E. (2019).** Effect of Vitamin D on Glucose Homeostasis, Sensitivity and Insulin Resistance in Type 2 Diabetes. Current Research in Diabetes and Obesity Journal, 11(2).
15. **Oraby, M. I., Srie, M. A., Abdelshafy, S., and Elfar, E. (2019).** Diabetic peripheral neuropathy: The potential role of vitamin D deficiency. The Egyptian Journal of Neurology, Psychiatry and Neurosurgery, 55(1).
16. **Patel, D., and Pandya, H. (2020).** Prevalence and severity of vitamin D deficiency in type 2 diabetic patients. International Journal of Advances in Medicine, 7(8), 1251.
17. **Dai, J., Jiang, C., Chen, H., and Chai, Y. (2020).** Assessment of the Risk Factors of Multidrug-Resistant Organism Infection in Adults With Type 1 or Type 2 Diabetes and Diabetic Foot Ulcer. Canadian Journal of Diabetes, 44(4), 342-349.
18. **Al-Rawaf, H. A., Gabr, S. A., and Alghadir, A. H. (2019).** Molecular Changes in Diabetic Wound Healing following Administration of Vitamin D and Ginger Supplements: Biochemical and Molecular Experimental Study. Evidence-Based Complementary and Alternative Medicine, 2019, 1-13.
19. **Hu, Z., Chen, J., Sun, X., Wang, L., and Wang, A. (2019).** Efficacy of vitamin D supplementation on glycemic control in type 2 diabetes patients. Medicine, 98(14).
20. **Park, S. K., Garland, C. F., Gorham, E. D., Budoff, L., and Barrett-Connor, E. (2018).** Plasma 25-hydroxyvitamin D concentration and risk of type 2 diabetes and pre-diabetes: 12-year cohort study. Plos One, 13(4).
21. **Berridge MJ. (2017).** Vitamin D deficiency and diabetes. Biochem J 474: Sergeev, I.N. (2016) 1,25-Dihydroxyvitamin D₃ and type 2 diabetes: Ca²⁺-dependent molecular mechanisms and the role of vitamin D status. Horm.Mol. Biol. Clin. Invest. 26,61–65.1321-32.
22. **Borges, J.M. (2014).** Suplementação com Vitamina D: Uma revisão sistemática. In: UFBA/SIBI/Bibliotheca Gonçalo
23. **Negalur, V. (2014).** Vitamin D and Diabetes Mellitus. RSSDI Textbook of Diabetes Mellitus, 1062-1062.
24. **Rak, K., and Bronkowska, M. (2018).** Immunomodulatory Effect of Vitamin D and Its Potential Role in the Prevention and Treatment of Type 1 Diabetes Mellitus—A Narrative Review. Molecules, 24(1), 53.
25. **Greenhagen, R. M., Frykberg, R. G., and Wukich, D. K. (2019).** Serum vitamin D and diabetic foot complications. Diabetic Foot and Ankle, 10(1), 1579631.
26. **Rafiq, S., and Jeppesen, P. (2018).** Body Mass Index, Vitamin D, and Type 2 Diabetes: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. Nutrients, 10(9), 1182.
27. **Krishna, S. M. (2019).** Vitamin D as A Protector of Arterial Health: Potential Role in Peripheral Arterial Disease Formation. International Journal of Molecular Sciences, 20(19), 4907.
28. **Jamwal S, Sharma S. (2018).** Vascular endothelium dysfunction: a conservative target in metabolic disorders. Inflamm Res. 67(5):391–405.
29. **Qu GB, Wang LL, Tang X, et al. (2017).** The association between vitamin D level and diabetic peripheral neuropathy in patients with type 2 diabetes

- mellitus: An update systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Clin Transl Endocrinol.* 9: 25–31.
30. **Angellotti, E., and Pittas, A. G. (2017).** The Role of Vitamin D in the Prevention of Type 2 Diabetes: To D or Not to D? *Endocrinology*, 158(7), 2013-2021.
31. **Asfandiyarova, N. S. (2015).** A review of mortality in type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes Mellitus*, 18(4), 12-21.
32. **Alshayban, D., and Joseph, R. (2020).** Health-related quality of life among patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus in Eastern Province, Saudi Arabia: A cross-sectional study. *Plos One*, 15(1).
33. **Decarlo, K., and Wallia, A. (2019).** Inpatient Management of T2DM and Hyperglycemia in Older Adults. *Current Diabetes Reports*, 19(10).
34. **Vatansever, Z., Özsoylu, S., Kendirci, M., and Akyildiz, B. (2020).** The effect of thiaminepyrophosphate levels on mortality and morbidity in patients with stresshyperglycemia. *The Journal of Pediatric Academy*, 25-29.
35. **Schmitt, J., Rahman, A. F., and Ashraf, A. (2020).** Concurrent diabetic ketoacidosis with hyperosmolality and/or severe hyperglycemia in youth with type 2 diabetes. *Endocrinology, Diabetes and Metabolism*, 3(3).
36. **Janež, A., Guja, C., Mitrakou, A., Lalic, N., Tankova, T., Czupryniak, L., Smircic-Duvnjak, L. (2020).** Insulin Therapy in Adults with Type 1 Diabetes Mellitus: A Narrative Review. *Diabetes Therapy*, 11(2), 387-409.
37. **Bolajoko, E. B., Akinosun, O. M., and Khine, A. A. (2020).** Hyperglycemia-induced oxidative stress in the development of diabetic foot ulcers. *Diabetes*, 35-48.
38. **Gupta, A., Sharma, S. C., and Sharma, J. P. (2019).** Clinical Profile and Outcome of Diabetic Foot in a Tertiary Care Centre. *International Journal of Contemporary Surgery*, 7(2), 14.
39. **Ogba, O. M., Nsan, E., and Eyam, E. S. (2019).** Aerobic bacteria associated with diabetic foot ulcers and their susceptibility pattern. *Biomedical Dermatology*, 3(1).
40. **Radji, M., Putri, C. S., and Fauziyah, S. (2014).** Antibiotic therapy for diabetic foot infections in a tertiary care hospital in Jakarta, Indonesia. *Diabetes and Metabolic Syndrome: Clinical Research and Reviews*, 8(4), 221-224.
41. **Barman, R., and Jain, S. (2017).** Bacteriological profile of diabetic foot ulcer with special reference to drug-resistant strains in a tertiary care center in North-East India. *Indian Journal of Endocrinology and Metabolism*, 21(5), 688.
42. **Saseedharan S., Sahu M., Chaddha R., Pathrose E., Bal A., Bhalekar P., Sekar P., and Krishnan P. (2018).** Epidemiology of diabetic foot infections in India. *Braz J Microbiol.*; 49: 401-406.
43. **Perim, M. C., Borges, J. D., Celeste, S. R., Orsolin, E. D., Mendes, R. R., Mendes, G. O., Pranchevicius, M. C. (2015).** Aerobic bacterial profile and antibiotic resistance in patients with diabetic foot infections. *Revista Da Sociedade Brasileira De Medicina Tropical*, 48(5), 546-554.
44. **Shanmugam P, Jeya M, Linda S. (2013).** Bacteriology of diabetic foot ulcers, with a special reference to multidrug resistant strains. *J Clin Diagn Res.* 7(3):441–5.
45. **Altrichter L. C, Legout L., Assal M., Rohner P., Hoffmeyer P., Bernard L. (2015).** Severe *Streptococcus agalactiae* infection of the diabetic foot. *Presse Med.* 34 :491–4.
46. **M., S. S., M.k., U., Rodrigues, G. S., Vyas, N., and Mukhopadhyay, C. (2018).** Antimicrobial susceptibility pattern of aerobes in diabetic foot ulcers in a South-Indian tertiary care hospital. *The Foot*, 37, 95-100.
47. **Nelson, A., Wright-Hughes, A., Backhouse, M. R., Lipsky, B. A., Nixon, J., Bhogal, M. S., Brown, S. (2018).** CODIFI (Concordance in Diabetic Foot Ulcer Infection): A cross-sectional study of wound swab versus tissue sampling in infected diabetic foot ulcers in England. *BMJ Open*, 8(1).
48. **Dunyach-Remy C., Ngba Essebe C., Sotto A., Lavigne J. P. (2016).** *Staphylococcus aureus* toxins and diabetic foot ulcers: role in pathogenesis and interest in diagnosis. vol 8, no 7, July, p 209.
49. **Ramsey MM, Freire MO, Gabriliska RA, Rumbaugh KP, Lemon KP. (2016).** *Staphylococcus aureus* shifts toward commensalism in response to *corynebacterium* species *Front Microbiol*;7:1230
50. **I, A., and Ma, B. (2017).** Antibiotic Susceptibility Pattern of Bacterial Isolates from Patients of Respiratory Tract Infection at 43 Centers in Punjab, Pakistan. *Clinical and Experimental Pharmacology*, 07(02).
51. **Shareef, J., Sunny, S., and Bhagavan, K. (2018).** Study on bacteriological profile and antibiotic susceptibility pattern in patients with diabetic foot ulcers in a tertiary care teaching hospital. *Journal of Social Health and Diabetes*, 06(01), 040-047.
52. **Patil, S. V., and Mane, R. R. (2017).** Bacterial and clinical profile of diabetic foot ulcer using optimal culture techniques. *International Journal of Research in Medical Sciences*, 5(2), 496.
53. **Hasan, A. Y. (2017).** Antibiotic Susceptibility of Bacterial Isolates from Diabetes Patients with Foot Ulcers. *Diyala Journal For Pure Science*, 13(3), 163-174.
54. **Dorgham, M. T. (2019).** Bacteriological Profile of Diabetic Foot Infections and its Antibiotic Resistance Pattern in Alexandria Main University Hospital. *International Journal of Current Microbiology and Applied Sciences*, 8(10), 1432-1442.
55. **Sarla, D. (2019).** Microbial isolates in diabetic foot ulcers: Culture and sensitivity patterns and antibiotic resistance. *Journal of Medical Science and Clinical Research*, 7(5).
56. **Ji, X., Jin, P., Chu, Y., Feng, S., and Wang, P. (2014).** Clinical Characteristics and Risk Factors of

Diabetic Foot Ulcer With Multidrug-Resistant Organism Infection. The International Journal of Lower Extremity Wounds, 13(1), 64-71.

57. **Kang WJ, Shi L, Shi Y, Cheng L, Ai HW, Zhao WJ. (2018).** Analysis on distribution, drug resistance and risk factors of multi drug resistant bacteria in diabetic foot infection. Biomed Res.; 28:10186-10190.

58. **Gupta A., Sharma S. C., and Sharma J. P. (2019).** Clinical Profile and Outcome of Diabetic Foot in a Tertiary Care Centre. International Journal of Contemporary Surgery 7(2) 14.

59. **Stacy A., Everett J., Jorth P., Trivedi U., Rumbaugh K. P., and Whiteley M. (2014).** Bacterial fightandflight responses enhance virulence in a polymicrobial infection Proc Natl Acad Sci a 111(78) 19-24.

60. **Hassan M. A., Tamer T. M., Rageh A.A., Abou-Zeid A. M., Abd El-Zaher E. H. F., and Kenawy E. R. (2019).** Insight into multidrug-resistant microorganisms from microbial infected diabetic foot ulcers. Diabetes Metab Syndr. 13:1261-1270.

61. **Sharma, R. (2020).** Clinico Microbiological Spectrum of Diabetic Foot Ulcer with Multidrug Resistant Organisms at Tertiary Care Hospital, Jaipur. Journal of Medical Science and Clinical Research, 08(07).

62. **Riedel S., Morse S. A., Mietzner T. A., and Miller S. (2019).** Jawetz Melnick and Adelberg's medical microbiology. New York: McGraw-Hill Education.8 (26)3-18.

الملخص

تهدف هذه الدراسة المايكروبيولوجية الى معرفة العلاقة بين نقص فيتامين (د) في مرضى قرح القدم السكرية وتشخيص أنواع البكتيريا الهوائية المسببة لها، مع معرفة مقاومتها لبعض المضادات الحيوية المستخدمة. الدراسة الحالية هي دراسة مقطعية. اجريت الدراسة في محافظة صلاح الدين، من 12 اب 2019 إلى 25 شباط 2020. سبعون مريضاً عانوا من قرحة القدم السكرية (41 ذكر و 29 أنثى) اخذت لهم مسحة من مكان القرحة بواسطة سواب معقم ونقلت إلى المختبر. اظهرت النتائج ارتفاع معنوي عالي عند مستوى ($p \leq 0.01$) في تركيز مصل الدم لفيتامين د لدى الاشخاص المصابين بالقدم السكرية والاشخاص المصابين بالسكري مقارنة مع المجموعة الضابطة. كما وجدنا ارتفاع معنوي عند مستوى ($p \leq 0.01$) في عدد مرضى الذكور المصابين مقارنة بالإناث. كما بينت النتائج ان (87%) مرضى DFU لديهم اصابة بكتيرية ، كما سجلت الإصابة التي كان سببها عدة انواع من البكتريا (60.7%) نسبة أكثر من إصابة بجرثومة مفردة (39.3%) ، بالإضافة إلى أن نسبة الإصابة بالبكتيريا الموجبة (58.7%) كانت اعلى من البكتيريا السالبة (41%). اظهرت الدراسة ان اعلى نسبة بكتريا عزلت من القرحة القدم السكرية هي S.aureus (36.7%)، بينما كانت S. ficaria المسبب الوحيد للعدوى وقد تم عزلها بنسبة (0.9%). كانت معظم العزلات البكتيرية المسببة DFU مقاومة للمضادات الحيوية المستخدمة ما عدا الليغوفلوكساسين حيث كانت معظم العزلات حساسة، في الوقت ذاته، كانت البكتيريا شديدة المقاومة للكارينسلين (100%).