

1 *Review*

2 **Pediatric Thermal Burns and Treatment: A Review of Progress and Future** 3 **Prospects**

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9 **Abstract**

10 Burns is a pervasive and oppressive basic care issue. In children, burn injuries are a major reason
11 for bleakness and mortality. The quirks in the physiology of liquid and electrolyte taking care of,
12 the vital necessity and the distinctions in the different body extends in children direct that the
13 pediatric wounds administration ought to be brought with an alternate point of view than for
14 adults. Notwithstanding, for the intensivist, challenges regularly exist that muddle quiet help and
15 adjustment. Moreover, burn injuries are mind-boggling and can show exceptional challenges that
16 require deep-rooted recovery. Investigation in burn wound care has yielded progressions that will
17 keep on improving practical recuperation. What's more, pain management all through this period
18 is essential. Managing these wounds requires escalated therapeutic treatment for multi-organ
19 dysfunction, and forceful surgical treatment to forestall sepsis and other inconveniences. The
20 biological therapeutic bilayered skin substitutes with a long shelf life that recapitulates the normal
21 barrier function of the intact human skin and stimulate wound repair and skin regeneration. A
22 definitive objective is to accomplish a perfect skin substitute that gives a successful and without
23 scar wound recuperating. This review article features the headway in pediatric burn wounds with
24 an emphasis on the pathophysiology and treatment of burn wounds.

25 **Keywords:** burns; treatment; pediatric; autograft; biological skin substitute; thermal

26

27 **1. Introduction**

28 Approximately one-third of burn injuries in the United States (U.S.) occur in the pediatric
29 population. Pediatric burns resulting in the hospitalization of subjects under 5 years of age are most
30 frequently caused by scalding, whereas fire and flame injuries are a more common etiology amongst
31 older pediatric subjects [1,2]. Each day, about 300 pediatric burn-related injuries are treated in
32 emergency rooms [3]. Of the approximately 105,000 burn injuries reported in the U.S. in 2015 to
33 individuals under the age of 18, 9% were non-fatal injuries involving hospitalization or transfer.
34 Depending upon the extent of the burn, hospitalization can be protracted. Amongst infants,
35 children, and adolescents aged 1-17 in the U.S. in 2015, fires and burns were the sixth leading cause
36 of non-fatal unintentional injuries leading to hospitalizations and transfers [4]. Fires and burns are
37 currently the fifth leading cause of deaths in the United States that occur in the home, the
38 third-leading cause of unintentional injury-related fatalities among children and adolescents ages
39 5-14, and the fourth most prevalent cause for infants and children ages 1-4 [5]. National preventive
40 measures and education efforts have successfully lowered the number of burns in the United States
41 [6]. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) has implemented a National Action Plan
42 in order to raise awareness and reduce the numbers of pediatric burn injuries by targeting six areas
43 including data and surveillance, research, communication, education and training, health systems
44 and healthcare, and policy [7]. Efforts include teaching families about lowering water heater

45 temperatures, testing bath temperatures, and raising water heaters off the ground to prevent house
46 fires.

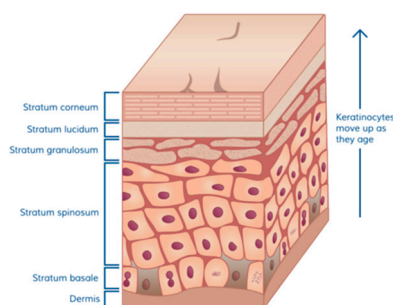
47 Specific specialties need to concentrate on balancing out the patient, forestalling disease, and
48 enhancing utilitarian recuperation. In children, burn injuries are a major reason for bleakness and
49 mortality. One needs to remember that "children are not simply little grown-ups"; there are sure
50 highlights in this age assemble that needs special attention and care. The quirks in the physiology of
51 liquid and electrolyte taking care of, the uniqueness of the vital necessity and the distinctions in the
52 different body extends in children direct that the pediatric wounds administration ought to be
53 brought with an alternate point of view than for grown-ups [8]. Recent advancement shows that
54 critical headway has brought about more successful patient adjustment and diminished mortality,
55 particularly among young patients and those with burns in the middle of the road degree.

56 This review focuses on current advancements in wound healing and pain care management in
57 pediatric patients.

58 2. Background

59 2.1 Skin Function

60 As the interface with the external environment, the skin serves as an effective barrier to chemicals,
61 toxins, and irritants. Intact skin functions to prevent local infection of the dermis or other underlying
62 tissue by microorganisms (e.g., bacteria, fungi, and other pathogens). Skin also regulates
63 temperature and fluid homeostasis, serving as a barrier to the loss of water vapor and heat from the
64 body. For individuals with significant skin loss, disruption of cutaneous barrier function not only
65 results in a continuous risk of life-threatening infection but also mandates continuous fluid
66 resuscitation and protection from environmental toxins [14].



67

68

69 [Figure 1](#): Cuboidal cells above the dermal matrix representing the basal cells.

70 Normal skin is composed of three basic parts: a dermal matrix composed of collagen and other
71 extracellular matrix glycoproteins that provides resiliency and elasticity and is constantly restored
72 by dermal fibroblasts, an overlying epidermal layer with the outermost layer containing a thick oily
73 layer of desquamating cells that prevent water loss and exposure to foreign invaders, and skin
74 appendages including hair follicles, sweat glands, Merkel cells, and Langerhans crypts which
75 contain immunological cells. The skin of full-term infants contains the same layers as are present in
76 adult skin, however, the infant dermis is thin and steadily increases in thickness from infancy to
77 puberty [9]. In native skin, the epidermis is attached to the dermis via a thick basement membrane
78 which is produced by the basal keratinocytes. The cuboidal cells shown above the dermal matrix in
79 [Figure 1](#) [10] represent the basal cells that are the continuous source, through cell division, of the

80 upper layers of the epidermis. As basal keratinocytes divide, some undergo differentiation during
81 which specific proteins and lipids needed to generate an epidermal permeability barrier are
82 produced [11].

83 The barrier function of the skin is dependent on the differentiation of keratinocytes to generate
84 mature squames (flattened cells at the top of Figure 1). This process includes the assembly of highly
85 cross-linked proteins into a cornified envelope beneath the plasma membrane, secretion of lipids
86 into the intercellular space, and finally keratinocyte enucleation. Cells gradually die and the
87 squames are then sloughed off by friction, cleaning, and other minor trauma. Bacteria that attempt to
88 invade through the skin are thus captured in and among dying cells that are subsequently shed. In
89 addition, as keratinocytes differentiate they produce host defense peptides which are a critical
90 component of innate defenses against wound infection. These antimicrobial peptides act locally
91 within the epidermal and stromal tissues of skin and protect against a broad range of
92 microorganisms, fungi, and viruses [12]. During injury, keratinocytes are also a rich source of
93 chemotactic and growth factors that are crucial to the orchestration of the immune response and
94 wound healing [13].

95 Loss or disruption of skin function often results in significant mortality and morbidity, putting the
96 individual at significant risk of extended hospitalization and death. Disruption of homeostatic and
97 barrier functions leaves the underlying tissues highly susceptible to infection. Such local infections
98 when left unchecked can quickly result in systemic infection [14].

99 *2.2 Overview of pathophysiology of burn wounds in pediatric patients*

100 Burn pathophysiology is similar in adult and pediatric populations, however, differences in their
101 size and metabolic state requires extra consideration in the treatment of pediatric burns. Of
102 immediate concern in the treatment of burns is inhalation injury, which is among the most lethal
103 aspects of burns. Subjects with burns must be monitored for carbon monoxide poisoning and acute
104 respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) [15]. The risk for airway compromise and likelihood for
105 intubation is increased in pediatric subjects due to a smaller airway opening and greater risk for
106 closure from edema [6]. In response to a burn injury, an inflammatory response characterized by the
107 release of catecholamines, vasoactive mediators, and inflammatory markers which can trigger the
108 onset of systemic inflammatory release syndrome (SIRS), regardless of the age of the subject.
109 Resulting capillary leaks induce protein loss and interstitial edema [15]. The combination of tissue
110 injury, inflammatory response, and hypovolemia can cause shock-associated hypotension and
111 myocardial depression [6,15]. Tachycardia is frequently observed in those with burns, regardless of
112 age [15]. While an inflammatory response is a characteristic in both pediatric and adult populations,
113 pediatric subjects may mount a greater reaction and are generally more vulnerable to the systemic
114 effects. They are also more susceptible to the post-burn hypermetabolic state induced by
115 inflammatory factors release [6]. In this state, catabolism increases and anabolic hormone levels
116 decrease, causing loss of muscle and bone mineral density and content and potentially interfering
117 with wound healing [15]. Care of subjects with burns must involve nutritional support to sustain
118 lean body mass and to promote wound healing. The hypermetabolic state is sustained long after
119 wound closure is achieved, with protein breakdown continuing six to nine months after the initial
120 trauma. Despite nutritional supplementation, bone growth in pediatric subjects is delayed for two
121 years after burn injury [6]. Additionally, a continuing need for skin growth and elasticity to
122 accommodate growth complicates wound and scar management in pediatric burns.

123 Most major burns are complex and may consist of superficial, deep partial-thickness, and
124 full-thickness injury admixed. The dermal layer of the skin is generally thinner in neonates, infants,
125 and children than adults, steadily increasing in thickness from infancy to puberty [9,21,22]. From a
126 given heat exposure, this contributes to a greater depth of burn injury in most children compared to

127 non-geriatric adults [16]. For example, the immersion time to induce burn by water at 130° F is 30
128 seconds for an adult, but only 10 seconds for a child and less than 5 seconds for an infant [23]. Thin
129 skin coupled with reduced subcutaneous fat stores renders the initial assessment of the depth of
130 injury more difficult in pediatric burns [8].

131 Loss of skin due to burns results in concomitant loss of its barrier function. Skin loss due to burn
132 injury impairs thermoregulation and reduces the body's ability to retain heat and water [15].
133 Subjects with burns require heat conservation to prevent hypothermia as well as fluid resuscitation
134 to compensate for fluid loss and capillary leakage. The pediatric surface area to mass ratios can be
135 nearly three times that of adults, leading to proportionally greater evaporative fluid loss in pediatric
136 subjects [8]. Neonates, infants, and children also have higher blood volumes relative to their mass,
137 averaging ~80 mL/kg body weight compared to the adult average of 70 mL/kg [6]. As such, fluid
138 resuscitation in pediatric burn cases necessitates larger volumes per unit body weight, and dextrose
139 is often co-administered to those under 20 kg (44 lb) to avoid hypoglycemia [15,17]. Enhanced
140 evaporative loss and need for isotonic fluids increases the risk of hypothermia in this population.
141 Burn-associated fluid loss, protein loss, a decrease in blood volume, and SIRS can result in renal and
142 hepatic system dysfunction and are significant concerns in both pediatric and adult populations.

143 3. Current Management of Complex Skin Defects - Autograft

144 Severe burns are best viewed as a continuum which may exist as a mosaic within the same wound
145 area, requiring effective management of both full-thickness regions and those with intact dermal
146 elements. Although some complex skin defects with intact dermal elements may heal without
147 autografting, the time required to heal these wounds is greater than 3 weeks. During this time, these
148 open wounds are at risk for infection and other complications that further delay wound closure.
149 Moreover, when allowed to heal on their own, these wounds exhibit significant scarring,
150 contracture, and loss of function. Due to the significant morbidity in terms of time to healing,
151 infection, and scarring, coupled with poor outcomes, complex skin defects with intact dermal
152 elements and full-thickness burns are treated as a single clinical entity [18,19,20].

153 After stabilization from sequelae of traumatic injury, the medical management of choice for deep
154 partial-thickness and full-thickness burn wounds in subjects of any age is excision of non-viable
155 tissue from the wound followed by placement of an autograft as soon as possible. Autografting
156 involves the surgical harvest of healthy skin from an uninjured site (the donor site) and its
157 placement on the primary wound site. Skin grafts are typically split-thickness, e.g., comprised of the
158 epidermis and the top portion of the dermis. Although wound coverage by split-thickness autograft
159 is the standard of care for sufficiently large or deep burns, its harvest requires a surgical procedure
160 and results in the creation of a secondary, iatrogenic wound that is painful and susceptible to fluid
161 loss, infection, and permanent scarring.

162 Pediatric subjects represent a highly-vulnerable population for which harvest of autograft is
163 undesirable. The identification of an appropriate donor site is a critical consideration in the decision
164 to autograft [24]. The skin of neonates, infants, and children possesses a relatively thin dermal layer,
165 minimizing the depth of tissue that can be harvested with retention of dermis across the donor site.
166 Donor sites selection typically involves the identification of large, relatively planar areas of healthy
167 skin that can be hidden by clothing to reduce the cosmetic impact of potential scarring resulting
168 from surgical harvest of autograft. In pediatric subjects, this can be complicated by limitations in the
169 area of available healthy skin in less contoured regions due to their relatively small total body
170 surface area, which may be further restricted in those with extensive skin defects. In extensively
171 burned pediatric subjects, the scalp is often used as a donor site for split-thickness skin grafts
172 because of its relatively large surface area and ability to heal rapidly. However, harvesting autograft
173 tissue from the scalp can result in excessive blood loss, hypertrophic scarring, scalp alopecia, and

174 chronic folliculitis. In addition, the cosmetic outcome at both treatment and donor sites can be
175 complicated by the subject's growth rate. For example, the surface area of the thorax increases
176 14-fold from infancy to puberty. Despite these challenges, cosmesis of both treatment and donor
177 sites can be important contributors to social development and lifelong emotional health [25].

178 Regardless of age, autograft donor sites become painful wounds with concomitant water vapor loss,
179 susceptibility to infection, and formation of a permanent scar. In the youngest subjects, the risk of
180 infection is increased if the donor site is covered or partially covered by a diaper. In addition, donor
181 site wound care in the pediatric population is especially critical due to the need for pain control
182 during dressing changes. Donor site wounds are typically more painful than the primary wound
183 [26]. In the pediatric population specifically, the intense pain associated with donor site wounds
184 must be carefully managed in order to avoid lasting psychological effects. In the United States,
185 hospitalization of those with pediatric and adult burns who have sustained a $\leq 10\%$ TBSA
186 full-thickness or deep partial-thickness burn is aimed at monitoring and controlling donor site pain
187 resulting from autograft harvest. In an effort to minimize donor site size, harvested autografts are
188 typically meshed and expanded to cover an area larger than the donor site. However, this expansion
189 creates a mesh pattern in the autografted area resulting in an inferior cosmetic outcome. Limited
190 healthy skin can also necessitate sequential reharvesting of available donor sites, delaying definitive
191 closure. This delay increases the risk of infection and scarring at the wound site and often
192 necessitates the use of cadaver allograft as a temporary cover. Sequential autografting may increase
193 a subject's anxiety and fear due to the need for multiple surgical procedures with associated pain
194 and prolonged hospitalization [27].

195 Autografting can provide wound closure, but can also result in serious consequences related to
196 iatrogenic donor site wounds created during the surgical excision of the healthy autologous tissue.
197 Donor site wounds can be extremely painful, result in a significant physiologic burden,
198 dyspigmentation, and scarring and can convert to full-thickness wounds requiring management to
199 provide definitive closure. Unfortunately, neither the final healed split-thickness autograft nor the
200 healed donor sites are wholly normal skin in terms of thickness, elasticity, and strength, and even
201 successful procedures result in a disfiguring scar. Thus, it is clinically meaningful to minimize or
202 eliminate the need to harvest skin tissue for an autograft.

203 Both the healed, autografted wound sites and donor sites must undergo continuous, life-long
204 physical and rehabilitative therapy to minimize scarring, release contractures, and promote
205 long-term functionality of the healed wounds. Even with this intensive therapy, the resulting skin is
206 often thin, sensitive, and easily damaged. Special precautions must be taken to maintain proper
207 moisturization as well as effective sunscreen protection of the healed areas. Moreover, the grafted
208 skin often develops contractures over time which in turn may result in wound reopening and/or
209 limited mobility. Overall, the treatment regimen for complex skin defects is a cumbersome, painful
210 process involving sequential surgical excision, temporary cadaver grafting, and autografting, and
211 risks wholly unsatisfactory outcomes. Alternatives to the practice of donor site harvest and
212 autografting for the treatment of severe burns and other complex skin defects are urgently needed
213 for both adult and pediatric populations.

214 Surgeons studiously avoid autografting in pediatric patients due to the exposure to general
215 anesthesia required for donor site harvest and its effect on development, and also the desire to
216 minimize pain and the risk of donor site sequelae. The anesthetist's role would include resuscitation,
217 analgesia, sedation, anesthesia, and intensive care. Utmost care needs to be taken by providing
218 adequate, early fluid resuscitation to maintain organ perfusion and control the extent of the burn
219 injury itself. All burns require immediate cooling to halt the burning process; prolonged cooling of
220 burns 15% BSA risks hypothermia in children. The burn should be covered with a sterile
221 non-adherent dressing [16]. The surgeon must understand the physiologic derangements that occur

222 with severe burn injury as well as the subsequent anesthetic implications [28]. The most common
223 complication is failure or delay in healing of the burn or donor site, which may relate to local
224 infection, underlying catabolism, or both. Infection can occur in the wound itself, donor sites, or in
225 association with invasive vascular lines or catheters (burns in children).

226 4. Clinical Need and Rationale

227 Every year in the United States, approximately 45,000 individuals experience burns that require
228 them to be hospitalized, and of those individuals, approximately 10-20% require surgical
229 intervention such as autografting [1,29,30]. Depending upon the extent of the burn, hospitalization
230 can often be protracted. Based on data in the 2016 National Burn Repository Annual Report, which
231 includes data collected from 96 hospitals from 36 states and the District of Columbia between 2006
232 and 2015, the average duration of hospitalization lengthens with increasing burn size by
233 approximately 1 day or more for each percent TBSA burned [1]. In the pediatric population, scald
234 and contact burns are the most common etiology in infants and younger children, whereas fire flame
235 dominates amongst adolescents suffering burns [1]. Most pediatric burn injuries are approximately
236 20% TBSA, of which the majority of the wound is full-thickness [2]. Approximately 10,000 people in
237 the United States die of burn-related infections every year [30]. Amongst those aged 1-17 in the U.S.
238 in 2015, fire and burns were the sixth leading cause of hospitalizations and transfers for non-fatal
239 unintentional injuries leading to hospitalization [4]. Fires and burns are currently the fifth leading
240 cause of deaths in the United States that occur in the home, the third-leading cause of unintentional
241 injury-related fatalities among children and adolescents aged 5-14, and the fourth most prevalent
242 cause for infants and children aged 1-4 [5].

243 For the pediatric population, the harvest of autograft is undesirable. Infants and children possess
244 thinner skin and represent unique challenges in both pain control and wound management during
245 care of both the burn wound and donor sites. They typically have limited surface area from which to
246 harvest autograft. The risk of infection is increased if the donor site is covered or partially covered by
247 a diaper. In extensively burned infants and children, the scalp is often used as a donor site for
248 split-thickness skin grafts because of its relatively large surface area and ability to heal rapidly.
249 However, harvesting autograft tissue from the scalp can result in excessive blood loss, hypertrophic
250 scarring, scalp alopecia, and chronic folliculitis. In addition, the cosmetic outcome at both treatment
251 and donor sites can be complicated by their growth rate, yet are important to lifelong emotional
252 health and social development [25]. Finally, donor site wound care in the pediatric population is
253 especially critical due to the need for pain control during dressing changes. In the United States,
254 hospitalization of those who have sustained a $\leq 10\%$ TBSA full-thickness or deep partial-thickness
255 burn is aimed at monitoring and controlling donor site pain resulting from autograft harvest [31].

256 Given the seriousness of complex burns in both pediatric and adults populations, new therapies are
257 needed that minimize or eliminate the need for autograft. Although advancements in the medical
258 management of burns have been dramatic since the introduction of surgical wound debridement by
259 Janzekovic in the 1970's [32], the SOC for burns remains the harvest of healthy skin from donor sites
260 and its transplantation to the injury. At the 2014 International Congress on Pediatric Burns hosted by
261 Shriners Hospital for Children and the Massachusetts General Hospital, the practice of donor site
262 harvest was described as a barbaric procedure that urgently required new approaches and
263 technologies. For over 30 years, burn care professionals have sought an alternative to autograft
264 harvest and its concomitant transplantation. Skin substitute technologies to date have not provided
265 the critical functions of intact human skin nor have they stimulated or restored the body's
266 endogenous repair capabilities. The critical function of a skin substitute is to achieve a thick, viable,
267 epidermal layer that is firmly attached to a dermal matrix and thereby exerts "both mechanical and
268 physiological effects by protecting the wound, maintaining microbial control, and hastening wound
269 maturation" [33]. There is a need to generate an off-the-shelf living human skin substitute, to

270 promote wound healing while limiting the harvest of healthy skin and reducing the creation of
271 iatrogenic donor site wounds.

272 5. Summary of Currently Approved Products

273 Several products developed for the adult burn market have been shown to promote healing in
274 pediatric burns, though many still necessitate autograft harvest and transplantation to achieve
275 wound closure. Products used for the treatment of burn wounds the pediatric population includes
276 animal collagen-derived dermal substitutes, cultured epithelial sheets, and bilayered skin
277 substitutes.

278 Acellular dermal substitutes Biobrane® and Integra® have shown efficacy in the treatment of
279 pediatric burn wounds. These products lack an epidermal layer but provide barrier function via a
280 silicone membrane. Biobrane consists of a silastic silicone membrane bonded to a nylon membrane
281 coated with peptides derived from porcine dermal collagen. Biobrane has been shown to be effective
282 for the management of partial-thickness burns in children and superior to topical 1% silver
283 sulfadiazine or beta-glucan collagen matrix in time to closure [34,35,36]. Integra is made from bovine
284 collagen and shark cartilage glycosaminoglycan with a silicone membrane covering providing a
285 barrier to water vapor loss. It is approved for use in life-threatening full-thickness or deep
286 partial-thickness thermal burns in adults without sufficient autograft or with physiological
287 conditions prohibiting autografting. Treatment of pediatric burns with Integra resulted in improved
288 cosmesis in comparison to autograft-allograft treatment [37]. It has also been used successfully for
289 other complex skin defects in pediatric subjects, including acute traumatic wounds and congenital
290 abnormalities such as cutis aplasia [38]. Integra is slowly vascularized, which delays definitive
291 wound closure with split-thickness skin grafts, and as with other products containing bovine
292 collagen, there is increasing concern regarding the transmission of bovine spongiform
293 encephalopathy (BSE).

294 Unlike acellular dermal substitutes, TransCyte® is comprised of human fibroblasts grown on nylon
295 mesh coated with porcine collagen and bonded to a silicone membrane. In its first pediatric burn
296 trial, TransCyte treatment resulted in significantly shorter hospitalization than treatment with
297 hydrodebridement and topical antimicrobials alone [39]. In the treatment of pediatric subjects with
298 partial-thickness burns, TransCyte encouraged more rapid reepithelialization than treatment with
299 Biobrane and reduced the need for subsequent autografting [40]. Despite encouraging results,
300 TransCyte is not currently marketed.

301 Autologous keratinocyte cultures have also been used clinically in both adult and pediatric
302 populations. Coverage of deep partial-thickness burns with cultured allogeneic keratinocytes has
303 been shown to reduce scarring associated with these wounds [41]. Autologous keratinocyte cultures,
304 such as Epicel®, consist of thin sheets of poorly-differentiated keratinocytes that contain no dermal
305 component and provide no barrier function. A patient biopsy is subjected to a lengthy culture period
306 of approximately four weeks to prepare Epicel, during which time the wounds must be managed
307 temporarily by other methods. The resulting epidermal sheets are fragile and difficult to handle and
308 have a shelf life of only 24 hours. Epicel was approved by the FDA in 2007 via Humanitarian Device
309 Exemption for treatment of burns of > 30% TBSA. It has been used successfully to treat large burn
310 injuries in both adult and pediatric populations, though its effectiveness has not been shown in a
311 clinical trial [42,43]. Since approval, 29% of individuals receiving Epicel were below 22 years of age
312 [44]. The poor handling characteristics, intensive coordination for tissue harvest, expansion of the
313 autologous keratinocytes, and short shelf life of Epicel compromises its utility in burn treatment.

314

315 Bioengineered skin substitutes composed of human keratinocytes growing on dermal analogs
316 containing living human fibroblasts reproduce many structural and biological features of intact
317 human skin. A recent study showed that engineered skin substitutes comprised of autologous
318 keratinocytes and fibroblasts reduced mortality and donor skin harvest in the treatment of
319 full-thickness burns of greater than 50% TBSA [45]. While these results are promising, the use of
320 autologous cells requires their harvest from the patient, followed by a lengthy culture process to
321 generate this custom treatment. This necessitates the use of temporary wound coverings such as
322 cadaver allograft and a delay in definitive closure of the burn wound. Any delays in definitive
323 closure increase the risk of infection and eventual scarring.

324 Two approved cellular products contain allogeneic keratinocytes and fibroblasts, alleviating the
325 obligate temporal delay for the manufacture of autologous products. OrCel® (Forticell Bioscience)
326 contains allogeneic keratinocytes and fibroblasts, however, the keratinocytes are not organized into
327 a fully-stratified epidermal layer and therefore this product does not exhibit a competent epidermal
328 barrier [46]. Further, this product is not currently marketed. The only currently-available,
329 full-thickness, bioengineered, allogeneic skin substitute approved in the United States is Apligraf®
330 (Organogenesis). Apligraf contains keratinocytes harvested from human skin tissue that are grown
331 atop a dermal analog composed of bovine collagen supplemented with living human fibroblasts
332 [46,47]. It has a well-defined epidermal component that likely provides some barrier function, and
333 use of up to 3 applications to the same site has shown success in the treatment of pediatric skin
334 wounds due to epidermolysis bullosa, an inherited connective tissue disorder [48]. Apligraf is
335 indicated as a second line treatment for chronic skin wounds after first-line therapies fail. Infection
336 was a major adverse event in clinical trials on venous stasis ulcers; 29.2% of subjects receiving
337 Apligraf had a suspected wound infection versus 14.0% in the control arm [49]. Although not
338 approved in this indication, it has been used for the management of severe burns in adults [50,51].
339 Well-documented disadvantages of Apligraf include its poor handling characteristics and the fact
340 that it rapidly disintegrates once placed in the wound bed, taking on an appearance which can be
341 misinterpreted as wound infection [52]. Additionally, the manufacturing costs of Apligraf will
342 necessarily remain high, as the human cells for Apligraf must regularly be sourced and requiring
343 costly adventitious agent testing for each new cell bank. Furthermore, Apligraf has a short shelf life
344 of 15 days [53].

345 6. Conclusion and Future prospects

346 A definitive objective is to accomplish a perfect skin substitute that gives a successful and without
347 scar wound recuperating. As a result of the limitations described above, there is a significant medical
348 need for the clinical development of innovative, next generation, off-the-shelf therapeutic bilayered
349 skin substitutes with a long shelf life that recapitulate the normal barrier function of the intact
350 human skin and stimulate wound repair and skin regeneration. The identification of near-diploid
351 human keratinocytes as a continuous, genetically uniform source of human keratinocyte with
352 dramatically improved wound-healing properties relative to current products and therapies in
353 adults. This kind of new technology might promise to significantly increase the therapeutic and
354 commercial value of the cultured skin substitute as a first-line therapy in the treatment of burns by
355 reducing surgical autografting in pediatric patients.

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358 and writing the review paper.

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