

ABSTRACT

A wound offers an ideal environment for the growth and proliferation of a variety of microorganisms which in some cases may lead to localised or even systemic infections that can be catastrophic for the patient - the development of biofilms exacerbates these infections. Over the past few decades, there has been a progressive development of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) in microorganisms across the board in healthcare sectors. Such resistant microorganisms have arisen primarily due to the abuse and overuse of antimicrobial treatments and the subsequent ability of microorganisms to rapidly change and mutate as a defence mechanism against treatment (e.g., antibiotics). These resistant microorganisms are now at such a level that they are of grave concern to the World Health Organisation (WHO) and are one of the leading causes of illness and mortality in the 21st Century. Treatment of such infections becomes imperative but presents a significant challenge for the clinician in that treatment must be effective but not add to the development of new microbes with AMR.

The strategy of antimicrobial stewardship has stemmed from the need to counteract these resistant microorganisms and requires that current antimicrobial treatments be used wisely to prevent amplification of AMR. It also requires new, improved, or alternative methods of treatment that will not worsen the situation. Thus, any antimicrobial treatment should be effective whilst not causing further development of resistance. Some antiseptics fall into this category and particularly polyhexamethylene hydrochloride biguanide (PHMB) has certain characteristics that make it an ideal solution to this problem of AMR, specifically within wound care applications. PHMB is a broad-spectrum antimicrobial that kills bacteria, fungi, parasites, and certain viruses with a high therapeutic index that is widely used in clinics, homes, and industry. It has been used for many years and has not been shown to cause the development of resistance and is safe (non-cytotoxic) not causing damage to newly growing wound tissue. Importantly there is substantial evidence for its effective use in wound care applications providing a sound basis for evidence-based practice.

This review presents the evidence for the use of PHMB treatments in wound care and its alignment with antimicrobial stewardship for the prevention and treatment of wound infection.

Keywords: polyhexamethylene hydrochloride biguanide (PHMB); infection; wound care; antimicrobial resistance

INTRODUCTION

Various levels of microorganism can be present in wounds. These levels range from wound colonisation, which is characterised by the presence of replicating bacteria in the wound but without causing any detrimental effects on the wound or tissue,¹ to wound infection which is typified by the

presence of high levels of proliferating bacteria that causes local tissue damage and delayed healing.² Wound infection involves the presence of more than one species of microorganism and, for wounds, *Staphylococcus* and *Pseudomonas* spp. are the most common.^{3,4}

However, wound infection can be exacerbated by the development of a biofilm: a community of microbial cells organised within a slimy extracellular matrix that is adherent to a surface (e.g., a wound surface).⁵ The presence of antimicrobial-resistant (AMR) microorganisms and the increased resistance to antimicrobial agents offered by a biofilm⁶ means that the removal of AMR microbes and biofilm are key to promoting wound healing.⁷ For infected wounds, the inclusion of antimicrobials is a requirement of the treatment regimen, and the use of topical antimicrobial agents can be an important component for infection control in wound care.⁸

Topical antimicrobials can be divided into three main groups:

- Disinfectants which are chemical substances or compounds used to inactivate or destroy microorganisms on inert surfaces (e.g., sodium hypochlorite).
- Antiseptics which are substances that destroy or inhibit the growth or action of microorganisms (as bacteria) especially in or on living tissue (e.g., polyhexamethylene hydrochloride biguanide (polyhexanide, PHMB), chlorhexidine, iodine, silver, hydrogen peroxide).
- Antibiotics which are substances that can inhibit or kill microorganisms (e.g., bacitracin, mupirocin, neomycin).

Disinfectants in the health-care setting are applied to inanimate objects and materials such as instruments and surfaces to control and prevent infection. Disinfectants are not used on wounds but are used to reduce microbial numbers on objects such as hospital trolleys and surgical instruments.⁹ Antiseptics and antibiotics are used to treat wound infections however there are advantages and disadvantages. For example, in contrast to antibiotics that specifically target a particular pathogen, antiseptics can target multiple microorganisms and therefore have a broader spectrum of activity. Antiseptic solutions are applied topically and help to reduce wound bioburden which is critical in promoting wound healing.^{8,10} Previously, antiseptics were not recommended for routine use in wound care,¹¹ their rise in popularity is driven in part by the current drive to reduce the prescribing of antibiotics due to concerns about drug resistance.^{8,12}

PHMB is a molecule composed of repeating basic biguanidine units connected by hexamethylene hydrocarbon chains leading to a cationic and amphipathic structure (Figure 1).¹³⁻¹⁵ PHMB is a mixture of polymers and is a synthetic compound structurally similar to naturally occurring antimicrobial

peptides (AMPs). The basic molecular chain of PHMB can be repeated from two to 30 times, with increasing polymer chain length correlating with increasing antiseptic/antimicrobial efficacy.¹⁶ PHMB was first synthesized in the 1950s.¹⁷ PHMB has been reviewed by the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and noted, with the exception of occupational users, as having a very low aggregate risk of adverse health effects to the public or environment.¹⁷⁻¹⁹ It has been shown to have a limited effect on mammalian cells.¹⁸ There is evidence that there is a wide safety margin when used in cosmetic²⁰ and clinical applications,²¹ including wound care treatments.²² It has low absorption via the epidermis and therefore a low probability of occurrence of allergic reactions.¹⁷

Several mechanisms of action (MoA) have been proposed. Previous studies on the MoA of PHMB have focused on its ability to interact with microbial membranes in preference to mammalian membranes.²³⁻²⁵ As previously stated, PHMB is structurally similar to AMPs and these AMPs have a broad spectrum of activity against bacteria, viruses, and fungi.²⁶ They are positively charged molecules that bind to bacterial cell membranes and induce cell lysis by destroying membrane integrity (Figure 2). PHMB binds to the negatively charged phosphate head groups of phospholipids at the bacteria cell wall, causing increased rigidity, sinking non-polar segments into hydrophobic domains, disrupting the membrane with subsequent cytoplasmic shedding culminating in cell death.^{27,28} The destabilisation of the bacterial membranes causes leakage of a number of important ions resulting in cell death.²⁹ At high concentrations of PHMB – concentrations used under antiseptic conditions – the bactericidal effect is very rapid but even at low concentrations the release of cellular constituents occurs. Other studies have suggested an alternate mechanism of action for PHMB. PHMB is able to enter bacterial cells, arrest cell division, and condense chromosomes.¹⁸ PHMB initiates the formation of a complex between PHMB and bacterial nucleic acid which results in the precipitation of DNA and its inactivation.³⁰⁻³² The binding of PHMB to DNA potentially blocks DNA replication or DNA repair pathways with subsequent cell division arrest and chromosome condensation (Figure 3).^{15,18}

PHMB is a broad-spectrum antimicrobial that kills bacteria, fungi, parasites and certain viruses with a high therapeutic index that is widely used in clinics, homes and industry.³³ It is a chemical antiseptic that is used as an active ingredient in a variety of personal care wet wipes and wound management products, wound irrigation solutions, sterile dressings and disinfectants.²⁷ A systematic review of the effectiveness of PHMB for the treatment of chronic wounds supports the use of this antiseptic in chronic wounds.³⁴ PHMB wound solutions have demonstrated experimentally anti-biofilm efficacy against wound pathogens such as *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Staphylococcus aureus* and the multispecies biofilm,³⁵ biofilms,³⁵⁻³⁷ and AMR microorganisms.³⁸ There are numerous types of dressings, both commercially available and under development, that contain PHMB as an antimicrobial component used to reduce or eradicate bacterial infections. PHMB gauze and foam

dressings do not release the PHMB into the wound; the bacteria are killed in the dressing above the wound.³⁹

The bactericidal properties of PHMB have been demonstrated against a wide range of species¹⁴ with the killing activity being shown to be rapid (within one hour of application).¹⁸ Also, the comparatively lower level of killing activity against mammalian cells (e.g., human cells) compared with microorganisms contributes to its high therapeutic index.⁴⁰

AIM

The aim of this review is to provide an overview of the clinical evidence exploring the antimicrobial role of polyhexamethylene biguanide (PHMB) on wound healing.

METHODS

In this narrative review, we searched the PubMed database using the following keywords and keyword search strings: (phmb OR "polyhexamethylene biguanide" OR polyhexanide), antimicrobial, and (wound OR ulcer). Published papers from Jan-1995 to Sept-2022 were included (Table 1).

In addition, a manual search for papers in wound care journals not indexed in PubMed (e.g., Wounds UK, Wounds International) and related to the use of clinical use of PHMB in wounds was also carried out. Papers identified as relevant from reference lists, but which were not identified in the other searches carried out were also included in this narrative review.

RESULTS

Seventy-two records were identified from the search of the PubMed database using the search strategy summarised in the Methods and Table 1. A further 11 papers were identified from wound care journals not indexed in the PubMed database, an additional 14 papers were included as relevant and identified from reviews and paper reference lists. A total of 97 papers were identified for appraisal.

After an initial appraisal of the titles and abstracts 41 papers were excluded using the exclusion criteria detailed in Table 1. Papers assessed as not being relevant to the aim of the narrative review were also excluded. One paper was excluded at this stage as a duplicate reference. Once concluded, 55 papers were included as the basis for this narrative review (Figure 4).

DISCUSSION

The experimental evidence demonstrates antimicrobial activity for PHMB against a wide variety of microorganisms including both gram-negative and gram-positive bacteria, pathogenic fungi, viruses, and unicellular protozoa (Table 2).

The antimicrobial activity of PHMB in clinical wound healing

PHMB and the treatment of wound infection

There is a significant body of evidence for the use of PHMB (as a solution or having been incorporated into a dressing matrix) against a variety of microorganisms (Table 3).

PHMB solutions

Clinically, as part of routine wound treatment, fluid irrigation is used to dislodge foreign debris, loosely attached bacteria and devitalised tissue from the wound surface.⁴¹ The goal of wound irrigation is to remove foreign material, decrease bacterial contamination of the wound, and to remove cellular debris or exudate from the surface of the wound.⁴² Normal saline or Ringer's solution are most frequently used to irrigate both acute and chronic wounds.⁴³ These solutions are isotonic, minimally toxic to exposed tissue and do not impede healing progression whilst being relatively cost effective.⁴² In addition, there are specialised wound cleansers that contain antimicrobials that are effective in the treatment of wounds where a reduction of wound bioburden to host-manageable levels is required.⁴⁴ These antimicrobials include sodium hypochlorite,^{35,45} hypochlorous acid,⁴⁶⁻⁴⁸ povidone-iodine,⁴⁹ and PHMB/polyhexanide.⁵⁰⁻⁵²

There are several clinical studies documenting the effect of PHMB solutions on wound bioburden in a variety of wound types (Table 4). Chronic wounds such as venous leg ulcers,^{50,51,53,54} diabetic foot ulcers,^{53,56,57} pressure ulcers,^{53,58} and malignant wounds⁵⁹ have all benefitted from treatment including the use of PHMB solutions. Burn wounds⁶⁰ and acute wounds such as surgical wounds,⁶¹⁻⁶³ skin graft donor site wounds,⁶⁴ and traumatic wounds⁶⁵ have also shown positive results for PHMB solution irrigation in terms of reducing wound bioburden. Irrigation of wounds with PHMB solution as part of negative pressure wound therapy (NPWT) is an example of PHMB solutions being used as an adjunct with medical devices to treat contaminated and/or infected wounds^{57,66} including orthopaedic patients with problematic wounds.^{67,68}

Several studies indicated that treatment with PHMB solutions led to an improvement in wound condition⁶⁹ and improved healing response.^{26,51,58,60,70} In the studies where level of bioburden or risk of infection was a wound parameter under study several indicated reductions in levels of microorganisms^{50,53,61,62} and a decrease in the likelihood of infection developing.^{61,63,65,67,68} Few studies

indicated that the use of PHMB solutions had no effect on bacterial loads in wounds,^{57,64} and one study indicated that biofilm remained after treatment with PHMB solution application.⁵⁰

PHMB wound dressings

A Cochrane Review concluded that there was little evidence to suggest that one wound dressing (advanced (e.g., films, hydrocolloid) or otherwise) was any better at reducing the risk of surgical site infections, or that covering a wound with any dressing reduced the risk of infection.⁷¹ Most evidence presented is of relatively low quality.⁷¹ Table 5 summarises the clinical evidence available (including randomised controlled trials) for the use of PHMB-incorporated dressings in the treatment of acute and chronic wounds.

PHMB has been incorporated into a number of different dressing types including gauze,⁷²⁻⁷⁶ gel,^{56,69,70,77-82} foam dressings,⁸³⁻⁸⁵ collagen matrix dressings,⁸⁶⁻⁸⁹ bio-cellulose dressings,⁹⁰⁻⁹⁷ and hydro-active dressings.⁹⁸ PHMB-incorporated wound dressings have been used to treat a variety of acute wounds⁸⁴ including surgical wounds,^{75,96,99} skin graft donor sites,^{74,78,95} paediatric heel lacerations,⁹² and burn wounds,^{76,80,82,97} as well as a number of different difficult-to-heal wounds^{70,72,77,85,86,89,94,98,100} including venous leg ulcers,⁶⁹ diabetic foot ulcers,^{56,79} pressure ulcers,¹⁰¹ and other complex wounds.⁸¹

Several studies indicated that treatment with PHMB-impregnated dressings led to an improvement in wound condition^{69,77,88,90,95,98} and improved healing response.^{56,70,72,74,83,87-90,92,94,97} In the studies where the level of bioburden or risk of infection was a wound parameter under study several indicated reductions in levels of microorganisms^{72,73,83-86,91,93,94,98,100-102} and a decrease in the likelihood of infection developing.^{70,74-76,84,99,100,102}

PHMB and the prevention of wound infection

Several studies identified in this review provide an insight into the potential use of PHMB in the prevention of wound infection. In the case of some wounds, treatment with PHMB resulted in no wound infections developing over the course of the studies; a finding true for both studies with acute^{61,63,65,75,76,84} and chronic wounds.^{70,100,102} For example, in one study several patients with venous leg ulcers remained infection free in wounds that were at high risk of reinfection,¹⁰² and in a group of patients with non-healing wounds the use of PHMB reduced the requirement for further antimicrobial treatment.⁷⁰ However, in one study, soaking of tie-over dressings with PHMB solution (where sutures are placed around the skin graft which are then tied over a bolster made of PHMB-soaked gauze) in full-thickness skin grafting had no effect on post-operative bacterial loads and increased the risk of surgical site infection development.⁶⁴

Anti-biofilm activity of PHMB

Biofilms are ubiquitous in wounds and are a major cause of delayed healing.^{35,103} Their management presents a significant challenge to clinicians treating infected wounds, and a variety of antimicrobials (e.g., iodine, silver, polyhexamethylene biguanide, octenidine, hypochlorous acid, benzalkonium chloride, and a surfactant-based topical containing poloxamer 188) have been used and tested for effectiveness.¹⁰⁴ The effectiveness of PHMB against biofilms has been demonstrated in a number of experimental studies.^{35,38}

Several studies have demonstrated a reduction in the presence of biofilm in chronic wounds when these wounds are treated with PHMB-impregnated dressings.^{88,94} In one study, treatment with a polyhexanide and propyl betaine-based gel resulted in improvement in wound appearance and reduction in wound area. There was also a decrease in the percentage of patients with wounds with devitalised tissue and/or with biofilm.⁷⁷ The precise contribution of PHMB to this anti-biofilm activity is unclear as betaine is a surfactant able to disrupt biofilm.¹⁰⁵ In a further study, although a PHMB solution was effective at reducing bacterial load in venous leg ulcers the authors reported that wound biofilm was still present after wound cleansing with PHMB solutions.⁵⁰

PHMB and its effect on antimicrobial-resistant microorganisms

The effectiveness of PHMB's antiseptic activity against microorganisms extends to a number of antimicrobial-resistant bacteria in laboratory studies,¹⁰⁶ including bacteria identified by the WHO as "priority resistant pathogens".^{37,107} Clinical evidence for a significant antimicrobial effect of PHMB is currently sparse with no specific clinical studies investigating this important subject having been carried out. However, there are some studies that give an insight into the potential impact of PHMB on antibiotic-resistant bacteria. Several studies report reductions in the level of MRSA in wounds as a result of treatment with PHMB.^{75,83,101} Chai et al⁵⁶ report the healing of a diabetic foot ulcer with a multi-drug resistant *Pseudomonas* infection after treatment with PHMB.

Aligning the use of PHMB wound treatments with antimicrobial stewardship

Biofilm plays a significant role in the development of antimicrobial resistant bacteria by encouraging the transfer of antibiotic resistant genes between bacterial species.¹⁰⁸ The World Health Organisation (WHO) has declared "that AMR is one of the top 10 global public health threats facing humanity" (Ghosh et al,¹⁰⁹ p. 555). It is noteworthy, that PHMB is effective against antimicrobial resistant bacteria, and in particular some of those microorganisms identified by the WHO as priority resistant pathogens (Figure 5). Additionally, with the resistance of microbes specifically to antibiotics, there is the emergence of multidrug-resistant nosocomial infections.¹¹⁰ The ESKAPE pathogens (*Enterococcus faecium*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Acinetobacter baumannii*, *Pseudomonas*

aeruginosa, *Enterobacter* spp.) are the leading cause of nosocomial infections across the world, with many ESKAPE bacteria becoming drug resistant.¹¹¹ Several studies have investigated the effectiveness of PHMB against such antimicrobial-resistant microorganisms, and results suggest that PHMB is effective against all ESKAPE pathogens.^{50,112}

In an age of increasing resistance, antiseptics are emerging as an alternative (to antibiotics) for infection control because of their much lower risk (or absence) of bacterial resistance.¹¹³ This is particularly important as resistance to PHMB has not been reported despite being used for decades.^{15,114} A study reported a reduced susceptibility of MRSA with prolonged exposure to low levels of PHMB.¹¹⁵

The development of AMR has diminished the effectiveness of many antimicrobials used to prevent/treat wound infections. AMR is a growing public health challenge worldwide that has been identified as one of the top 10 threats to global health by the WHO.¹¹⁶ To help address AMR, Antimicrobial Stewardship (AMS) programmes have been developed, designed to educate healthcare workers and control the prescribing and targeting of antibiotics and hence reduce the likelihood of AMR. The topical use of antiseptics for wound care has a role in antimicrobial stewardship strategy.¹¹⁷⁻¹¹⁹ The inclusion of PHMB in wound treatments supports AMS in that it is an effective antimicrobial treatment whilst not causing microbial resistance.

Conclusion

The aim of this narrative review was to provide an overview of clinical evidence exploring the antimicrobial role of polyhexamethylene biguanide (PHMB) on wound healing. This was undertaken through searching the PubMed database and undertaking a manual search for appropriate papers based on identified key words relevant to the primary research question. The resulting papers identified were interrogated for those that aligned with the primary research question. Analysis of these papers showed that the experimental evidence demonstrates significant antimicrobial activity for PHMB against a wide variety of microorganisms including both gram-negative, gram-positive bacteria, as well as biofilms and antimicrobial resistant bacteria. Additionally, PHMB was demonstrated to be effective against pathogenic fungi, viruses and unicellular protozoa.

The mechanism of action of PHMB as an antimicrobial was defined in terms of a two-stage process:

1. attachment and integration into the bacteria cell wall, inducing pores in this structure resulting in leakage of bacterial intracellular components.
2. transition of PHMB through the bacterial cell wall and then interaction of PHMB with nuclear components resulting in condensation of proteins and inactivation of the bacteria.

The review identified evidence that supports a key role for PHMB in the prevention and treatment of wound infection against many different microorganisms and across a wide variety of different wound types. Included papers highlighted alignment with the use of PHMB in supporting an AMS role in that it is not only a highly effective antimicrobial, specifically against biofilms and resistant microorganisms, but that importantly it does not induce such antimicrobial resistance.

Reflective Questions:

1. What microorganisms is PHMB effective against?
2. What are the two MOA of PHMB against bacteria?
3. Is PHMB effective against biofilms and/or antimicrobial resistant organisms eg MRSA?
4. Is there evidence to show that PHMB can cause antimicrobial resistance?
5. Can PHMB support and antimicrobial stewardship strategy in preventing developing of AMR, if so why?

WORD COUNT – approx. 2890

References

1. Parlet CP, Brown MM, Horswill AR. Commensal Staphylococci influence Staphylococcus aureus skin colonization and disease. *Trends Microbiol* 2019; 27(6):497–507.
2. Wynn M. The impact of infection on the four stages of acute wound healing: an overview. *Wounds UK* 2021; 17(2):26–32.
3. Serra R, Grande R, Butrico L et al. Chronic wound infections: the role of Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Staphylococcus aureus. *Expert Rev Anti Infect Ther* 2015; 13(5):605–613.
4. Rahim K, Saleha S, Zhu X et al. Bacterial contribution in chronicity of wounds. *Microb Ecol* 2017; 73(3):710–721.
5. Dhar Y, Han Y. Current developments in biofilm treatments: wound and implant infections. *Engin Regen* 2020; 1:64–75.
6. Pîrvănescu H, Bălăşoiu M, Ciurea ME et al. Wound infections with multi-drug resistant bacteria. *Chirurgia (Bucur)* 2014; 109(1):73–79.
7. Sen CK, Roy S, Mathew-Steiner SS, Gordillo GM. Biofilm management in wound care. *Plast Reconstr Surg* 2021; 148(2):275e–288e.
8. Punjataewakupt A, Napavichayanun S, Aramwit P. The downside of antimicrobial agents for wound healing. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 2019; 38(1):39–54.

9. Cooper R, Lawrence JC. The role of antimicrobial agents in wound care. *J Wound Care* 1996; 5(8):374–380.
10. Lipsky BA, Hoey C. Topical antimicrobial therapy for treating chronic wounds. *Clin Infect Dis* 2009; 49(10):1541–1549.
11. Wounds UK Best Practice Statement. The use of topical antimicrobial agents in wound management. London: Wounds UK, 2013 (third edition).
12. Cooper R, Kirketerp-Møller K. Non-antibiotic antimicrobial interventions and antimicrobial stewardship in wound care. *J Wound Care* 2018; 27(6):355–377.
13. Passic SR, Ferguson ML, Catalone BJ et al. Structure-activity relationships of polybiguanides with activity against human immunodeficiency virus type 1. *Biomed Pharmacother* 2010; 64(10):723–732.
14. Kamaruzzaman NF, Chong SQY, Edmondson-Brown KM et al. Bactericidal and anti-biofilm effects of polyhexamethylene biguanide in models of intracellular and biofilm of *Staphylococcus aureus* isolated from bovine mastitis. *Front Microbiol* 2017; 8:1518.
15. Sowlati-Hashjin S, Carbone P, Karttunen M. Insights into the polyhexamethylene biguanide (PHMB) mechanism of action on bacterial membrane and DNA: a molecular dynamics study. *J Phys Chem B* 2020; 124(22):4487–4497.
16. Consensus document: PHMB and its potential contribution to wound management. Wounds UK, Aberdeen, 2010.
17. Babalska Zł, Korbecka-Paczkowska M, Karpiński TM. Wound antiseptics and European guidelines for antiseptic application in wound treatment. *Pharmaceuticals (Basel)* 2021; 14(12):1253.
18. Chindera K, Mahato M, Sharma AK et al. The antimicrobial polymer PHMB enters cells and selectively condenses bacterial chromosomes. *Sci Rep* 2016; 6:23121.
19. Asiedu-Gyekye IJ, Mahmood AS, Awortwe C, Nyarko AK. Toxicological assessment of polyhexamethylene biguanide for water treatment. *Interdiscip Toxicol* 2015; 8(4):193–202.
20. Johnson W Jr, Boyer I, Zhu J et al. Safety assessment of polyaminopropyl biguanide (polyhexamethylene biguanide hydrochloride) as used in cosmetics. *Int J Toxicol* 2020; 39(3_suppl):26S–73S.
21. Papa V, van der Meulen I, Rottey S et al. Safety and tolerability of topical polyhexamethylene biguanide: a randomised clinical trial in healthy adult volunteers. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2022; 106(2):190–196.
22. Hübner NO, Kramer A. Review on the efficacy, safety and clinical applications of polyhexanide, a modern wound antiseptic. *Skin Pharmacol Physiol* 2010; 23 Suppl:17–27.

23. Broxton P, Woodcock PM, Heatley F, Gilbert P. Interaction of some polyhexamethylene biguanides and membrane phospholipids in *Escherichia coli*. *J Appl Bacteriol* 1984; 57(1):115–124.
24. Broxton P, Woodcock PM, Gilbert P. Binding of some polyhexamethylene biguanides to the cell envelope of *Escherichia coli* ATCC 8739. *Microbios* 1984; 41(163):15–22.
25. Ikeda T, Ledwith A, Bamford CH, Hann RA. Interaction of a polymeric biguanide biocide with phospholipid membranes. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1984; 769(1):57–66.
26. Moore K, Gray D. Using PHMB antimicrobial to prevent wound infection. *Wounds UK* 2007; 3(2):96–102.
27. Küsters M, Beyer S, Kutscher S et al. Rapid, simple and stability-indicating determination of polyhexamethylene biguanide in liquid and gel-like dosage forms by liquid chromatography with diode-array detection. *J Pharm Anal* 2013; 3(6):408–414.
28. Ha Y, Koo Y, Park SK et al. Liposome leakage and increased cellular permeability induced by guanidine-based oligomers: effects of liposome composition on liposome leakage and human lung epithelial barrier permeability. *RSC Adv* 2021; 11(51):32000–32011.
29. Gilbert P, Moore LE. Cationic antiseptics: diversity of action under a common epithet. *J Appl Microbiol* 2005; 99(4):703–715.
30. Allen MJ, Morby AP, White GF. Cooperativity in the binding of the cationic biocide polyhexamethylene biguanide to nucleic acids. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 2004; 318(2):397–404.
31. Allen MJ, White GF, Morby AP. The response of *Escherichia coli* to exposure to the biocide polyhexamethylene biguanide. *Microbiology (Reading)* 2006; 152(Pt 4):989–1000.
32. Mashat BH. Polyhexamethylene biguanide hydrochloride: features and applications. *Br J Environm Sci* 2016; 4:49–55.
33. Ni Y, Qian Z, Yin Y et al. Polyvinyl alcohol/chitosan/polyhexamethylene biguanide phase separation system: a potential topical antibacterial formulation with enhanced antimicrobial effect. *Molecules* 2020; 25(6):1334.
34. To E, Dyck R, Gerber S et al. The effectiveness of topical polyhexamethylene biguanide (PHMB) agents for the treatment of chronic wounds: a systematic review. *Surg Technol Int* 2016; 29:45–51.
35. Salisbury AM, Mullin M, Chen R, Percival SL. Antibiofilm efficacy of polyhexanide, octenidine and sodium hypochlorite/hypochlorous acid based wound irrigation solutions against *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and a multispecies biofilm. *Adv Exp Med Biol* 2022; 1369:53–67.

36. Dydak K, Junka A, Dydak A et al. In vitro efficacy of bacterial cellulose dressings chemisorbed with antiseptics against biofilm formed by pathogens isolated from chronic wounds. *Int J Mol Sci* 2021; 22(8):3996.
37. Barrigah-Benissan K, Ory J, Dunyach-Remy C et al. Antibiofilm properties of antiseptic agents used on *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* isolated from diabetic foot ulcers. *Int J Mol Sci* 2022; 23(19):11270.
38. Oates A, Lindsay S, Mistry H et al. Modelling antiseptics using defined populations of facultative and anaerobic wound pathogens grown in a basally perfused biofilm model. *Biofouling* 2018; 34(5):507–518.
39. Sibbald RG, Elliott JA, Verma L et al. Update: topical antimicrobial agents for chronic wounds. *Adv Skin Wound Care* 2017; 30(10):438–450.
40. Kamaruzzaman NF, Firdessa R, Good L. Bactericidal effects of polyhexamethylene biguanide against intracellular *Staphylococcus aureus* EMRSA-15 and USA 300. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2016; 71(5):1252–1259.
41. Rodeheaver GT, Ratliff CR. Wound cleansing, wound irrigation, wound disinfection. In: Krasner DL, van Rijswijk L (eds.) *Chronic Wound Care: The Essentials e-Book*. HMP: Malvern, PA, 2018, pp. 47–62.
42. Lewis K, Pay JL. Wound Irrigation. [Updated 2022 Jul 26]. In: StatPearls [Internet]. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; 2022 Jan-. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK538522/>
43. Wilkins RG, Unverdorben M. Wound cleaning and wound healing: a concise review. *Adv Skin Wound Care* 2013; 26(4):160–163.
44. Lindfors J. A comparison of an antimicrobial wound cleanser to normal saline in reduction of bioburden and its effect on wound healing. *Ostomy Wound Manage* 2004; 50(8):28–41.
45. Serena TE, Serena L, Al-Jalodi O et al. The efficacy of sodium hypochlorite antiseptic: a double-blind, randomised controlled pilot study. *J Wound Care* 2022; 31(Sup2):S32–S35.
46. Armstrong DG, Bohn G, Glat P et al. Expert recommendations for the use of hypochlorous solution: science and clinical application. *Ostomy Wound Manage* 2015; 61(5):S2–S19.
47. Davis SC, Gil J, Li J et al. Effect of mechanical debridement and irrigation with hypochlorous acid wound management solution on methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* contamination and healing deep dermal wounds in a porcine model. *Wound Manag Prev* 2021; 67(8):24–31.

48. Burian EA, Sabah L, Kirketerp-Møller K et al. Effect of stabilized hypochlorous acid on re-epithelialization and bacterial bioburden in acute wounds: a randomized controlled trial in healthy volunteers. *Acta Derm Venereol* 2022; 102:adv00727.
49. Bigliardi PL, Alsagoff SAL, El-Kafrawi HY et al. Povidone iodine in wound healing: a review of current concepts and practices. *Int J Surg* 2017; 44:260–268.
50. Borges EL, Frison SS, Honorato-Sampaio K et al. Effect of polyhexamethylene biguanide solution on bacterial load and biofilm in venous leg ulcers: a randomized controlled trial. *J Wound Ostomy Continence Nurs* 2018; 45(5):425–431.
51. Andriessen AE, Eberlein T. Assessment of a wound cleansing solution in the treatment of problem wounds. *Wounds* 2008; 20(6):171–175.
52. Klasinc R, Augustin LA, Below H et al. Evaluation of three experimental in vitro models for the assessment of the mechanical cleansing efficacy of wound irrigation solutions. *Int Wound J* 2018; 15(1):140–147.
53. Assadian O, Kammerlander G, Geyrhofer C et al. Use of wet-to-moist cleansing with different irrigation solutions to reduce bacterial bioburden in chronic wounds. *J Wound Care* 2018; 27(Sup10):S10–S16.
54. Nunes CAB, Melo PG, Malaquias SG et al. Effectiveness of two bundles in venous leg ulcer healing: a randomized controlled trial. *J Vasc Nurs* 2019; 37(4):232–245.
55. Romanelli M, Dini V, Barbanera S, Bertone MS. Evaluation of the efficacy and tolerability of a solution containing propyl betaine and polihexanide for wound irrigation. *Skin Pharmacol Physiol* 2010; 23 Suppl:41–44.
56. Chai W, Wang Y, Jiao F et al. A severe diabetic foot ulcer with intermediate cuneiform displacement and multidrug-resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* infection: a rare case report. *Front Med (Lausanne)* 2020; 7:131.
57. Lavery LA, Davis KE, La Fontaine J et al. Does negative pressure wound therapy with irrigation improve clinical outcomes? A randomized clinical trial in patients with diabetic foot infections. *Am J Surg* 2020; 220(4):1076–1082.
58. Bellingeri A, Falciani F, Trapedini P et al. Effect of a wound cleansing solution on wound bed preparation and inflammation in chronic wounds: a single-blind RCT. *J Wound Care* 2016; 25(3):160, 162–166, 168.
59. Villela-Castro DL, Santos VLCCG, Woo K. Polyhexanide versus metronidazole for odor management in malignant (fungating) wounds: a double-blinded, randomized, clinical trial. *J Wound Ostomy Continence Nurs* 2018; 45(5):413–418.

60. Daeschlein G, Assadian O, Bruck JC et al. Feasibility and clinical applicability of polihexanide for treatment of second-degree burn wounds. *Skin Pharmacol Physiol* 2007; 20(6):292–296.
61. Becerro de Bengoa Vallejo R, Losa Iglesias ME, Cervera LA et al. Efficacy of intraoperative surgical irrigation with polihexanide and nitrofurazone in reducing bacterial load after nail removal surgery. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 2011; 64(2):328–335.
62. Fabry W, Trampenau C, Bettag C et al. Bacterial decontamination of surgical wounds treated with Lavasept. *Int J Hyg Environ Health* 2006; 209(6):567–573. Erratum in: *Int J Hyg Environ Health* 2008; 211(5-6):699.
63. Strobel RM, Leonhardt M, Krochmann A et al. Reduction of postoperative wound infections by antiseptics (RECIPE)? a randomized controlled trial. *Ann Surg* 2020; 272(1):55–64.
64. Saleh K, Sonesson A, Persson K et al. Can dressings soaked with polyhexanide reduce bacterial loads in full-thickness skin grafting? A randomized controlled trial. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 2016; 75(6):1221–1228.e4.
65. Roth B, Neuenschwander R, Brill F et al. Effect of antiseptic irrigation on infection rates of traumatic soft tissue wounds: a longitudinal cohort study. *J Wound Care* 2017; 26(3):79–87.
66. Kim PJ, Attinger CE, Oliver N et al. Comparison of outcomes for normal saline and an antiseptic solution for negative-pressure wound therapy with instillation. *Plast Reconstr Surg* 2015; 136(5):657e–664e.
67. Dettmers R, Brekelmans W, Leijnen M et al. Negative pressure wound therapy with instillation and dwell time used to treat infected orthopedic implants: a 4-patient case series. *Ostomy Wound Manage* 2016; 62(9):30–40.
68. Timmers MS, Graafland N, Bernardts AT et al. Negative pressure wound treatment with polyvinyl alcohol foam and polyhexanide antiseptic solution instillation in posttraumatic osteomyelitis. *Wound Repair Regen* 2009; 17(2):278–286.
69. Horrocks A. Prontosan wound irrigation and gel: management of chronic wounds. *Br J Nurs* 2006; 15(22):1222, 1224–1228.
70. Moore M, Dobson N, Cetnarowski W. 0.1% Polyhexanide-betaine solution as an adjuvant in a case-series of chronic wounds. *Surg Technol Int* 2016; 29:85–89.
71. Dumville JC, Gray TA, Walter CJ et al. Dressings for the prevention of surgical site infection. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2016; 12(12):CD003091.
72. Ceviker K, Canikoglu M, Tatlioglu S, Bagdatli Y. Reducing the pathogen burden and promoting healing with polyhexanide in non-healing wounds: a prospective study. *J Wound Care* 2015; 24(12):582–586.

73. Motta GJ, Milne CT, Corbett LQ. Impact of antimicrobial gauze on bacterial colonies in wounds that require packing. *Ostomy Wound Manage* 2004; 50(8):48–62.
74. Muangman P, Nitimonton S, Aramwit P. Comparative clinical study of Bactigras and Telfa AMD for skin graft donor-site dressing. *Int J Mol Sci* 2011; 12(8):5031–5038.
75. Mueller SW, Krebsbach LE. Impact of an antimicrobial-impregnated gauze dressing on surgical site infections including methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* infections. *Am J Infect Control* 2008; 36(9):651–655.
76. Wibbenmeyer L, Williams I, Liao J et al. A pilot study of the use of biocide-impregnated gauze as an adjunct to wound care in a burn population. *J Burn Care Res* 2012; 33(3):358–363.
77. Durante CM, Greco A, Sidoli O et al. Evaluation of the effectiveness of a polyhexanide and propyl betaine-based gel in the treatment of chronic wounds. *Minerva Chir* 2014; 69(5):283–292.
78. Goertz O, Ring A, Knie U et al. Evaluation of a novel polyhexanide-preserved wound covering gel on dermal wound healing. *Eur Surg Res* 2010; 44(1):23–29.
79. Hunt S. Case 14: Octenilin Wound Gel versus betadine/PHMB gel. *J Wound Care* 2016; 25(3 Suppl):S22–S23.
80. Kiefer J, Harati K, Müller-Seubert W et al. Efficacy of a gel containing polyhexanide and betaine in deep partial and full thickness burns requiring split-thickness skin grafts: a noncomparative clinical study. *J Burn Care Res* 2018; 39(5):685–693.
81. Sams-Dodd J, Sams-Dodd F. Micropore particle technology promotes wound healing, whereas polyhexamethylene biguanide causes tissue degeneration: a case report. *Wounds* 2020; 32(3):E6–E10.
82. Wattanaploy S, Chinaronchai K, Namviriyachote N, Muangman P. Randomized controlled trial of polyhexanide/betaine gel versus silver sulfadiazine for partial-thickness burn treatment. *Int J Low Extrem Wounds* 2017; 16(1):45–50.
83. Johnson S, Leak K. Evaluating a dressing impregnated with polyhexamethylene biguanide. *Wounds UK* 2011; 7(2):20–25.
84. Motta GJ, Trigilia D. The effect of an antimicrobial drain sponge dressing on specific bacterial isolates at tracheostomy sites. *Ostomy Wound Manage* 2005; 51(1):60–62, 64–66.
85. Sibbald RG, Coutts P, Woo KY. Reduction of bacterial burden and pain in chronic wounds using a new polyhexamethylene biguanide antimicrobial foam dressing-clinical trial results. *Adv Skin Wound Care* 2011; 24(2):78–84.

86. Brantley J, Park H, Sanchez PJ, Fitzgerald R. The use of a novel antimicrobial and purified native collagen matrix combination to manage bioburden and support healing in challenging wounds: a clinical evaluation. *Wounds International* 2016; 7(3):40–45.
87. Koullias GJ. Efficacy of the application of a purified native collagen with embedded antimicrobial barrier followed by a placental allograft on a diverse group of nonhealing wounds of various etiologies. *Wounds* 2021; 33(1):20–27.
88. Lintzeris D, Vernon K, Percise H et al. Effect of a new purified collagen matrix with polyhexamethylene biguanide on recalcitrant wounds of various etiologies: a case series. *Wounds* 2018; 30(3):72–78.
89. Oropallo AR. Use of native type I collagen matrix plus polyhexamethylene biguanide for chronic wound treatment. *Plast Reconstr Surg Glob Open* 2019; 7(1):e2047.
90. Alblas J, Klicks RJ, Andrlessen A. A special case: treatment of a patient with necrotising fasciitis. *Br J Nurs* 2013; 22(15):S22–S24, S26.
91. Eberlein T, Haemmerle G, Signer M et al. Comparison of PHMB-containing dressing and silver dressings in patients with critically colonised or locally infected wounds. *J Wound Care* 2012; 21(1):12, 14–16, 18–20.
92. Elzinga G, van Doorn J, Wiersema AM et al. Clinical evaluation of a PHMB-impregnated biocellulose dressing on paediatric lacerations. *J Wound Care* 2011; 20(6):280–284.
93. Fumarola S, Butcher M, Cooper P et al. A clinical audit of Suprasorb® X + PHMB. *Wounds UK* 2010; 6(3):78–87.
94. Lenselink E, Andriessen A. A cohort study on the efficacy of a polyhexanide-containing biocellulose dressing in the treatment of biofilms in wounds. *J Wound Care* 2011; 20(11):534, 536–539.
95. Napavichayanun S, Ampawong S, Harnsilpong T et al. Inflammatory reaction, clinical efficacy, and safety of bacterial cellulose wound dressing containing silk sericin and polyhexamethylene biguanide for wound treatment. *Arch Dermatol Res* 2018; 310(10):795–805.
96. Nielsen AM, Andriessen A. Prospective cohort study on surgical wounds comparing a polyhexanide-containing biocellulose dressing with a dialkyl-carbamoyl-chloride-containing hydrophobic dressing. *Adv Skin Wound Care* 2012; 25(9):409–413.
97. Piatkowski A, Drummer N, Andriessen A et al. Randomized controlled single center study comparing a polyhexanide containing bio-cellulose dressing with silver sulfadiazine cream in partial-thickness dermal burns. *Burns* 2011; 37(5):800–804.

98. Mancini S, Cuomo R, Poggialini M et al. Autolytic debridement and management of bacterial load with an occlusive hydroactive dressing impregnated with polyhexamethylene biguanide. *Acta Biomed* 2018; 88(4):409–413.
99. Wandhoff B, Schröder C, Nöth U et al. Efficacy of universal preoperative decolonization with Polyhexanide in primary joint arthroplasty on surgical site infections. A multicenter before-and after-study. *Antimicrob Resist Infect Control* 2020; 9(1):188.
100. Tuncel U, Erkorkmaz Ü, Turan A. Clinical evaluation of gauze-based negative pressure wound therapy in challenging wounds. *Int Wound J* 2013; 10(2):152–158.
101. Wild T, Bruckner M, Payrich M et al. Eradication of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in pressure ulcers comparing a polyhexanide-containing cellulose dressing with polyhexanide swabs in a prospective randomized study. *Adv Skin Wound Care* 2012; 25(1):17–22.
102. Hagelstein SM, Ivins N. Treating recalcitrant venous leg ulcers using a PHMB impregnated dressing: a case study evaluation. *Wounds UK* 2013; 9(4):84–90.
103. Nedelea AG, Plant RL, Robins LI, Maddocks SE. Testing the efficacy of topical antimicrobial treatments using a two- and five-species chronic wound biofilm model. *J Appl Microbiol* 2022; 132(1):715–724.
104. Stoffel JJ, Kohler Riedi PL, Hadj Romdhane B. A multimodel regime for evaluating effectiveness of antimicrobial wound care products in microbial biofilms. *Wound Repair Regen* 2020; 28(4):438–447.
105. Bazire A, Diab F, Jebbar M, Haras D. Influence of high salinity on biofilm formation and benzoate assimilation by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. *J Ind Microbiol Biotechnol* 2007; 34(1):5–8.
106. Piątkowska E, Paleczny J, Dydak K, Letachowicz K. Antimicrobial activity of hemodialysis catheter lock solutions in relation to other compounds with antiseptic properties. *PLoS One* 2021; 16(10):e0258148.
107. Denysko TV, Nazarchuk OA, Gruzevskyi O et al. In vitro evaluation of the antimicrobial activity of antiseptics against clinical *Acinetobacter baumannii* strains isolated from combat wounds. *Front Microbiol* 2022; 13:932467.
108. Bowler P, Murphy C, Wolcott R. Biofilm exacerbates antibiotic resistance: is this a current oversight in antimicrobial stewardship? *Antimicrob Resist Infect Control* 2020; 9(1):162.
109. Ghosh S, Bornman C, Zafer MM. Antimicrobial resistance threats in the emerging COVID-19 pandemic: where do we stand? *J Infect Public Health* 2021; 14(5):555–560.

110. Giamarellou H, Poulakou G. Multidrug-resistant Gram-negative infections: what are the treatment options? *Drugs* 2009; 69(14):1879–1901.
111. Barreto R, Barrois B, Lambert J et al. Addressing the challenges in antisepsis: focus on povidone iodine. *Int J Antimicrob Agents* 2020; 56(3):106064.
112. Davis SC, Harding A, Gil J et al. Effectiveness of a polyhexanide irrigation solution on methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* biofilms in a porcine wound model. *Int Wound J* 2017; 14(6):937–944.
113. Lachapelle JM, Castel O, Casado AF et al. Antiseptics in the era of bacterial resistance: a focus on povidone iodine. *Clin Pract* 2013; 10(5):579–592.
114. Wessels S, Ingmer H. Modes of action of three disinfectant active substances: a review. *Regul Toxicol Pharmacol* 2013; 67(3):456–467.
115. Renzoni A, Von Dach E, Landelle C et al. Impact of exposure of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* to polyhexanide in vitro and in vivo. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2017; 61(10):e00272-17.
116. WHO Antimicrobial resistance. 2021. <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/antimicrobial-resistance>
117. Maillard JY, Kampf G, Cooper R. Antimicrobial stewardship of antiseptics that are pertinent to wounds: the need for a united approach. *JAC Antimicrob Resist* 2021; 3(1):dlab027.
118. Roberts CD, Leaper DJ, Assadian O. The role of topical antiseptic agents within antimicrobial stewardship strategies for prevention and treatment of surgical site and chronic open wound infection. *Adv Wound Care (New Rochelle)* 2017; 6(2):63–71.
119. Edwards-Jones V, Spruce P. Antimicrobial stewardship: what it means in tissue viability? *Wounds UK* 2019; 15(1):66–71.
120. Uzer Celik E, Tunac AT, Ates M, Sen BH. Antimicrobial activity of different disinfectants against cariogenic microorganisms. *Braz Oral Res* 2016; 30(1):e125.
121. Hafner S, Ehrenfeld M, Storz E, Wieser A. Photodynamic inactivation of *Actinomyces naeslundii* in comparison with chlorhexidine and polyhexanide--a new approach for antiseptic treatment of medication-related osteonecrosis of the jaw? *J Oral Maxillofac Surg* 2016; 74(3):516–522.
122. Paleczny J, Junka A, Brożyna M et al. The high impact of *Staphylococcus aureus* biofilm culture medium on in vitro outcomes of antimicrobial activity of wound antiseptics and antibiotic. *Pathogens* 2021; 10(11):1385.

123. Ali S, Wilson APR. Effect of poly-hexamethylene biguanide hydrochloride (PHMB) treated non-sterile medical gloves upon the transmission of *Streptococcus pyogenes*, carbapenem-resistant *E. coli*, MRSA and *Klebsiella pneumoniae* from contact surfaces. *BMC Infect Dis* 2017; 17(1):574.
124. Mencucci R, Favuzza E, Bottino P et al. A new ophthalmic formulation containing antiseptics and dexpanthenol: In vitro antimicrobial activity and effects on corneal and conjunctival epithelial cells. *Exp Eye Res* 2020; 201:108269.
125. Medvedec Mikić I, Cigić L, Kero D et al. Antimicrobial effectiveness of polyhexamethylene biguanide on *Enterococcus faecalis*, *Staphylococcus epidermidis* and *Candida albicans*. *Med Glas (Zenica)* 2018; 15(2):132–138.
126. Minnich KE, Stolarick R, Wilkins RG et al. The effect of a wound care solution containing polyhexanide and betaine on bacterial counts: results of an in vitro study . *Ostomy Wound Manage* 2012; 58(10):32–36.
127. Jin J, Chen ZL, Xiang Y et al. Development of a PHMB hydrogel-modified wound scaffold dressing with antibacterial activity. *Wound Repair Regen* 2020; 28(4):480–492.
128. Shoukat K, Pilling S, Rout S et al. A systematic comparison of antimicrobial wound dressings using a planktonic cell and an immobilized cell model. *J Appl Microbiol* 2015; 119(6):1552–1560.
129. Loose M, Naber KG, Purcell L et al. Anti-biofilm effect of octenidine and polyhexanide on uropathogenic biofilm-producing bacteria. *Urol Int* 2021; 105(3-4):278–284.
130. López-Rojas R, Fernández-Cuenca F, Serrano-Rocha L, Pascual Á. In vitro activity of a polyhexanide-betaine solution against high-risk clones of multidrug-resistant nosocomial pathogens. *Enferm Infecc Microbiol Clin* 2017; 35(1):12–19.
131. Fabry WH, Kock HJ, Vahlensieck W. Activity of the antiseptic polyhexanide against gram-negative bacteria. *Microb Drug Resist* 2014; 20(2):138–143.
132. Reddersen K, Finger S, Zieger M et al. Cytocompatibility testing of cyclodextrin-functionalized antimicrobial textiles-a comprehensive approach. *J Mater Sci Mater Med* 2016; 27(12):190.
133. Zheng Y, Wang D, Ma LZ. Effect of polyhexamethylene biguanide in combination with undecylenamidopropyl betaine or PslG on biofilm clearance. *Int J Mol Sci* 2021; 22(2):768.
134. Heaselgrave W, Hamad A, Coles S, Hau S. In vitro evaluation of the inhibitory effect of topical ophthalmic agents on *Acanthamoeba* viability. *Transl Vis Sci Technol* 2019; 8(5):17.

135. Sudano Roccaro A, Asero A. An original use of a bioluminescence assay to test the in vitro efficacy of polihexanide in the eradication of *Acanthamoeba* cysts. *Cornea* 2020; 39(7):892–897.
136. Romanowski EG, Yates KA, O'Connor KE et al. Evaluation of polyhexamethylene biguanide (PHMB) as a disinfectant for adenovirus. *JAMA Ophthalmol* 2013; 131(4):495–498.
137. Lehner B, Fleischmann W, Becker R, Jukema GN. First experiences with negative pressure wound therapy and instillation in the treatment of infected orthopaedic implants: a clinical observational study. *Int Orthop* 2011; 35(9):1415–1420.
138. Monteiro Vasconcelos F, Cabral Pereira da Costa C, Peres EM et al. Microbiological identification and resistance profile of microorganisms in pressure injuries after the use of polyhexamethylene biguanide: a series of fourteen cases. *Wounds* 2022; 33(2):51–56.
139. Payne B, Simmen HP, Csuka E et al. Randomized controlled clinical trial on the antiseptic efficacy of polihexanide 0.04% on acute traumatic wounds. *J Hosp Infect* 2018; 98(4):429–432.
140. Vallejo A, Wallis M, McMillan D. Use of low-frequency contact ultrasonic debridement with and without polyhexamethylene biguanide in hard-to-heal leg ulcers: an RCT. *J Wound Care* 2022; 31(8):670–681.