

OCTENIDINE DIHYDROCHLORIDE – ANTIMICROBIAL ACTIVITY, ADAPTATION AND CLINICAL APPLICATION

Tomasz M. Karpiński ^{1,*} , Marzena Korbecka-Paczkowska ^{1,2} ,
Agnieszka Zeidler ¹ , Wojciech Grzywna ³ 

¹ Chair and Department of Medical Microbiology, Poznań University of Medical Sciences, Rokietnicka 10, 60-806 Poznań, Poland

² Medi Pharm, os. Konstytucji 3 Maja 14/2, 63-200 Jarocin, Poland

³ Institute of Medical Sciences, Collegium Medicum, Jan Kochanowski University, Kielce, Poland

Submitted on 7 March 2025, accepted on 23 July 2025

Abstract: Octenidine dihydrochloride (OCT) is an antiseptic used for the prevention of wound infections, treatment of wounds and for treating oral infections. The spectrum of OCT's activity includes Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria, as well as fungi, including multidrug-resistant (MDR) strains. For most species, it exhibits activity at concentrations ranging from approximately 1 to several µg/mL. OCT also exhibits strong antibiofilm activity, both against biofilm formation and mature biofilms. The compound has limited virucidal and antiparasitic activity. The Clinical Efficiency of MIC (CEMIC) index for most pathogens is classified as excellent, meaning that the MIC is much lower than the clinical concentration. The required contact time for OCT microbicidal action is fast, at just 1 minute. The possibility of adaptation to OCT has been described; however, the Karpiński Adaptation Index (KAI) for most species is below 0.2, indicating a very low or low risk of developing clinical resistance. Only in some isolates of *Proteus mirabilis* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* the risk of resistance development considered moderate. According to guidelines (Statement of the Polish Wound Management Association, German Consensus on Wound Antisepsis, and International Consensus Document "Use of wound antiseptics in practice"), OCT is the first-choice antiseptic for critically colonized wounds, infection-prone wounds, burns, wounds colonized by multidrug-resistant (MDR) pathogens or infected wounds, and for the prevention of surgical site infections (SSI). OCT is also used in umbilical stump care, the treatment of oral infections, skin and mucosal candidiasis, and bacterial vaginosis.

1. Introduction. 2. Mode of action, 3. Antimicrobial activity, 4. Antibiofilm activity, 5. Bactericidal time, 6. Adaptation to OCT, 7. Precautions and application of OCT.

Keywords: anti-infective agents; antimicrobial stewardship; biofilm; nosocomial infection; wound infection; wound healing;

1. Introduction

A growing concern is the increasing number of individuals with wounds. It is estimated that approximately 1–2% of people worldwide experience chronic wounds (Sharma et al. 2024). An additional threat is the rise of multidrug-resistant (MDR) bacterial and fungal strains, leading to therapeutic failure and becoming a serious crisis (Bharadwaj et al. 2022; Bonomo et al. 2024). According to the latest guidelines (Nair et al. 2023; Sopata et al. 2023) antibiotics should be

preserved, and antiseptics should be used for wound prevention and treatment. Antiseptics are antimicrobial agents that act at various levels: on the wound surface, in exudate, within the dressing structure, and in tissues. One such antiseptic is octenidine.

Octenidine dihydrochloride (OCT) is a cationic compound, stable within a pH range of 1.6–12.2 (Hübner et al. 2010). It has PubChem CID 51167, its molecular weight is 623.8 g/mol, and molecular formula C₃₆H₆₄Cl₂N₄ (PubChem). It exhibits strong antimicrobial activity, including effectiveness against Gram-pos-

* Corresponding author: Tomasz M. Karpiński, Chair and Department of Medical Microbiology, Poznań University of Medical Sciences, Rokietnicka 10, 60-806 Poznań, Poland, e-mail: tkarpin@ump.edu.pl

© 2025 Tomasz M. Karpiński.

This is an open access article licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>)

Cite as:

Octenidine dihydrochloride – antimicrobial activity, adaptation and clinical application. Karpiński T. M. et al., ADV MICROBIOL-NY, 2025, 64, 3, 182-191, <https://doi.org/10.2478/am-2025-0014>

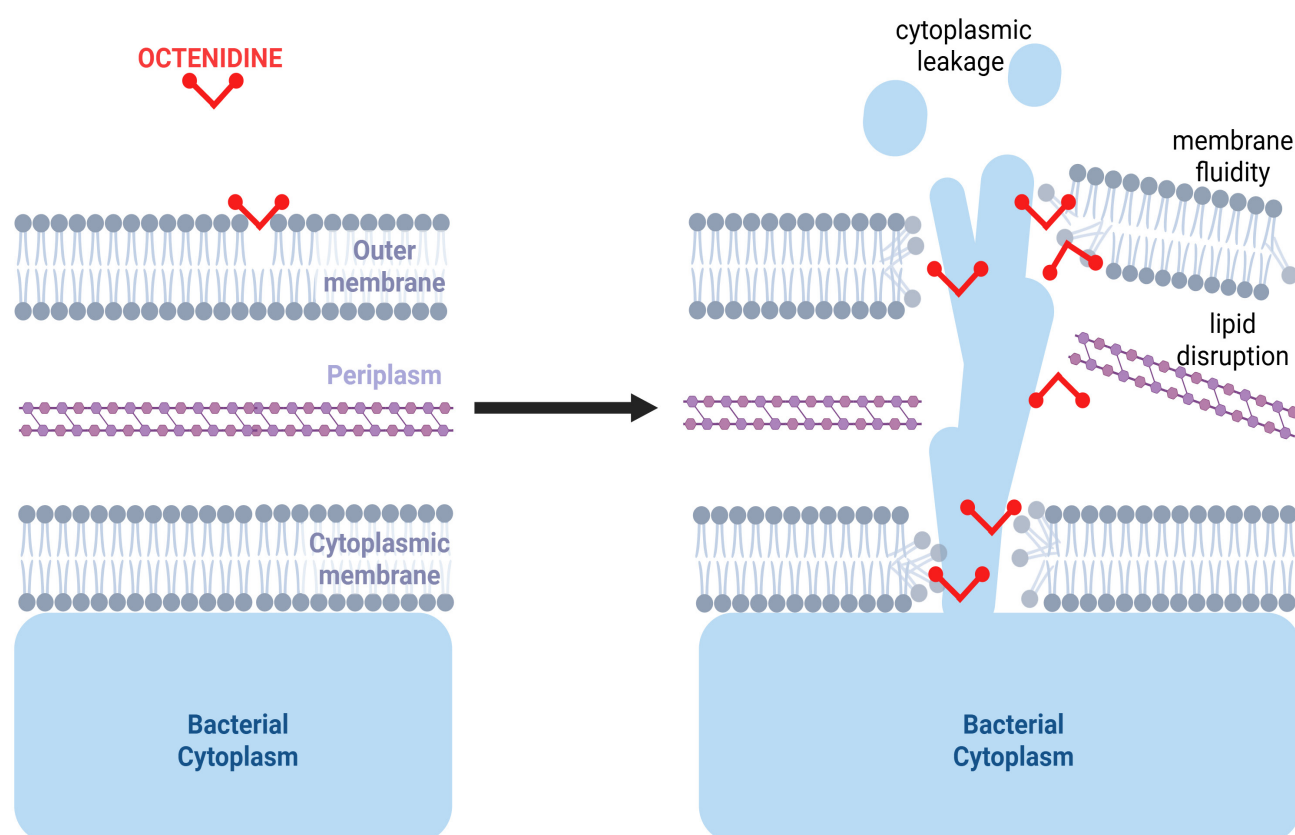
itive and Gram-negative bacteria, fungi, some viruses, and protozoa, while maintaining low cytotoxicity. OCT was introduced into medical practice over 25 years ago and is currently used in washing lotions, mouth rinses, oral tablets, and skin disinfectants.

2. Mode of action

OCT interacts with bacterial polysaccharides and enzymatic systems, leading to cytoplasmic leakage and disruption of essential cellular functions (Hübner et al. 2010). Unlike antibiotics that target specific cellular components, OCT exerts its antimicrobial effect by destabilizing the cell structure, compromising membrane integrity, disrupting the lipid bilayer, and increasing membrane permeability (Vejzovic et al. 2022). Additionally, it neutralizes the bacterial surface

charge, causing the outer membrane to rupture and the cell wall to degrade. Once inside the periplasmic space, OCT reaches the inner membrane, where it induces lipid disruption, leading to depolarization and changes in membrane fluidity (Figure 1) (Malanovic et al. 2020). In *Candida* species, OCT has been shown to inhibit filamentation by interfering with ergosterol biosynthesis and compromising membrane integrity (Fang et al. 2023). Since its mechanism of action does not rely on lipid specificity, it is effective against a broad range of bacteria and fungi, including MDR strains (Malanovic et al. 2022). Due to its nonspecific mode of action, which involves membrane disruption, the likelihood of resistance development is considered minimal, and no cases of OCT resistance have been reported in clinical practice (Malanovic et al. 2020).

Figure 1. Mode of action of octenidine dihydrochloride. Created using the BioRender.com.



3. Antimicrobial activity

OCT exhibits a strong antibacterial effect (Koburger et al. 2010; Dydak et al. 2021; Krasowski et al. 2021; Loose et al. 2021; Denkel et al. 2022; da Silva et

al. 2023). However, it has no effect on bacterial spores (Bigliardi et al. 2017). The minimal inhibitory concentrations (MIC) for most tested bacteria range from below 1 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ to approximately 10 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (Table 1). However, for single strains of *Streptococcus pneumoniae*

ae and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, the maximum MIC values are significantly higher, at 32 µg/mL and 80 µg/mL, respectively. Fungi show similar susceptibility to OCT, with MIC values ranging from approximately 0.5 to 4 µg/mL. These MIC levels indicate that the antiseptic is effective at similar concentrations across different species. Comparable inhibitory concentrations of OCT have also been observed in MDR strains such as New Delhi metallo-β-lactamase-positive (NDM) *Enterobacter cloacae*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae* NDM, and *Candida auris* (Karpiński et al. 2025a). Additionally, for all MIC results, the Clinical Efficiency of MIC (CE-MIC) index was analyzed, which represents the ratio

of MIC values to clinical concentrations (Karpiński, et al. 2025b). The lowest clinical concentration of OCT used is 500 µg/mL. CEMIC is classified as excellent for values < 0.1, moderate for values between 0.1 and 0.9, and poor for values > 0.9 (Karpiński, et al. 2025b). For most species listed in Table 1, CEMIC was classified as excellent, meaning the MIC is much lower than the clinical concentration. This is particularly important for antiseptics, which, for example, may become diluted in wounds due to exudate or blood. In the case of OCT, even significant dilution within the wound does not reduce its activity. However, for some *P. aeruginosa* strains, CEMIC was classified as moderate.

Table 1. Minimal inhibitory concentrations (MIC) of octenidine against bacteria and fungi using microdilution method.

Microorganisms	Range of MICs (µg/mL)	Methodological remarks (medium type, colony counts, incubation time, and temperature)	References
Gram-positive bacteria			
<i>Clostridium perfringens</i>	1	MHB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 36°C	(Koburger et al. 2010)
<i>Enterococcus faecalis</i>	4	MHB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 36°C	(Koburger et al. 2010)
	3.125-6.25	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 37°C	(Karpiński, et al. 2025a)
<i>E. faecium</i>	0.49-1.95	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24 h, 37°C	(Dydak et al. 2021)
	3.125-6.25	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 37°C	(Karpiński, et al. 2025a)
<i>E. hirae</i>	0.6-10	TSB, 10 ⁸ -10 ⁹ cfu/mL, 24-72 h, no data	(Schug et al. 2022)
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	2	MHB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 36°C	(Koburger et al. 2010)
	0.49-0.98	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24 h, 37°C	(Dydak et al. 2021)
	2-4	SCS, 1.5-5×10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 48 h, 37°C	(Denkel et al. 2022)
	0.9	MHB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24 h, 37°C	(Krasowski et al. 2021)
	0.3-5	TSB, 10 ⁸ -10 ⁹ cfu/mL, 24-72 h, no data	(Schug et al. 2022)
	3.125-6.25	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 37°C	(Karpiński, et al. 2025a)
Methicillin-resistant <i>S. aureus</i> (MRSA)	1	MHB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 36°C	(Koburger et al. 2010)
	1-4	MHB, 5×10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 37°C	(Dittmann et al. 2019)
<i>S. epidermidis</i>	0.49-7.8	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24 h, 37°C	(Dydak et al. 2021)
Coagulase-negative staphylococci	2-4	SCS, 1.5-5×10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 48 h, 37°C	(Denkel et al. 2022)
<i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i>	8-32	MHB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 36°C	(Koburger et al. 2010)
<i>S. pyogenes</i>	3.125-6.25	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 37°C	(Karpiński, et al. 2025a)
Gram-negative bacteria			
<i>Acinetobacter baumannii</i>	0.25-3.9	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24 h, 37°C	(Dydak et al. 2021)
<i>Enterobacter cloacae</i>	3.9	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24 h, 37°C	(Dydak et al. 2021)
	6.25	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 37°C	(Karpiński, et al. 2025a)

<i>Escherichia coli</i>	2	MHB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 36°C	(Koburger et al. 2010)
	1.95-3.9	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24 h, 37°C	(Dydak et al. 2021)
	2-4	SCS, 1.5-5×10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 48 h, 37°C	(Denkel et al. 2022)
	1.95-3.9	MHB or artificial urine, 10 ⁵ -10 ⁶ cfu/mL, 20 ± 2 h, 37°C	(Loose et al. 2021)
	1-4	MHB, 10 ⁶ cfu/mL, 20 ± 2 h, 37°C	(da Silva et al. 2023)
	0.6-20	TSB, 10 ⁸ -10 ⁹ cfu/mL, 24-72 h, no data	(Schug et al. 2022)
	3.125-6.25	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 37°C	(Karpiński, et al. 2025a)
<i>Haemophilus influenzae</i>	1	MHB 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 36°C	(Koburger et al. 2010)
<i>Klebsiella</i> spp.	2-4	SCS, 1.5-5×10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 48 h, 37°C	(Denkel et al. 2022)
<i>K. pneumoniae</i>	1.95-7.8	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24 h, 37°C	(Dydak et al. 2021)
	3.125-6.25	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 37°C	(Karpiński, et al. 2025a)
<i>Proteus mirabilis</i>	1.95-3.9	MHB or artificial urine, 10 ⁵ -10 ⁶ cfu/mL, 20 ± 2 h, 37°C	(Loose et al. 2021)
	3.125-6.25	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 37°C	(Karpiński, et al. 2025a)
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	2-8	MHB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 36°C	(Koburger et al. 2010)
	3.9-15.7	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24 h, 37°C	(Dydak et al. 2021)
	8-32	SCS, 1.5-5×10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 48 h, 37°C	(Denkel et al. 2022)
	2.25±0.95	MHB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24 h, 37°C	(Krasowski et al. 2021)
	3.9-7.8	MHB or artificial urine, 10 ⁵ -10 ⁶ cfu/mL, 20 ± 2 h, 37°C	(Loose et al. 2021)
	3.91-15.63	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24 h, 36°C	(Karpiński, et al. 2025b)
	1.25-80	TSB, 10 ⁸ -10 ⁹ cfu/mL, 24-72 h, no data	(Schug et al. 2022)
	3.125-12.5	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 37°C	(Karpiński, et al. 2025a)
<i>Salmonella enterica</i>	6.25	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 37°C	(Karpiński, et al. 2025a)
<i>Shigella flexneri</i>	6.25-12.5	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 37°C	(Karpiński, et al. 2025a)
<i>Yersinia enterocolitica</i>	6.25	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 37°C	(Karpiński, et al. 2025a)
Fungi			
<i>Ascochera apis</i>	0.78-3.125	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 37°C	(Karpiński, et al. 2025a)
<i>Candida albicans</i>	1	MHB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 36°C	(Koburger et al. 2010)
	0.49-0.98	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24 h, 37°C	(Dydak et al. 2021)
	0.45	RPMI with 2% glucose, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24 h, 37°C	(Krasowski et al. 2021)
	0.5 ± 0.25 and 0.9 ± 0.4	TSB, 10 ⁶ cfu/mL, 24 h, 36°C	(Korbecka-Paczowska and Karpiński 2024)
	1.95-3.91	Sabouraud broth, 10 ⁶ cfu/mL, 24 h, 36°C	(Karpiński et al. 2024)
	0.78-1.56	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 37°C	(Karpiński, et al. 2025a)
<i>C. auris</i>	3.125	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 37°C	(Karpiński, et al. 2025a)
<i>C. glabrata</i>	0.78-3.125	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 37°C	(Karpiński, et al. 2025a)
<i>C. tropicalis</i>	0.78-1.56	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 37°C	(Karpiński, et al. 2025a)
<i>Cryptococcus neoformans</i>	3.125	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 37°C	(Karpiński, et al. 2025a)
<i>Rhodotorula mucilaginosa</i>	3.125	TSB, 10 ⁵ cfu/mL, 24-48 h, 37°C	(Karpiński, et al. 2025a)

Abbreviations: MHB - Mueller–Hinton broth, TSB - Tryptic soy broth, SCS - Soybean casein solution, RPMI – Roswell Park Memorial Institute medium

OCT has limited virucidal activity, and the number of studies on this topic is scarce (Bigliardi et al. 2017). One of the studies reported that 0.1% concentration may be effective against coliphages f2 and MS2, as well as hepatitis B and herpes simplex viruses, but not against phages PhiX174 and adenoviruses (Hübner et al. 2010). The authors suggest that OCT exhibits virucidal activity only against enveloped viruses. However, there is a lack of recent studies confirming this effect.

The COVID-19 pandemic prompted several studies on the effect of OCT against SARS-CoV-2. In one study, using EN 14476 guidelines, a significant viral titre reduction was observed after 15 seconds of contact (Steinhauer et al. 2021). Another study showed that rinsing the mouth with OCT for one minute reduced SARS-CoV-2 RNA in saliva to undetectable levels by RT-qPCR (Smeets et al. 2022). However, both studies used Octenisept, which contains 0.1% OCT and 2% phenoxyethanol (PE). Since PE also has antimicrobial properties, it is difficult to attribute the antiviral effect solely to OCT. This is supported by a study where a product with 0.05% OCT but no PE showed weak activity against SARS-CoV-2 (Meister et al. 2020).

The antiparasitic effect of OCT has been described in relation to *Trichomonas vaginalis*. A combination of 0.1% OCT and 2% PE, demonstrated 50% effective concentration (EC50) values after 5 minutes of exposure at concentrations ranging from 5.7 to 21.4 µg/mL, and after 30 minutes at concentrations of 0.68 to 2.1 µg/mL (Küng et al. 2016). However, as with viruses, it remains unclear whether the anti-*Trichomonas* activity is primarily due to OCT, PE, or a combination of both.

4. Antibiofilm activity

OCT exhibits strong antibiofilm activity, both against biofilm formation and mature biofilm. Most studies show that complete biofilm reduction occurs within 24 hours, regardless of the microbial species (Rembe et al. 2020; Dydak et al. 2021; Krasowski et al. 2021; Loose et al. 2021). Only one publication showed that OCT requires up to 3 days for biofilm formation inhibition of *E. coli* (Loose et al. 2021). Table 2 demonstrates that the OCT concentrations required for antibiofilm activity are lower for Gram-positive bacteria than for Gram-negative bacteria. In the case of *C. albicans*, the data are inconclusive. There are publications describing the effect of OCT on bacterial viability in biofilms and biofilm reduction. Unfortunately, these data are very diverse. In some studies, OCT destroys 100% of the biofilm already at concentrations <100 µg/mL (Dydak et al. 2021; Krasowski et al. 2021), while in others, even a concentration of 1000 µg/mL does not destroy the entire biofilm (Davis et al. 2017; Rembe et al. 2020; Korbecka-Paczkowska and Karpiński 2024). It was also confirmed that OCT leads to the destruction of MRSA biofilm structure *in vivo* in mice (Huang et al. 2021). However, there is a lack of studies investigating its effect on the biofilm matrix in a short time. This would be important due to the short, usually only a few minutes long, application of OCT-containing products, such as oral mouthwashes or wound liquids.

Table 2. Antibiofilm activity of octenidine dihydrochloride.

Microorganism	Tested concentrations (µg/mL)	Time of action	% of biofilm reduction	Type of antibiofilm study	Reference
<i>E. faecium</i>	15.7-31.3	24 h	100	mature biofilm reduction	(Dydak et al. 2021)
<i>S. epidermidis</i>	15.7-125	24 h	100		(Dydak et al. 2021)
<i>S. aureus</i>	62.5	24 h	100		(Dydak et al. 2021)
	~50	24 h	100		(Krasowski et al. 2021)
	1000	24 h	~85%		(Rembe et al. 2020)
MRSA	1000	3 days	80%		(Davis et al. 2017)
<i>A. baumannii</i>	7.8-250	24 h	100		(Dydak et al. 2021)
<i>E. coli</i>	250	3 days	100	biofilm formation inhibition	(Loose et al. 2021)
	125-500	24 h	100	mature biofilm reduction	(Dydak et al. 2021)
<i>E. cloacae</i>	250-500	24 h	100		(Dydak et al. 2021)
<i>K. pneumoniae</i>	62.5-500	24 h	100		(Dydak et al. 2021)

<i>P. mirabilis</i>	250	24 h	100	biofilm formation inhibition	(Loose et al. 2021)
<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	500	24 h	100		(Loose et al. 2021)
	250 to >500	24 h	100	mature biofilm re- duction	(Dydak et al. 2021)
	~180	24 h	100		(Krasowski et al. 2021)
	1000	24 h	~100		(Rembe et al. 2020)
<i>C. albicans</i>	500	24 h	47 ± 11		(Korbecka-Paczkowska and Karpiński 2024)
	1000	24 h	51 ± 13		(Korbecka-Paczkowska and Karpiński 2024)
	15.7-31.3	24 h	100		(Dydak et al. 2021)
	~60	24 h	100		(Krasowski et al. 2021)

5. Bactericidal time

According to the European Standard EN 1040:2005, an effective antiseptic should achieve a 5-log as below reduction of a given bacteria (European Standard EN 1040:2005). This corresponds to a 99.999% reduction in pathogen count. Studies indicate that pure OCT at a concentration of 500 µg/mL reduced the planktonic form of *P. aeruginosa* by over 5-log within 1 minute (Karpiński, et al. 2025b). In other studies, a significant reduction of *C. albicans*, *S. aureus*, and *P. aeruginosa* also required a contact time of 1 minute and OCT concentrations ranging from 10 to 50 µg/mL (Koburger et al. 2010). This contact time is shorter for the OCT/PE combination, e.g. for Octenisept with 1000 µg/mL of OCT. The contact time required for total inhibition of *S. aureus*, *E. faecalis*, and *C. albicans* is only 15 seconds, for this product. For a 50% solution, the contact time for *E. faecalis* and *C. albicans* increased to 3 minutes (Tirali et al. 2009). OCT/PE achieves a 5 log₁₀ CFU/mL reduction within 1 minute against *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus* under standard conditions (EN 13727), in the presence of wound exudate, as well as in a modified peptide challenge test (Severing et al. 2022). Studies conducted in accordance with EN 13727:2012+A1 demonstrated that OCT at a concentration of 100 µg/mL achieves a reduction of >5 log₁₀ within 1 minute for isolates of *A. baumannii*, *E. cloacae*, *E. coli*, *K. pneumoniae*, and *P. aeruginosa*. This activity was observed in three types of media: without organic load, with albumin, and with albumin and erythrocytes (Alvarez-Marín et al. 2017). Some papers indicate that OCT may be less effective in the presence of organic material (Schedler et al. 2017; Barreto et al. 2020). Schedler et al. (2017) showed that, for 1000 µg/mL OCT, the time required for reduction of microorganisms by ≥ 5 log₁₀ in

the presence of organic soil can lasts from 3 h to 24 h. Contact time in biofilm conditions needs to be extended. After 30 minutes of 500 µg/mL OCT exposure, 66.6% of *C. albicans* cells within the biofilm remain viable, while complete eradication occurs only after 1 hour. For *S. aureus* and *P. aeruginosa*, 66.6% of bacteria remain viable after 15 minutes, 55.5% after 30 minutes, and complete killing is achieved after 24 hours (Krasowski et al. 2021). In other studies, the OCT/PE combination eradicated bacterial viability in mature *P. aeruginosa* biofilm by 46% within 15 minutes and 100% within 30 minutes, while *S. aureus* was completely eradicated within 1 minute (Junka et al. 2014). The faster action may be associated with the additional presence of PE.

6. Adaptation to OCT

Adaptation to antiseptics is a process in which bacteria and/or fungi gradually increase their tolerance to a given antiseptic after repeated or prolonged exposure (Verspecht et al. 2019). This adaptation often leads to the ability of microorganisms to grow at increasing concentrations of antiseptics. In contrast to classical antibiotic resistance, adaptation to antiseptics usually does not result from the acquisition of resistance genes but rather from mechanisms such as biofilm formation, metabolic changes and growth retardation, alterations in cell membrane structure, and active removal of the antiseptic from the cell *via* efflux pumps (Verspecht et al. 2019; Wand et al. 2019; Bock et al. 2021). Wand et al. (Wand et al. 2019) described the efflux pump SmvA and membrane remodeling as responsible for OCT tolerance in *K. pneumoniae*. Additionally, it was observed that adaptation to chlorhexidine may lead to decreased susceptibility to other cationic bio-

cides, including OCT. Tolerance associated with the efflux pump has been linked to mutations in phosphatidylserine synthase *pssA* and phosphatidylglycerol-phosphate synthase *pgsA* (Bock et al. 2021). In another study, opposite conclusions were drawn, demonstrating that Gram-positive bacteria carrying genes encoding efflux pumps contribute to antimicrobial resistance but do not affect sensitivity to low concentrations of OCT (Conceição et al. 2019). The results of studies on adaptation to OCT are varied. Table 3 shows that some studies found no development or only low tolerance to OCT in strains such as *S. aureus*, *S. epidermidis*, *Citrobacter* spp., and *Enterobacter* spp. (Nicolae Dopcea et al. 2020; Garratt et al. 2021; Karpiński 2024). How-

ever, other publications confirmed the development of adaptation to OCT, particularly in *P. mirabilis* and *P. aeruginosa* (Shepherd et al. 2018; Garratt et al. 2021; Pelling et al. 2024). The Karpinski Adaptation Index (KAI) is used in studies to assess the potential risk of developing resistance to antiseptics (Karpiński 2024). For most strains listed in Table 3, the KAI is below 0.2, indicating that the level of adaptation is significantly lower than the clinical concentration. Therefore, these strains have a very low or low risk of developing clinical resistance to OCT. Only in some isolates of *P. mirabilis* and *P. aeruginosa* does the risk of resistance development increase to a moderate level (Table 3).

Table 3. Results of studies on the development of microorganism adaptation to OCT.

Microorganism	Initial MIC (before adaptation) (µg/mL)	MIC after adaptation (µg/mL)	Fold increase in adaptation relative to initial MIC	Reference	Karpinski Adaptation Index (KAI)	Risk of clinical resistance to OCT
<i>S. aureus</i>	2	4.5	× 2.25	(Karpiński 2024)	0.009	Very low
<i>S. epidermidis</i>	0.2	0.49	× 2.45	(Nicolae Dopcea et al. 2020)	0.00098	Very low
<i>Citrobacter</i> spp.	2	2	× 1	(Garratt et al. 2021)	0.004	Very low
<i>Enterobacter</i> spp.	4	4-8	× 1-2	(Garratt et al. 2021)	0.008-0.016	Very low
<i>P. mirabilis</i>	2	128	× 64	(Pelling et al. 2024)	0.256	Moderate
	8	16	× 2	(Tagliaferri et al. 2024)	0.032	Very low
<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	7.8–15.6	50-75	× 3.2–12.8	(Karpiński, et al. 2025b)	0.12	Low
	4	32-64	× 8-16	(Garratt et al. 2021)	0.064-0.128	Very low/Low
	32	256	× 8	(Tagliaferri et al. 2024)	0.512	Moderate
	4-8	32-128	× 4-32	(Shepherd et al. 2018)	0.064- 0.256	Very low/Moderate
<i>C. albicans</i>	1.95-3.9	7.5-10	× 1.9-5.1	(Karpiński et al. 2024)	0.019	Very low

Interpretation of the Karpinski Adaptation Index: $KAI \leq 0.1$: very low risk of clinical resistance; $0.1 < KAI \leq 0.2$: low risk of clinical resistance; $0.2 < KAI \leq 0.8$: moderate risk of clinical resistance; $0.8 < KAI < 1.0$: high risk of clinical resistance; $KAI \geq 1.0$: very high risk of clinical resistance (Karpiński 2024).

7. Precautions and application of OCT

- OCT meets the criteria for selecting antimicrobial products in the wound healing process, namely:
- it has broad-spectrum antimicrobial effectiveness and a fast action time,
 - it has the ability to destroy biofilm,
 - it has tissue tolerance, lacks cytotoxicity and carcinogenicity,
 - it can be combined with surfactants and specialized dressings,
 - it does not lead to the development of resistance,

- it is not inactivated by protein loads and pH changes (Kramer et al. 2018).
- OCT-based products are recommended for wound prevention and treatment. Combinations such as 0.1% OCT + 2% PE or 0.05% OCT + ethylhexylglycerin are approved. Contraindications for using OCT products include: peritoneal lavage, fistulas, and other structures from which the applied substance cannot be thoroughly rinsed; use in the extraperitoneal space; use on hyaline cartilage and central nervous system structures; and allergy. OCT rarely causes side effects. Documented effects include blistering, necrosis, and scarring in

newborns (Biermann et al. 2016), contact dermatitis, and swelling (Calow et al. 2009; Biermann et al. 2016). The use of OCT without drainage may lead to persistent edematous changes, inflammatory reactions, and necrosis (Eigner et al. 2023).

According to the International Consensus Document “Use of Wound Antiseptics in Practice” from 2023 (Nair et al. 2023), guidelines of Polish Wound Management Association (Sopata et al. 2023) and the German Consensus on Wound Antisepsis (Kramer et al. 2018), OCT is the first-choice antiseptic for critically colonized wounds, infection-prone wounds, burns, wounds colonized by MDR pathogens or infected wounds, and for surgical site infections (SSI) prevention. OCT is also used in umbilical stump care (Mivšek et al. 2017), treatment of skin and mucosal fungal infections (Novakov Mikić and Stojic 2015) and bacterial vaginosis (Swidsinski et al. 2015). OCT inhibits dental plaque formation and is used in treating oral inflammation and periodontitis. Thus, it is an effective alternative to chlorhexidine and other contemporary mouthwashes (Grover et al. 2021; Rath et al. 2024). However, all antiseptics, like antibiotics, particularly when used for long periods, may lead to oral and intestinal dysbiosis (Amaral et al. 2023; Brookes et al. 2023; Contaldo et al. 2023). It is important for future studies to investigate the long-term influence of antiseptics, including OCT on host microbiota and its implications for antimicrobial stewardship.

ORCID

Tomasz M. Karpiński <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6599-9204>

Marzena Korbecka-Paczkowska <https://orcid.org/0009-0003-7168-3099>

Agnieszka Zeidler <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0553-0441>

Wojciech Grzywna <https://orcid.org/0009-0002-7541-8922>

Conflict of interest

The authors do not report any financial or personal connections with other persons or organizations, which might negatively affect the contents of this publication and/or claim authorship rights to this publication.

References:

Alvarez-Marin R, Aires-de-Sousa M, Nordmann P, Kieffer N, Poirer L. Antimicrobial activity of octenidine against multidrug-resistant Gram-negative pathogens. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2017 Dec; 36(12), 2379–2383 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10096-017-3070-0>

Amaral GCLS, Hassan MA, Sloniak MC, Pannuti CM, Romito GA, Villar CC. Effects of antimicrobial mouthwashes on the human oral microbiome: Systematic review of controlled clinical trials. *Int J Dent Hyg*. 2023 Feb 21(1):128–140. <https://doi.org/10.1111/idh.12617>

Barreto R, Barrois B, Lambert J, Malhotra-Kumar S, Santos-Fernandes V, Monstrey S. Addressing the challenges in antisepsis: focus on povidone iodine. *Int J Antimicrob Agents*. 2020 Sep; 56(3):106064. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2020.106064>

Bharadwaj A, Rastogi A, Pandey S, Gupta S, Sohal JS. Multi-drug-Resistant Bacteria: Their Mechanism of Action and Prophylaxis. *Biomed Res Int*. 2022 Sep; 5419874. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2022/5419874>

Biermann CD, Kribs A, Roth B, Tantcheva-Poor I. Use and Cutaneous Side Effects of Skin Antiseptics in Extremely Low Birth Weight Infants - A Retrospective Survey of the German NICUs. *Klin Padiatr*. 2016 Jul; 228(4):208–212. <https://doi.org/10.1055/s-0042-104122>

Bigliardi PL, Alsagoff SAL, El-Kafrawi HY, Pyon J-K, Wa CTC, Villa MA. Povidone iodine in wound healing: A review of current concepts and practices. *International Journal of Surgery*. 2017 Aug; 44:260–268. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijsu.2017.06.073>

Bock LJ, Ferguson PM, Clarke M, Pumpitakul V, Wand ME, Fady P-E, Allison L, Fleck RA, Shepherd MJ, Mason AJ, et al. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* adapts to octenidine via a combination of efflux and membrane remodelling. *Commun Biol*. 2021 Sep; 4(1):1058. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s42003-021-02566-4>

Bonomo RA, Perez F, Hujer AM, Hujer KM, Vila AJ. The Real Crisis in Antimicrobial Resistance: Failure to Anticipate and Respond. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*. 2024 Jun; 78(6):1429–1433. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciad758>

Brookes ZLS, McCullough M, Kumar P, McGrath C. Mouthwashes: Implications for Practice. *Int Dent J*. 2023 Nov; 73 Suppl 2(Suppl 2):S98–S101. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.identj.2023.08.013>

Calow T, Oberle K, Bruckner-Tuderman L, Jakob T, Schumann H. Contact dermatitis due to use of Octenisept in wound care. *J Dtsch Dermatol Ges*. 2009 Sep; 7(9):759–765. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1610-0387.2009.07035.x>

Conceição T, de Lencastre H, Aires-de-Sousa M. Bactericidal activity of octenidine against *Staphylococcus aureus* harbouring genes encoding multidrug resistance efflux pumps. *J Glob Antimicrob Resist*. 2019 Mar; 16:239–241. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jgar.2019.01.033>

Contaldo M, D'Ambrosio F, Ferraro GA, Di Stasio D, Di Palo MP, Serpico R, Simeone M. Antibiotics in Dentistry: A Narrative Review of the Evidence beyond the Myth. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2023 Jun; 20(11):6025. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph20116025>

Davis SC, Harding A, Gil J, Parajon F, Valdes J, Solis M, Higa A. Effectiveness of a polyhexanide irrigation solution on methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* biofilms in a porcine wound model. *Int Wound J*. 2017 Dec; 14(6):937–944. <https://doi.org/10.1111/iwj.12734>

Denkel LA, Kramer TS, Schwab F, Golembus J, Wolke S, Gastmeier P, Geffers C. Chlorhexidine and octenidine susceptibility of bacterial isolates from clinical samples in a three-armed cluster randomised decolonisation trial. *PLoS One*. 2022 Dec; 17(12):e0278569. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0278569>

- Dittmann K, Schmidt T, Müller G, Cuny C, Holtfreter S, Troitzsch D, Pfaff P, Hübner N-O. Susceptibility of livestock-associated methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (LA-MRSA) to chlorhexidine digluconate, octenidine dihydrochloride, polyhexanide, PVP-iodine and triclosan in comparison to hospital-acquired MRSA (HA-MRSA) and community-acquired MRSA (CA-MRSA): a standardized comparison. *Antimicrob Resist Infect Control*. 2019 Jul; 8:122. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13756-019-0580-9>
- Dydak K, Junka A, Dydak A, Brożyna M, Paleczny J, Fijałkowski K, Kubiela G, Aniolek O, Bartoszewicz M. In Vitro Efficacy of Bacterial Cellulose Dressings Chemisorbed with Antiseptics against Biofilm Formed by Pathogens Isolated from Chronic Wounds. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2021 Apr; 22(8):3996. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms22083996>
- Eigner F, Keller S, Schmitt S, Corti S, Nollf MC. Efficiency of octenidine dihydrochloride alcohol combination compared to ethanol based skin antiseptics for preoperative skin preparation in dogs. *PLoS One*. 2023 Nov; 18(11):e0293211. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0293211>
- European Standard EN 1040:2005. "Chemical disinfectants and antiseptics – Quantitative suspension test for the evaluation of basic bactericidal activity of chemical disinfectants and antiseptics – Test method and requirements (phase 1)"
- European Standard EN 13727:2012+A2:201. "Chemical disinfectants and antiseptics – Quantitative suspension test for the evaluation of bactericidal activity in the medical area – Test method and requirements (Phase 2, Step 1)"
- Fang T, Xiong J, Wang L, Feng Z, Hang S, Yu J, Li W, Feng Y, Lu H, Jiang Y. Unexpected Inhibitory Effect of Octenidine Dihydrochloride on *Candida albicans* Filamentation by Impairing Ergosterol Biosynthesis and Disrupting Cell Membrane Integrity. *Antibiotics* (Basel). 2023 Nov; 12(12):1675. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics12121675>
- Garratt I, Aranega-Bou P, Sutton JM, Moore G, Wand ME. Long-Term Exposure to Octenidine in a Simulated Sink Trap Environment Results in Selection of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Citrobacter*, and *Enterobacter* Isolates with Mutations in Efflux Pump Regulators. *Appl Environ Microbiol*. 2021 Apr; 87(10):e00210-21. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.00210-21>
- Grover V, Mahendra J, Gopalakrishnan D, Jain A. Effect of octenidine mouthwash on plaque, gingivitis, and oral microbial growth: A systematic review. *Clin Exp Dent Res*. 2021 Aug; 7(4):450–464. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cre2.386>
- Huang J, Fan Q, Guo M, Wu M, Wu S, Shen S, Wang X, Wang H. Octenidine dihydrochloride treatment of a methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* biofilm-infected mouse wound. *J Wound Care*. 2021 Feb; 30(2):106–114. <https://doi.org/10.12968/jowc.2021.30.2.106>
- Hübner N-O, Siebert J, Kramer A. Octenidine Dihydrochloride, a Modern Antiseptic for Skin, Mucous Membranes and Wounds. *Skin Pharmacology and Physiology*. 2010 May; 23(5):244–258. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000314699>
- Junka A, Bartoszewicz M, Smutnicka D, Secewicz A, Szymczyk P. Efficacy of antiseptics containing povidone-iodine, octenidine dihydrochloride and ethacridine lactate against biofilm formed by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Staphylococcus aureus* measured with the novel biofilm-oriented antiseptics test. *Int Wound J*. 2014 Dec; 11(6):730–734. <https://doi.org/10.1111/iwj.12057>
- Karpiński TM. Adaptation Index (KAI) – a new indicator of adaptation and potential antimicrobial resistance. *Herba Polonica*. 2024 Sep; 70(3):39–46. <https://doi.org/10.5604/01.3001.0054.8029>
- Karpiński TM, Korbecka-Paczowska M, Ożarowski M, Włodkovic D, Wyganowska ML, Seremak-Mrozikiewicz A, Cielecka-Piontek J. Adaptation to Sodium Hypochlorite and Potassium Permanganate May Lead to Their Ineffectiveness Against *Candida albicans*. *Pharmaceuticals* (Basel). 2024 Nov; 17(11):1544. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ph17111544>
- Karpiński TM, Korbecka-Paczowska M, Stasiewicz M, Mrozikiewicz AE, Włodkovic D, Cielecka-Piontek J. Activity of Antiseptics Against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and Its Adaptation Potential. *Antibiotics*. 2025b Jan; 14(1):30. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics14010030>
- Karpiński TM, Ożarowski M, Paczkowska-Walendowska M, Cielecka-Piontek J. Astaxanthin demonstrates moderate or weak activity against bacterial and fungal pathogens. *Food Bioscience*. 2025a Mar; 65:106026. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbio.2025.106026>
- Koburger T, Hübner N-O, Braun M, Siebert J, Kramer A. Standardized comparison of antiseptic efficacy of triclosan, PVP-iodine, octenidine dihydrochloride, polyhexanide and chlorhexidine digluconate. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2010 Aug; 65(8):1712–1719. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkq212>
- Korbecka-Paczowska M, Karpiński TM. In Vitro Assessment of Antifungal and Antibiofilm Efficacy of Commercial Mouthwashes against *Candida albicans*. *Antibiotics* (Basel). 2024 Jan; 13(2):117. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics13020117>
- Kramer A, Dissemmond J, Kim S, Willy C, Mayer D, Papke R, Tuchmann F, Assadian O. Consensus on Wound Antisepsis: Update 2018. *Skin Pharmacol Physiol*. 2018 Dec; 31(1):28–58. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000481545>
- Krasowski G, Junka A, Paleczny J, Czajkowska J, Makomaska-Szaroszyk E, Chodaczek G, Majkowski M, Migdał P, Fijałkowski K, Kowalska-Krochmal B, et al. In Vitro Evaluation of Polyhexanide, Octenidine and NaClO/HClO-Based Antiseptics against Biofilm Formed by Wound Pathogens. *Membranes* (Basel). 2021 Jan; 11(1):62. <https://doi.org/10.3390/membranes11010062>
- Küng E, Pietrzak J, Klaus C, Walochnik J. In vitro effect of octenidine dihydrochloride against *Trichomonas vaginalis*. *Int J Antimicrob Agents*. 2016 Mar; 47(3):232–234. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2015.12.010>
- Loose M, Naber KG, Purcell L, Wirth MP, Wagenlehner FME. Anti-Biofilm Effect of Octenidine and Polyhexanide on Uropathogenic Biofilm-Producing Bacteria. *Urol Int*. 2021 Jan; 105(3–4):278–284. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000512370>
- Malanovic N, Buttress JA, Vejzovic D, Ön A, Piller P, Kolb D, Lohner K, Strahl H. Disruption of the Cytoplasmic Membrane Structure and Barrier Function Underlies the Potent Antiseptic Activity of Octenidine in Gram-Positive Bacteria. *Appl Environ Microbiol*. 2022 May; 88(10):e0018022. <https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.00180-22>
- Malanovic N, Ön A, Pabst G, Zellner A, Lohner K. Octenidine: Novel insights into the detailed killing mechanism of Gram-negative bacteria at a cellular and molecular level. *Int J Antimicrob Agents*. 2020 Nov; 56(5):106146. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2020.106146>
- Meister TL, Brüggemann Y, Todt D, Conzelmann C, Müller JA, Groß R, Münch J, Krawczyk A, Steinmann Jörg, Steinmann Jochen, et al. Virucidal Efficacy of Different Oral Rinses Against Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus 2. *The Journal of Infectious Diseases*. 2020 Oct; 222(8):1289–1292. <https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/jiaa471>

- Mivšek AP, Petročnik P, Skubic M, Škodič Zakšek T, Jug Došler A. Umbilical Cord Management and Stump Care in Normal Childbirth in Slovenian and Croatian Maternity Hospitals. *Acta Clin Croat*. 2017 Dec; 56(4):773–780. <https://doi.org/10.20471/acc.2017.56.04.27>
- Nair HKR, Mrozikiewicz-Rakowska B, Pinto DS, Stuermer EK, Matiassek J, Sander J, Lázaro-Martínez JL, Ousey K, Assadian O, Kim PJ, et al. Use of wound antiseptics in practice. International Consensus Document. *Wounds International*.: 2023. 1–27.
- Nicolae Dopcea G, Dopcea I, Nanu AE, Diguță CE, Matei F. Resistance and cross-resistance in *Staphylococcus* spp. strains following prolonged exposure to different antiseptics. *J Glob Antimicrob Resist*. 2020 Jun; 21:399–404. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jgar.2019.10.021>
- Novakov Mikić A, Stojic S. Study results on the use of different therapies for the treatment of vaginitis in hospitalised pregnant women. *Arch Gynecol Obstet*. 2015 Aug; 292(2):371–376. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00404-015-3638-9>
- Pelling H, Bennett V, Bock LJ, Wand ME, Denham EL, MacFarlane WM, Sutton JM, Jones BV. Identification of mechanisms modulating chlorhexidine and octenidine susceptibility in *Proteus mirabilis*. *J Appl Microbiol*. 2024 Jul; 135(7):lxae173. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jambio/lxae173>
- PubChem. Octenidine Hydrochloride. [accessed 2025 Mar 4]. <https://pubchem.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/compound/51166>.
- Rath A, Wong M, Li K, Wong A, Tan L, Tan K, Pannuti CM. Efficacy of adjunctive octenidine hydrochloride as compared to chlorhexidine and placebo as adjuncts to instrumentation in stage I-II periodontitis: A double-blinded randomized controlled trial. *Int J Dent Hyg*. 2024 Nov; <https://doi.org/10.1111/idh.12795>
- Rembe J-D, Huelsboemer L, Plattfaut I, Besser M, Stuermer EK. Antimicrobial Hypochlorous Wound Irrigation Solutions Demonstrate Lower Anti-biofilm Efficacy Against Bacterial Biofilm in a Complex in-vitro Human Plasma Biofilm Model (hpBIOM) Than Common Wound Antimicrobials. *Front Microbiol*. 2020 Oct; 11:564513. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2020.564513>
- Schedler K, Assadian O, Brautferger U, Müller G, Koburger T, Classen S, Kramer A. Proposed phase 2/ step 2 in-vitro test on basis of EN 14561 for standardised testing of the wound antiseptics PVP-iodine, chlorhexidine digluconate, polihexanide and octenidine dihydrochloride. *BMC Infectious Diseases*. 2017 Feb; 17(1):143. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12879-017-2220-4>
- Schug AR, Scholtzek AD, Turnidge J, Meurer M, Schwarz S, Feßler AT. The Biocide Susceptibility Study Group null. Development of Quality Control Ranges for Biocide Susceptibility Testing. *Pathogens*. 2022 Feb; 11(2):223. <https://doi.org/10.3390/pathogens11020223>
- Severing A-L, Borkovic M, Stuermer EK, Rembe J-D. Composition of Challenge Substance in Standardized Antimicrobial Efficacy Testing of Wound Antimicrobials Is Essential to Correctly Simulate Efficacy in the Human Wound Micro-Environment. *Biomedicines*. 2022 Oct; 10(11):2751. <https://doi.org/10.3390/biomedicines10112751>
- Sharma A, Shankar R, Yadav AK, Pratap A, Ansari MA, Srivastava V. Burden of Chronic Nonhealing Wounds: An Overview of the Worldwide Humanistic and Economic Burden to the Healthcare System. *Int J Low Extrem Wounds*. 2024 Apr; 15347346241246339. <https://doi.org/10.1177/15347346241246339>
- Shepherd MJ, Moore G, Wand ME, Sutton JM, Bock LJ. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* adapts to octenidine in the laboratory and a simulated clinical setting, leading to increased tolerance to chlorhexidine and other biocides. *J Hosp Infect*. 2018 Nov; 100(3):e23–e29. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhin.2018.03.037>
- da Silva DAV, Dieckmann R, Makarewicz O, Hartung A, Bethe A, Grobbel M, Belik V, Pletz MW, Al Dahouk S, Neuhaus S. Biocide Susceptibility and Antimicrobial Resistance of *Escherichia coli* Isolated from Swine Feces, Pork Meat and Humans in Germany. *Antibiotics (Basel)*. 2023 Apr; 12(5):823. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics12050823>
- Smeets R, Pfefferle S, Büttner H, Knobloch JK, Lütgehetmann M. Impact of Oral Rinsing with Octenidine Based Solution on SARS-CoV-2 Loads in Saliva of Infected Patients an Exploratory Study. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2022 May; 19(9):5582. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19095582>
- Sopata M, Mrozikiewicz-Rakowska B, Jawień A, Woron J, Malka M, Karpinski TM, Sobieszek-Kundro A, Gabriel M, Mańkowski P, Szweczyk M, et al. Statement of the Polish Wound Management Association – antimicrobial management in colonized wounds, with signs of infection and at risk of infection in the era of antibiotic resistance [in Polish]. *Leczenie Ran*. 2023 Dec; 20(4):124–141. doi:10.60075/lr.v20i4.59
- Steinhauer K, Meister TL, Todt D, Krawczyk A, Paßvogel L, Becker B, Paulmann D, Bischoff B, Pfaender S, Brill FHH, et al. Comparison of the in-vitro efficacy of different mouthwash solutions targeting SARS-CoV-2 based on the European Standard EN 14476. *J Hosp Infect*. 2021 May; 111:180–183. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhin.2021.01.031>
- Swidsinski A, Loening-Baucke V, Swidsinski S, Verstraelen H. Polymicrobial *Gardnerella* biofilm resists repeated intravaginal antiseptic treatment in a subset of women with bacterial vaginosis: a preliminary report. *Arch Gynecol Obstet*. 2015 Mar; 291(3):605–609. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00404-014-3484-1>
- Tagliaferri TL, Rhode S, Muñoz P, Simon K, Krüttgen A, Stoppe C, Ruhl T, Beier JP, Horz H-P, Kim B-S. Antiseptic management of critical wounds: differential bacterial response upon exposure to antiseptics and first insights into antiseptic/phage interactions. *Int J Surg*. 2024 Sep; 110(9):5374–5384. <https://doi.org/10.1097/JS9.0000000000001605>
- Tirali RE, Turan Y, Akal N, Karahan ZC. In vitro antimicrobial activity of several concentrations of NaOCl and Octenisept in elimination of endodontic pathogens. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod*. 2009 Nov; 108(5):e117–120. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tripleo.2009.07.012>
- Vejzovic D, Iftić A, Ōn A, Semeraro EF, Malanovic N. Octenidine's Efficacy: A Matter of Interpretation or the Influence of Experimental Setups? *Antibiotics (Basel)*. 2022 Nov; 11(11):1665. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics11111665>
- Verspecht T, Rodriguez Herrero E, Khodaparast Ladan, Khodaparast Laleh, Boon N, Bernaerts K, Quirynen M, Teughels W. Development of antiseptic adaptation and cross-adaptation in selected oral pathogens in vitro. *Sci Rep*. 2019 Jun; 9(1):8326. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-44822-y>
- Wand ME, Jamshidi S, Bock LJ, Rahman KM, Sutton JM. SmvA is an important efflux pump for cationic biocides in *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and other Enterobacteriaceae. *Sci Rep*. 2019 Feb; 9(1):1344. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-37730-0>