

Review

Controversies and challenges of chronic wound infection diagnosis and treatment

Mara Mădălina Mihai^{1,2}, Călin Giurcăneanu^{2,3}, Liliana Gabriela Popa^{2,3}, Cornelia Nițipir⁴, Mircea Ioan Popa¹

¹Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Medicine, "Carol Davila" University of Medicine and Pharmacy, Bucharest, Romania

²Department of Dermatology and Allergology, "Elias" University Emergency Hospital, Bucharest, Romania

³Department of Dermatology and Allergology, Faculty of Medicine, "Carol Davila" University of Medicine and Pharmacy, Bucharest, Romania

⁴Department of Oncology, "Elias" University Emergency Hospital, Bucharest, Romania

REZUMAT

Controverse și provocări în diagnosticul și tratamentul infecțiilor de la nivelul plăgilor cronice

Pe parcursul ultimului deceniu, plăgile cronice, precum ulcerul venoasă sau arterial, ulcerul diabetic, escarele și plăgile chirurgicale cu vindecare întârziată, au captat atenția comunității medicale, datorită prevalenței în creștere și a costurilor ridicate de tratament. Insuficiența vasculară reprezintă principala cauză de apariție a ulcerelor cronice, în timp ce infecția este cea mai frecventă complicație. Infecțiile cronice persistă și progresează în ciuda unui tratament antimicrobian adecvat și sunt de obicei cauzate de biofilme mono- sau polimicrobiene. Colonizarea bacteriană persistentă a plăgilor, precum și utilizarea pe termen îndelungat a antibioticelor predispun spre dezvoltarea infecțiilor nosocomiale cu tulpini rezistente, situație în care complicațiile septică implică un risc vital, în special la indivizii imunocompromiși. În acest articol, efectuăm o revizuire aprofundată a literaturii științifice, pentru a răspunde principalelor controverse privind implicarea microorganismelor planctonice și/sau biofilmelor în procesul de vindecare a plăgilor cronice. De asemenea, ne propunem să analizăm utilitatea tratamentului antimicrobian în ulcerul cu vindecare întârziată și să stabilim principalele sale obiective, spre a obține beneficiul terapeutic maximal.

Cuvinte cheie: infecție cronică, plagă cronică, biofilm, antibiotic, antiseptic

ABSTRACT

Over the last decade, chronic wounds such as venous or arterial ulcers, diabetic foot ulcers, pressure sores, and non-healing surgical wounds were brought into the spotlight of the medical community, due to their increasing prevalence and to their significant economic burden. Vascular impairment represents the main cause of chronic ulceration, while the infection is the most frequent complication. Chronic infections persist and progress despite an adequate antimicrobial regimen and are typically caused by mono- or polymicrobial biofilms. The persistent bacterial colonization of the wound, as well as the longterm use of antibiotics predispose to the development of nosocomial infections with resistant strains, with the risk of life-threatening septic complications, especially in immunocompromised individuals. In this article, we perform a thorough literature review, in order to answer the main controversies regarding the involvement of planktonic

Corresponding author: Cornelia Nitipir, MD
Department of Oncology, "Elias" University Emergency Hospital, Bucharest, Romania
e-mail: nitipir2003@yahoo.com

and/or biofilm bacteria in the healing process of chronic wounds. Furthermore, we aim to analyse the utility of antimicrobial treatment in non-healing wounds, and to establish its main end-points, for the optimal benefit of the patients.

Key words: chronic infection, chronic wound, biofilm, antibiotic therapy, antiseptic

INTRODUCTION

Over the last decade, chronic wounds such as venous or arterial ulcers, diabetic foot ulcers, pressure sores, and non-healing surgical wounds were brought into the spotlight of the medical community, due to their increasing prevalence and to their significant economic burden (1). In developed countries billions of dollars are spent each year (2,3) for the repeated hospitalizations and expensive treatment of patients suffering from non-healing ulcers. The persistent pain, either spontaneous or induced by treatment (4), the malodour of the ulceration (5), the mobility restrictions (6), and the excessive exudate, significantly impair the patients' quality of life, who might also experience secondary mood disorders (50-75%) (6) or sleep disorders (69%) (7). The persistent bacterial colonization of the wound, as well as the longterm use of antibiotics predispose to the development of nosocomial infections with resistant strains such as methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), extended spectrum beta-lactamases (ESBLs) producing microorganisms, and multiple antibiotic resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (8). Immunocompromised individuals, either institutionalized or hospitalized, are particularly affected by the chronic infection with resistant strains, due to their higher risk of developing life-threatening septic complications (9). Other severe outcomes are represented by limb loss (10) or malignancy (5).

Chronic or refractory wounds are defined as lesions that don't show any tendency to heal after 3 months of standard therapeutic care or that still persist after 12 months of appropriate treatment (11). Chronic infections persist and progress despite an adequate antimicrobial regimen (12) and are typically caused by mono- or polymicrobial biofilms. This theory aims to explain the pathogenic role of bacteria in the non-healing trajectory of chronic wounds. Although several recent studies associated wound infection with the process of delayed healing, controversy still exists, since current literature is equivocal on the subject (13-15). However, antimicrobial therapy remains the mainstay of treatment.

In this article, we perform a thorough literature review, in an attempt to answer the main controversies regarding the involvement of planktonic and/or biofilm bacteria in the healing process of chronic wounds. Furthermore, we aim to analyse the utility of antimicrobial treatment in non-healing wounds, and to establish its main end-points, for the optimal benefit of the patients.

Chronic wound infection

Wound bacteria impede normal healing?

In recent scientific literature, the microorganisms most frequently identified by traditional culturing techniques from various types of chronic wound samples, were represented by species of *Staphylococcus* (47%-55%), mainly *S. aureus* and *S. epidermidis* (16-18), by *P. aeruginosa* (25%, 33.6%) (17,18), *Enterococcus faecalis* and *Enterobacteriaceae spp.* such as *Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Enterobacter spp.* (8,16). Some reports warn on the increasing incidence of multi-resistant Gram negative bacteria colonizing chronic skin ulcers (8,19). Several studies revealed by anaerobic culturing techniques or by molecular microbial diagnostic tests (Polymerase Chain Reaction, 16S DNA sequencing), the high proportion of anaerobic bacteria of the wound microbiota (20-22). Most often, wounds are colonised by multiple microbial species, bacteria and fungi, aerobic and anaerobic, and, therefore, it is very difficult or even impossible to make a prediction of their individual impact on wound-healing (23).

Previous data suggests the implication of biofilm bacteria in approximately 80% of all human infections (24,25), while in chronic wounds the presence of mono- or polymicrobial biofilms was documented in about 60% of cases (26). Recently, it was argued that biofilms exist in all chronic wounds, due to the general property of microorganisms to attach to a surface and, consequently, to the wound base, where they develop complex communities (14).

When environmental factors become unfavourable for the optimal development and multiplication of free-floating bacteria, the microorganisms switch into a biofilm phenotype as a survival strategy (27). Clusters of aggregated cells, adhered to a surface or floating free in organic matter (28), are embedded in an extracellular matrix, with mixed origin, both self-produced (polysaccharides, proteins, DNA, RNA, lipids) as well as originating from the host (DNA, RNA, fibrin, platelets, immunoglobulins) (12,29).

The biofilm is characterised by tolerance to antimicrobial therapy, gained through various mechanisms such as the variability of bacterial metabolic rates from the surface to the centre of the biofilm (30), by the action of antibiotic degrading enzymes (30), or the mechanical obstacle represented by the extracellular matrix (31). This fact explains why antibiogram-guided antibiotherapy may

be associated with treatment failure and infectious relapses (12). Moreover, the mono- or polymicrobial biofilms display tolerance to the host's immune defense mechanisms, primarily through resistance to immune cell phagocytosis (16, 32, 33), while they trigger a persistent, low-intensity inflammatory response, different from the exuberant systemic response of planktonic bacteria (12, 34).

It is rational that both bacterial phenotypes, planktonic or biofilm, interfere with the healing of acute and chronic wounds, since they already have assigned roles in the occurrence of exacerbations or in the maintenance of a persistent inflammatory status (14). This is especially true when clinical signs of infection are present. Group A and G beta-haemolytic streptococci, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* were associated with an unfavourable outcome (35). On the other hand, Kostarnoy AV et al. (2013) observed an improved healing rate after topical application of bacterial lipopolysaccharide in acute wounds (36), while Kanno E et al. (2013) noticed that low levels of bacterial contamination might enhance tisular regeneration (37). The difference between comensal and pathogenic biofilm bacteria should be influenced by the virulence of the microorganisms.

Few authors studied the virulence pattern of bacteria and their ability to form biofilms. In patients diagnosed with venous ulcers, arterial ulcers, sacral pressure sores, thoracic wounds secondary to breast cancer, non-healing surgical wounds, and abscesses, Mihai MM et al. (2014) revealed that all of the studied *P. aeruginosa* strains intensely developed biofilms (Fig. 1), followed by *S. aureus* strains which had low differences between methicillin and non-methicillin resistant bacteria, while Enterobacteriaceae spp. showed a low capacity to form such structures at 24, 48 and 72 hours of incubation (8).

We support the idea of Gottrup F et al. (2014) that not all wound bacteria should be removed, although a clear causal or protective role of microorganisms in wound healing has not yet been established (35).

Should we regularly include aerobic culturing in the diagnosis of chronic wound infection?

Depending on the availability of several laboratory

tests in wound care facilities, the following clinical and laboratory features may be considered useful in biofilm diagnosis: the presence of clinical signs of infection, especially if they lasted more than 7 days, the failure of antibiotic treatment and recurrence of infection, the reappearance of systemic signs and symptoms of infection after antibiotherapy cessation, the detection of mucoid *P. aeruginosa* (12, 38), a biofilm-specific microbial phenotype, the microscopic evidence of microbial aggregates and biofilm structure, surrounded by inflammatory infiltrates, positive molecular diagnostic methods (Polymerase Chain Reaction, Fluorescence in situ Hybridization, Pyrosequencing or Next-generation Sequencing) and even a specific immune response to the identified microorganisms, expected after 2 weeks of biofilm infection (12).

In the diagnosis of chronic wound biofilm infection, the utility of aerobic culturing techniques of superficially collected samples was repeatedly questioned because they may yield false-positive results in case of contamination with skin microflora. Also, false negative results can appear despite suggestive clinical signs of infection, due to an increased adherence of biofilm bacteria to the surrounding tissues, to the presence of non-culturable bacteria, with low metabolic rates, and to the impossibility to diagnose anaerobic microorganisms (9, 12, 39). Moreover, traditional culturing cannot differentiate between planktonic or biofilm bacteria.

The most recent guideline of biofilm diagnosis recommends, in case of severe or moderate soft tissue infection, to perform a tisular biopsy from the base of the debrided wound, followed by histopathological examination. Although this reliable technique can objectivate the microbial aggregates, as well as the accumulation of polymorphous nuclear cells (PMNs) at the infection site (40, 41), it cannot identify the causative microorganisms and contribute to the therapeutic approach (9, 42).

Formerly considered the gold standard of wound infection diagnosis, aerobic culturing may still provide useful information when it is associated with antibiotic susceptibility testing in order to guide antibiotherapy (12), especially for biofilm dispersed bacteria and risk of systemic infection. The results of antibiotic susceptibility



Figure 1. Microscopy analysis of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* biofilms developed after 24 hours (A), 48 hours (B) and 72 hours (C) (Personal library, CDPC, Colentina Clinical Hospital, Bucharest; Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Biology, University of Bucharest)

testing can, however, be misleading in biofilm infections, due to their characteristic tolerance to such therapeutic agents. The Calgary Biofilm Device was designed to detect in a standardised, repeatable, and reproducible method the minimum biofilm eliminating/eradication concentration (MBEC) (43, 44).

In acute infections, such as urinary tract infections, a quantitative microbiological assessment guides the therapeutic approach (the presence of more than 10⁵ bacteria/mm³). In non healing-wounds and chronic infections no clear relationship has been established yet between the bacterial load and the clinical signs of infection 35. Critical colonisation defines the amount of bacteria present in non-infected, non-healing wounds, involved in the pathogenesis of the skin lesions.

What is the optimal treatment of chronic wound infection: antibiotics, antiseptics or other therapeutic agents?

In order to efficiently treat chronic infections, the approach should initially focus on the prevention of microbial attachment and biofilm development, followed by the selection of therapeutic agents with an increased delivery to their biofilm target (9). Moreover, to achieve optimal functional results, adverse reactions, such as allergy or intolerance, should be rapidly diagnosed. The emergence of resistant strains should be carefully assessed by periodic microbiological examination of wound samples, associated with antibiograms for the isolated bacteria (9).

If antimicrobial therapy is to be considered the ideal therapeutic approach in patients with chronic wounds, then it should accomplish the following: prevent and treat wound infection, promote wound healing and increase the patient's quality of life (45). Moreover, an ideal antimicrobial agent should remove all pathogenic bacteria, or at least reduce the bacterial load below the critical colonization limit, should spare the commensal microflora and should support the host's defence mechanisms (45).

While resistance to antibiotics is genetically acquired and therefore it is irreversible, the tolerance of the biofilm to antimicrobials may revert to susceptibility after a phenotypic change to a free-floating status (9). In chronic wound infection, standard antibiotic therapy alone cannot eradicate biofilm infection because the appropriate concentrations reach values 1,000 times higher compared to the ones for planktonic bacteria (46, 47), and cannot be used in clinical practice due to the associated toxicity. Moreover, due to hypermutability and an increased horizontal gene transfer, biofilm communities generate in higher rates resistant bacterial strains at higher rates (48, 49).

In cystic lung infection with *P. aeruginosa*, during the phenotypic change, it was documented the existence of a so-called "window of opportunity" occurs, which signifies a period of microbial vulnerability to an aggressive

antibiotic therapy (50). This might suggest the utility of an antibiotic pulse-therapy, repeated periodically, in order to maintain the bacterial load at unharmed levels as pre-emptive treatment. However, there is no evidence to support the use of systemic antibiotics to prevent or to treat biofilm wound infection despite their common use in clinical practice (12, 51-53).

No evidence is available regarding the optimal therapeutic approach in chronic wound infections with mature biofilms, the context in which topical antimicrobials should be initiated (non-healing non-infected wound vs wounds with clinical signs of infection) or the exact antimicrobial targets (wound sterilization vs the sparing of "good bacteria", fungi or bacteria) (12). Høiby N et al. suggested that combined therapy is a better option (two different classes of antibiotics, local and systemic therapy, local antibiotic and local antiseptic) (12). Also, the application of antimicrobials on a previously debrided wound should be effective (12, 54), because it would remove residual free-floating bacteria, the main source of biofilm restoration (35).

Therapeutic decisions should not be based on the price of a single product, but rather on a thorough evaluation of the full costs of treatment, with the premises that it would take place on a long period of time and it should achieve wound healing (35). The overuse of antibiotics, a main cause of the rising prevalence of microbial resistance, should be prevented by the education of both patients and healthcare practitioners (55).

The efficacy of antimicrobial therapy is optimally assessed by objective clinical measures of wound progression, using standardised questionnaires such as the Wound Healing Index (56), as compared to the removal of microorganisms from ulcers (35).

The alternatives to antibiotic treatment

Since topical and systemic antibiotherapy have the previously mentioned downsides, antiseptics represent a promising alternative for the removal of wound bacteria. Topical antiseptics such as chlorhexidine, povidone iodine, hydrogen peroxide, boric acid, acetate, silver sulfadiazine or nitrate, and sodium hypochlorite have been widely used both as curative as well as a palliative treatment of chronic wounds, in order to prevent or to treat infections. Applied daily, they persist within the wound environment approximately 24 hours. However their beneficial effect on wound healing has been under debate in the last few years, due to their assumed cytotoxicity, revealed by in vitro studies. Future studies should focus on their effects in vivo, quantified at variable concentrations (57). Daeshlein G (2013) assigned the most efficient and best tolerated antiseptics: octenidine dihydrochloride and polyhexanide (45), to which microbial resistance in vitro has not yet been reported (35). However the antiseptic which mostly promotes wound healing is assumed to be polyhexamethylene biguanide (polyhexanide) (50).

Intuitively useful, a thorough wound debridement, either mechanical, enzymatic or biological, is the recommended approach of some authors, although, it has a temporary effect as single therapy and might even promote the inoculation of infection in deeper tissues (59).

The patient's general health status- an obstacle to overcome

Patients diagnosed with non-healing ulcers frequently associate predisposing factors such as sedentary lifestyle, alcohol consumption, older age or suffer from associated comorbidities, such as nutritional disorders (obesity, diabetes), cardio-vascular diseases (arterial hypertension, atherosclerosis), suggesting the need of a multidisciplinary approach (1). Daeshlein G (2013) pointed out the interdependence between the patient's general health status and wound healing, because each of them benefit from the amelioration of the other one (45).

The treatment of underlying respiratory or circulatory diseases, associated with tisular oxygen deprivation, as well as the implementation of health supporting measures, such as an adequate maintenance of gaseous exchange or weight control, play critical roles in an efficient wound care approach (45). The haemodynamic health in venous ulcerations might be achieved by vascular sclerotherapy or stripping, intraluminal ablative intervention (laser and steam), and the treatment of thrombotic syndrome, while in arterial wounds, vascular repermeabilisation by recanalisation, stent or bioprosthesis implantation, dilatation or pharmacological intervention with vasoactive components might promote wound healing (45).

When standard therapeutical measures fail, palliative care with multidisciplinary treatments should be initiated in order to achieve symptomatic improvement, as well as an enhancement of the quality of life of the patient and his family (60). It is also reasonable to consider novel and experimental therapeutic regimens, when all conventional treatment options have been exhausted (45).

CONCLUSIONS

The dermatologist often provides the continuing care of patients who have failed to achieve wound closure after medical and/or surgical treatment in departments of diabetology or vascular surgery, which involves creative thinking in the adaptation of treatment regimens to the unique needs of each patient, altogether with the control of other comorbidities. The early identification of high risk patients, less likely to respond to conventional therapies requires a solid and thorough knowledge of the etiopathogenic and aggravating factors that contribute to the non-healing course of chronic wounds.

The vascular impairment, the wound microbiota- with either planktonic or biofilm phenotypes, the local inflammatory response, as well as the comorbidities of the patient should be considered in the diagnosis and treatment of chronic wounds.

The relationship between the wound bacterial load and clinical signs of infection has not been established, and, therefore, the quantitative approach of microbiological diagnosis is not helpful, but rather the identification of the bacterial species and their virulence. Further studies should focus on establishing clear correlations between the virulence and resistance phenotypes of bacteria isolated from chronic wounds and the clinical picture. Also, a stricter definition of critical colonization is needed, while a clear causal or protective role of microorganisms in wound healing remains to be established.

Our recommendations of wound infection diagnosis and treatment differ depending on the observed clinical signs. When there are no signs of infection, in the so-called non-infected, non-healing wounds, aerobic culturing and systemic antibiotic therapy are not recommended, but we rather consider useful the pre-emptive approach that includes a thorough wound debridement and topical, well-tolerated antiseptics (Fig. 2). In case of severe or moderate soft tissue infection, aerobic culturing may still provide useful infor-



Figure 2. Wound progression A-Before treatment; B-6 months after personalised wound-care

mation when it is associated with antibiotic susceptibility testing in order to guide antibiotherapy. However, if possible, the most specific biofilm diagnostic procedure would be the histopathological examination of a superficial tisular of the debrided wound, enabling the clinician to adapt his approach towards biofilm-targeting therapeutic agents.

Although there is no evidence to support the use of systemic antibiotics to prevent or to treat biofilm wound infection, this approach is commonly used in clinical practice, giving rise to microbial resistance and nosocomial infections. Combined antimicrobial therapies might represent a better option, while the most recent guidelines of biofilm infection recommend the application of antiseptics such as octenidine dihydrochloride and polyhexanide on previously debrided wounds. Future research should focus on the development of alternative antimicrobial treatments in non-healing wounds.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This paper is partly supported by the Sectorial Operational Programme Human Resources Development (SOPHRD), financed by the European Social Fund and the Romanian Government under the contract number POSDRU/159/1.5/S/141531.

REFERENCES

- Sen CK, Gordillo GM, Roy S, Kirsner R, Lambert L, Hunt TK, Gottrup F, Gurtner GC, Longaker MT. Human skin wounds: a major and snowballing threat to public health and the economy. *Wound Repair Regen* 2009; 17(6):763-71.
- Brem H, Stojadinovic O, Diegelmann RF, Entero H, Lee B, Pastar I, Golinko M, Rosenberg H, Tomic-Canic M. Molecular markers in patients with chronic wounds to guide surgical debridement. *Mol Med* 2007; 13(1-2):30-9.
- Posnett J, Franks PJ. The burden of chronic wounds in the UK. *Nurs Times* 2008; 104(3):44-5.
- Upton D, Andrews A. Pain and trauma in negative pressure wound therapy: a review. *Int Wound J* 2015; 12(1):100-5.
- Jones J, Barr W, Robinson J, Carlisle C. Depression in patients with chronic venous ulceration. *Br J Nurs* 2006; 15(11):S17-23.
- Upton D, Hender C, Solowiej K. Mood disorders in patients with acute and chronic wounds: a health professional perspective. *J Wound Care* 2012; 21(1):42-8.
- Upton D, Andrews A. Sleep disruption in patients with chronic leg ulcers. *J Wound Care* 2013; 22(8):389-90, 92, 94.
- Mihai MM, Holban AM, Giurcăneanu C, Popa LG, Buza M, Filipov M, Lazăr V, Chifiriuc MC, Popa MI. Identification and phenotypic characterization of the most frequent bacterial etiologies in chronic skin ulcers. *Rom J Morphol Embryol* 2014; 55(4):1401-8.
- Mihai MM, Holban AM, Giurcăneanu C, Popa LG, Oanea RM, Lazar V, Chifiriuc MC, Popa M, Popa MI. Microbial biofilms: impact on the pathogenesis of periodontitis, cystic fibrosis, chronic wounds and medical device-related infections. *Curr Top Med Chem* 2015; 15(16):1552-76.
- Barshes NR, Gold B, Garcia A, Bechara CF, Pisimisis G, Koungias P. Minor amputation and palliative wound care as a strategy to avoid major amputation in patients with foot infections and severe peripheral arterial disease. *Int J Low Extrem Wounds* 2014; 13(3):211-9.
- Kahle B, Hermanns HJ, Gallenkemper G. Evidence-based treatment of chronic leg ulcers. *Dtsch Arztebl Int* 2011; 108(14):231-7.
- Højby N, Bjarnsholt T, Moser C, Bassi GL, Coenye T, Donelli G, Hall-Stoodley L, Holm V, Imbert C, Kirketerp-Møller K, Lebeaux D, Oliver A, Ullmann AJ, Williams C; ESCMID Study Group for Biofilms (ESGB) and Consulting External Expert Werner Zimmerli. ESCMID guideline for the diagnosis and treatment of biofilm infections 2014. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2015; 21 Suppl 1:S1-S25.
- Percival SL, Hill KE, Williams DW, Hooper SJ, Thomas DW, Costerton JW. A review of the scientific evidence for biofilms in wounds. *Wound Repair Regen* 2012; 20(5):647-57.
- Percival SL, McCarty S, Hunt JA, Woods EJ. The effects of pH on wound healing, biofilms, and antimicrobial efficacy. *Wound Repair Regen* 2014; 22(2):174-86.
- Thomson CH. Biofilms: do they affect wound healing? *Int Wound J* 2011; 8(1):63-7.
- Georgescu M, Măruțescu L, Trifu V, Marinescu V, Toropoc I, Chiriță DA, Poenaru M, Dărmănescu MS, Costache D, Chifiriuc MC. The profile of chronic skin wound microbiota in hospitalized dermatology patients. *Biointerface Res Appl Chem* 2014; 4(6):885-890.
- Jockenhöfer F, Chapot V, Stoffels-Weindorf M, Korbner A, Klode J, Buer J, Köpper B, Roesch A, Dissemond J. Bacterial spectrum colonizing chronic leg ulcers: a 10-year comparison from a German wound care center. *J Dtsch Dermatol Ges* 2014; 12(12):1121-7.
- Korbner A, Schmid EN, Buer J, Klode J, Schadendorf D, Dissemond J. Bacterial colonization of chronic leg ulcers: current results compared with data 5 years ago in a specialized dermatology department. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol* 2010; 24(9):1017-25.
- Moremi N, Mushi MF, Fidelis M, Chalya P, Mirambo M, Mshana SE. Predominance of multi-resistant gram-negative bacteria colonizing chronic lower limb ulcers (CLLUs) at Bugando Medical Center. *BMC Res Notes* 2014; 7:211.
- Rhoads DD, Wolcott RD, Sun Y, Dowd SE. Comparison of culture and molecular identification of bacteria in chronic wounds. *Int J Mol Sci* 2012; 13(3):2535-50.
- Han A, Zenilman JM, Melendez JH, Shirtliff ME, Agostinho A, James G, Stewart PS, Mongodin EF, Rao D, Rickard AH, Lazarus GS. The importance of a multifaceted approach to characterizing the microbial flora of chronic wounds. *Wound Repair Regen* 2011; 19:532-541.
- Stephens P, Wall IB, Wilson MJ, Hill KE, Davies CE, Hill CM, Harding KG, Thomas DW. Anaerobic cocci populating the deep tissues of chronic wounds impair cellular wound healing responses in vitro. *Br J Dermatol* 2003; 148:456-466.
- Donlan RM. Biofilms and device-associated infections. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2001; 7:277-81.
- Romling U, Balsalobre C. Biofilm infections, their resilience to therapy and innovative treatment strategies. *J Intern Med* 2012; 272(6):541-61.
- Nusbaum AG, Kirsner RS, Charles CA. Biofilms in dermatology. *Skin Therapy Lett* 2012; 17(7):1-5.
- James GA, Swogger E, Wolcott R, Pulcini Ed, Secor P, Sestrich J, Costerton JW, Stewart PS. Biofilms in chronic wounds. *Wound Repair Regen* 2008; 16(1):37-44.
- Alhede M, Kragh KN, Qvortrup K, Allesen-Holm M, van Gennip M, Christensen LD, Jensen P, Nielsen AK, Parsek M, Wozniak D, Molin S, Tolker-Nielsen T, Højby N, Givskov M, Bjarnsholt T. Phenotypes of non-attached *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* aggregates resemble surface attached biofilm. *PLoS One* 2011; 6(11):e27943.
- Scales BS, Huffnagle GB. The microbiome in wound repair and tissue fibrosis. *J Pathol* 2013; 229(2):323-331.
- Bessa LJ, Fazi P, Di Giulio M, Cellini L. Bacterial isolates from infected wounds and their antibiotic susceptibility pattern: some remarks about wound infection. *Int Wound J* 2015; 12(1):47-52.
- Coffey BM, Anderson GG. Biofilm formation in the 96-well microtiter plate. *Methods Mol Biol* 2014; 1149:631-641.
- Holban AM, Chifiriuc MC, Cotar AI, Bleotu C, Grumezescu AM, Banu O, Lazar V. Virulence markers in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* isolates from hospital-acquired infections occurred in patients with underlying cardiovascular disease. *Rom Biotechnol Lett* 2013;

- 18(6):8843–8854.
32. Holban AM, Cotar AI, Chifiriuc MC, Bleotu C, Banu O, Lazar V. Variation of virulence profiles in some *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strains isolated from different clinical patients. *AJMR* 2013; 7(27):3453–3460.
 33. Bleotu C, Chifiriuc MC, Dracea O, Iordache C, Delcaru C, Lazar V. In vitro modulation of adherence and invasion ability of enteroinvasive *Escherichia coli* by different viruses. *Int J Appl Biol Pharm Technol* 2010; 1(3):1359–1363.
 34. Højby N, Bjarnsholt T, Givskov M, Molin S, Ciofu O. Antibiotic resistance of bacterial biofilms. *Int J Antimicrob Agents* 2010; 35(4):322–32.
 35. Gottrup F, Apelqvist J, Bjarnsholt T, Cooper R, Moore Z, Peters EJ, Probst S. Antimicrobials and Non-Healing Wounds. Evidence, controversies and suggestions-key messages. *J Wound Care* 2014; 23(10):477–8, 480, 482.
 36. Kostarnoy AV, Gancheva PG, Logunov DY, Verkhovskaya LV, Bobrov MA, Scheblyakov DV, Tukhvatulin AI, Filippova NE, Naroditsky BS, Gintsburg AL. Topical bacterial lipopolysaccharide application affects inflammatory response and promotes wound healing. *J Interferon Cytokine Res* 2013; 33(9):514–22.
 37. Kanno E, Kawakami K, Miyairi S, Tanno H, Otomaru H, Hatana-ka A, Sato S, Ishii K, Hayashi D, Shibuya N, Imai Y, Gotoh N, Maruyama R, Tachi M. Neutrophil-derived tumor necrosis factor- α contributes to acute wound healing promoted by N-(3-oxododecanoyl)-L-homoserine lactone from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. *J Dermatol Sci* 2013; 70(2):130–8.
 38. Bjarnsholt T, Jensen PO, Fiandaca MJ, Pedersen J, Hansen CR, Andersen CB, Pressler T, Givskov M, Højby N. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* biofilms in the respiratory tract of cystic fibrosis patients. *Pediatr Pulmonol* 2009; 44:547–58.
 39. Bjarnsholt T. The role of bacterial biofilms in chronic infections. *APMIS Suppl*. 2013 May;(136):1–51.
 40. Bjarnsholt T, Kirketerp-Møller K, Jensen PΨ, Madsen KG, Phipps R, Krogfelt K, Højby N, Givskov M. Why chronic wounds will not heal: a novel hypothesis. *Wound Repair Regen* 2008; 16(1):2–10.
 41. Kirketerp-Møller K, Jensen PΨ, Fazli M, Madsen KG, Pedersen J, Moser C, Tolker-Nielsen T, Højby N, Givskov M, Bjarnsholt T. Distribution, organization, and ecology of bacteria in chronic wounds. *J Clin Microbiol* 2008; 46(8):2717–22.
 42. Trampuz A, Zimmerli W. Diagnosis and treatment of implant-associated septic arthritis and osteomyelitis. *Curr Infect Dis Rep* 2008; 10(5):394–403.
 43. Ceri H, Olson M, Morck D, Storey D, Read R, Buret A, Olson B. The MBEC Assay System: multiple equivalent biofilms for antibiotic and biocide susceptibility testing. *Methods Enzymol* 2001; 337:377–85.
 44. Parker AE, Walker DK, Goeres DM, Allan N, Olson ME, Omar A. Ruggedness and reproducibility of the MBEC biofilm disinfectant efficacy test. *J Microbiol Methods* 2014; 102:55–64.
 45. Daeschlein G. Antimicrobial and antiseptic strategies in wound management. *Int Wound J* 2013; 10 Suppl 1:9–14.
 46. Ceri H, Olson ME, Turner RJ. Needed, new paradigms in antibiotic development. *Expert Opin Pharmacother* 2010; 11(8):1233–7.
 47. Bjarnsholt T, Kirketerp-Møller K, Kristiansen S, Phipps R, Nielsen AK, Jensen PΨ, Højby N, Givskov M. Silver against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* biofilms. *APMIS* 2007; 115(8):921–8.
 48. Driffield K, Miller K, Bostock JM, O'Neill AJ, Chopra I. Increased mutability of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in biofilms. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2008; 61(5):1053–6.
 49. Tolker-Nielsen T. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* biofilm infections: from molecular biofilm biology to new treatment possibilities. *APMIS Suppl* 2014; (138):1–51.
 50. Højby N, Frederiksen B, Pressler T. Eradication of early *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* infection. *J Cyst Fibros* 2005; 4 Suppl 2:49–54.
 51. Lipsky BA, Berendt AR, Cornia PB, Pile JC, Peters EJ, Armstrong DG, Deery HG, Embil JM, Joseph WS, Karchmer AW, Pinzur MS, Senneville E, Infectious Diseases Society of America. Executive summary: 2012 Infectious Diseases Society of America clinical practice guideline for the diagnosis and treatment of diabetic foot infections. *Clin Infect Dis* 2012; 54:1679–84.
 52. O'Meara S, Cullum N, Majid M, Sheldon T. Systematic reviews of wound care management: (3) antimicrobial agents for chronic wounds; (4) diabetic foot ulceration. *Health Technol Assess* 2000; 4:1–237.
 53. Howell-Jones RS, Wilson MJ, Hill KE, Howard AJ, Price PE, Thomas DW. A review of the microbiology, antibiotic usage and resistance in chronic skin wounds. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2005; 55:143–9.
 54. Caputo WJ, Beggs DJ, DeFede JL, Simm L, Dharma H. A prospective randomised controlled clinical trial comparing hydrosurgery debridement with conventional surgical debridement in lower extremity ulcers. *Int Wound J* 2008; 5:288–94.
 55. Gottrup F, Apelqvist J, Bjarnsholt T, Cooper R, Moore Z, Peters EJ, Probst S. EWMA document: Antimicrobials and non-healing wounds. Evidence, controversies and suggestions. *J Wound Care* 2013; 22(5 Suppl):S1–89.
 56. Horn SD, Fife CE, Smout RJ, Barrett RS, Thomson B. Development of a wound healing index for patients with chronic wounds. *Wound Repair Regen* 2013; 21(6):823–32.
 57. Kumara DU, Fernando SS, Kottahachchi J, Dissanayake DM, Athukorala GI, Chandrasiri NS, Damayanthi KW, Hemarathne MH, Pathirana AA. Evaluation of bactericidal effect of three antiseptics on bacteria isolated from wounds. *J Wound Care* 2015; 24(1):5–10.
 58. Hirsch T, Jacobsen F, Rittig A, Goertz O, Niederbichler A, Steinau HU, Seipp HM, Steinstraesser L. A comparative in vitro study of cell toxicity of clinically used antiseptics. *Hautarzt* 2009; 60:984–91.
 59. Roy S, Elgharably H, Sinha M, Ganesh K, Chaney S, Mann E, Miller C, Khanna S, Bergdall VK, Powell HM, Cook CH, Gordillo GM, Wozniak DJ, Sen CK. Mixed-species biofilm compromises wound healing by disrupting epidermal barrier function. *J Pathol* 2014; 233(4):331–43.
 60. Lese M. Palliative treatment of chronic wounds. *Paliatia* 2015; 8(2):5–13.