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# The antibacterial activity of blue light against nosocomial wound pathogens growing planktonically and as mature biofilms

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#### The antibacterial activity of blue light against nosocomial wound pathogens 1

- growing planktonically and as mature biofilms 2
- 3
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- 6
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- 21 F.D.H and J.E.T contributed equally to the work.

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#### 22 ABSTRACT

### 23 Background

The blue wavelengths within the visible light spectrum are intrinisically antimicrobial, and can photodynamically inactivate the cells of a wide spectrum of bacteria (Grampositive and -negative) and fungi. Furthermore, blue light is equally effective against both drug sensitive and resistant members of target species, and (in contrast to UV radiation), is less detrimental to mammalian cells.

29 Blue light is currently used for treating acnes vulgaris, and Helicobacter pylori infections;

the utility for decontamination and treatment of wound infections is in its infancy.

Furthermore, limited studies have been performed on bacterial biofilms; the key growth

32 mode of bacteria involved in clinical infections.

Here we report the findings of a multicentre *in vitro* study performed to assess the
antimicrobial activity of 400 nm blue light against bacteria in both planktonic and biofilm
growth modes.

36 Methods

**B**lue light was tested against a panel of 34 bacterial isolates (clinical and type strains)

38 comprising: Acinetobacter baumannii, Enterobacter cloacae, Stenotrophomonas

39 maltophilia, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Escherichia coli, Staphylococcus aureus,

40 Enterococcus faecium, Klebsiella pneumoniae, and Elizabethkingia meningoseptica.

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#### 43 Results

All planktonic phase bacteria were susceptible to blue light treatment, with the majority (71%) demonstrating a  $\geq$ 5 log<sub>10</sub> decrease in viability after 15-30 minutes exposure (54 J/cm<sup>2</sup> to 108 J/cm<sup>2</sup>). Bacterial biofilms were also highly susceptible to blue light, with significant reduction in seeding observed for all isolates at all levels of exposure.

#### 48 Conclusions

- 49 These results warrant further investigation of blue light as a novel decontamination
- 50 strategy for the nosocomial environment, as well as additional wider decontamination
- 51 applications.
- 52

#### 53 Importance

- 54 Blue light shows great promise as a novel decontamination strategy for the nosocomial
- 55 environment, as well as additional wider decontamination applications (e.g. wound
- 56 closure during surgery). This warrants further investigation.
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## 60 1 INTRODUCTION

- Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is rapidly evolving and emerging to be a large threat to
- 62 modern medicine. Although only affecting a minority of admissions, healthcare

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associated infections are associated with increased mortality, prolonged hospital stays
and increased treatment costs (1). With the rise in resistance to the carbapenem class
of antibiotics in Gram-negative organisms (2), there is a significant threat of infections
becoming wholly untreatable with current treatment regimens (3,4).

Much research is now focussed on alternatives to the conventional antimicrobial agents. 67 These mostly involve topical agents (with the aim to reduce surface contamination and 68 therefore lower the risks of sepsis and infection progression) with research to date on a 69 large number of agents. Since the environment is a key source of nosocomial 70 pathogens (5), there has also been renewed focus on hospital cleaning and disinfection, 71 72 especially via antimicrobial chemicals delivered in a novel way, including antimicrobial light sources (1,6). These novel strategies capable of decontaminating both the patient's 73 74 wound and the environment, offer to be highly beneficial in the fight against AMR and nosocomial infections. 75

The blue wavelengths within the visible light spectrum (especially wavelengths between 76 400 nm to 470 nm) are intrinsically antimicrobial and do not require additional 77 exogenous photosensitizers to exert an antimicrobial effect (4). Photodynamic 78 79 inactivation of both bacterial and fungal cells occurs as a result of photo-excitation of intracellular porphyrins (1) by blue light, leading to energy transfer and the production of 80 highly cytotoxic reactive oxygen species (ROS); primarily singlet oxygen ( ${}^{1}O_{2}$ ) (4, 7-9). 81 All wavelengths from 400-425 nm can be used for microbial inactivation; however the 82 optimal antimicrobial activity occurs at 405 nm, since this is the point in the 83 electromagnetic spectra where maximum porphyrin excitation occurs (10). Although 84 85 less germicidal compared to ultra-violet light (1), pathogens can be selectively

inactivated without damaging human cells and consequently blue light is considered
much less detrimental to mammalian cells than ultra-violet (11,12). One potential
benefit of light-based antimicrobial therapies is an equal efficacy against drug sensitive
and resitant members of target species (13,14).

90 Blue light has been shown to exhibit a broad spectrum of antimicrobial effect against 91 bacteria and fungi, although, generally the Gram-positive bacteria are considered to be more susceptible to blue light than the Gram-negatives (15,16). Successful inactivation 92 93 has been demonstrated in vitro against Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA), Clostridium difficile (both spores and vegetative cells), Acinetobacter baumannii, 94 Escherichia coli, S. epidermidis, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Klebsiella pneumoniae, 95 Streptococcus pyogenes, and Mycobacterium spp. (14-15, 17, 18). In addition to the 96 97 key nosocomial pathogens, blue light is also effective against *Propionibacterium acnes*, and has been used topically to treat acne vulgaris (19, 20), and Helicobacter pylori, 98 where blue light is used internally as a 'light string' to treat stomach infections (21). 99 100 Owing to the mechanism of action of blue light, it is unlikely that viruses will be susceptible unless photosensitizers are added to enhance virucidal activity (22). 101 102 The use of blue light for treatment of wound infections in vivo is an emerging 103 technology. To date blue light therapy has been shown to significantly reduce the 104 bacterial burden of wounds infected with P. aeruginosa (23), MRSA (24), and A. 105 baumannii (25), and saved the lives of mice subjected to potentially lethal burns contaminated with P. aeruginosa and A. baumannii (23, 25). 106

107 As well as clinical application for patient treatment, blue light is also a promising 108 candidate for the control of problematic microorganisms in the clinical setting (e.g. the 109 disinfection of air and exposed surfaces). In this regard, Bache et al (26) and Maclean et al (1) have performed studies with a new disinfection technology termed the HINS-110 light environmental decontamination system (EDS) which delivers low-irradiance 405nm 111 112 light continuously and is suitable for use in patient occupied settings. Evaluation studies 113 performed by the latter authors showed that there was a statistically significant 90% reduction in numbers of culturable Staphylococci spp. following 24 hours of use in an 114 unoccupied room (5), and reductions of 56-86% when used in burns isolation rooms 115 116 occupied by MRSA-positive patients. Furthermore, when the system was no longer used, the room became recontaminated to levels similar to those pre-treatment. 117 118 The vast majority of research on blue light has been carried out on bacteria in their 119 planktonic phase, dispersed evenly in a liquid medium. In nature this is rarely the case, 120 since most bacteria aggregate to form complex communities within a matrix of extracellular polymeric substances termed a biofilm. There are many advantages for 121 122 this compared to planktonic growth which include: increased resistance to killing via

Since we know that the majority of clinical infections and environmental contamination involve microbial biofilms (30), this multi-centre *in vitro* study was performed to assess

antimicrobials, immune cells, chemicals and environmental stresses (27). Furthermore,

eradicate. Medically, biofilms have been associated with a myriad of chronic infections,

acute infections, colonisation of in-dwelling medical devices, and wound infections (27-

once a biofilm has become established on a surface they are extremely hard to

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the antibacterial activity of blue light against biofilms of a range of important nosocomialpathogens.

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#### 133 2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

134 A series of *in vitro* experiments were conducted with a panel of organisms (Table 1) to determine the efficacy of blue light (400 nm) against bacteria in a planktonic (free-135 floating in broth) and biofilm (attached to a surface) mode of growth. The panel 136 137 comprised well-characterised control and clinical isolates (in terms of their antibiogram 138 and ability to form biofilms in vitro) and concentrated mostly on A. baumannii strains from a protracted outbreak at the Queen Elizabeth Hospital in Birmingham (QEHB) (31). 139 A. baumannii is a key nosocomial pathogen which survives in hospital and healthcare 140 141 environments despite conditions such as desiccation, nutrient starvation and 142 antimicrobial chemicals (e.g. disinfectants) (332, 33). Despite stringent infection control 143 practices, a large outbreak of A.baumannii occurred at QEHB where 65 patients tested positive during the outbreak period (July 2011 to February 2013). The strains from this 144 145 outbreak demonstrated a high degree of resilience to survival in the hospital 146 environment and there was also evolution amongst the isolates over time to increase 147 dessication resistance and biofilm formation capacity. Additional A. baumannii isolates (representing genetically diverse strains) were tested in this panel to add some diversity 148 to the strains, including strains ACI AYE (a representative of International Clone I; a 149 150 major globally relevant lineage), ACI C60 (a control strain of a unique PFGE type), and 151 ACI 19606 (a control strain of a further unique PFGE type) (typing data not shown).

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153	We also tested a small range of other 'comparator' organisms commonly causing
154	hospital acquired infection including Enterobacter cloacae, Stenotrophomonas
155	maltophilia, P. aeruginosa, E. coli, S. aureus, and Enterococcus faecium and included
156	control strains (PS_6749 and MSSA_10788) recognised in the EN standards for
157	assessing the efficacy of chemical disinfectants (e.g. EN 13727 (34)). The panel
158	comprised isolates that in previous tests had demonstrated ability to form relevant
159	quantitities of biofilm in vitro, and furthermore included two carbapenem (multi-drug)
160	resistant isolates of K. pneumoniae, and a single isolate of Elizabethkingia
161	meningoseptica from a wound swab. This is an intrinsically highly resistant organism,
162	usually resistant to extended-spectrum ß-lactam agents (due to production by most
163	strains of two betalactamases: one ESBL and one Class B carbapenem-hydrolyzing
164	metallolactamase), aminogylcosides, tetracycline, and chloramphenicol (35).
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166	All isolates were stored at -80°C on Protect™ beads, and were routinely cultured on
167	cysteine lactose electrolyte deficient (CLED) or blood agar prior to each experiment.
168	
169	Experiments were designed to assess the antibacterial activity of blue lightagainst
170	planktonic and biofilm growth forms of the panel of bacteria described above. Testing
171	was performed at the Defence Science Technology Laboratory (DSTL) (planktonic) and
172	the Surgical Reconstruction and Microbiology Research Centre (biofilms), and blue light
173	of 400 nm wavelength was used for all experiments.

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#### 175 2.1 Blue light equipment

176 High intensity blue light was provided by a LED Flood array (Henkel-Loctite, Hemel Hempstead, UK). This array utilises 144 reflectorized LEDs which produce a 177 178 homogeneous illuminated area of 10 cm x 10 cm. The emission spectrum of the LED array was determined using a USB2000 spectrophotometer (Ocean Optics, Oxford, 179 180 UK). Two identical platforms were used for the testing, both of which were calibrated at DSTL using a PM100D radiant power meter (Thorlabs, Newton, New Jersey, USA) prior 181 to in vitro testing to ensure a reproducible irradiance of 60 mW/cm<sup>2</sup> when the LED array 182 is positioned 15.5cm above the test area. All of the experimental conditions (except 183 wavelength) adhere to the optimal criteria outlined by Coohill and Sagripanti (36) for the 184 assessment of bacterial sensitivity to UV-C radiation. 185

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#### 187 2.2 Impact of blue light on planktonic bacteria

188 Bacterial isolates were grown overnight in Luria Broth (LB) [Sigma-Aldrich, UK], then diluted in sterile PBS to produce a starting concentration of approximately 1 x 10<sup>6</sup> 189 bacteria per ml. Test samples (2ml) were inoculated into a 12-well microtitre plate 190 191 [Corning, New York, USA], sealed with an optically clear ABsolute qPCR sealer [Thermo Fisher Scientific, Paisley, Scotland] to prevent evaporation, then exposed to 192 193 blue light for 30 minutes (samples were taken for viable counting at 5 minute intervals). 194 If the strains still showed viability after 30 minutes of blue light exposure, the test was 195 repeated over 180 minutes, with samples taken at 20 minute intervals. An identical dark

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control plate was set up, wrapped in aluminium foil and placed in the flood array

adjacent to the blue light irradiated samples.

At time increments during the experiment blue light exposed and dark incubated
samples were removed and viable bacteria enumerated by serial dilution and growth on
LB agar plates. The blue light sensitivity for each strain was determined from the mean
of three independent biological replicates, with two technical replicates within each
experiment.

The blue light dose (J/cm<sup>2</sup>) received by the bacteria was calculated by multiplying the irradiance of light (W/cm<sup>2</sup>) to which the sample was exposed, by the exposure time (seconds).

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#### 207 2.3 Impact of blue light on pre-formed biofilms

208 The antibacterial activity of blue light against pre-formed biofilms was assessed by 209 conducting 'minimum biofilm eradication concentration' (MBEC) experiments (37) on each isolate. Overnight LB cultures of the test strains (made by inoculating 210 approximately three to five colonies into 5ml of fresh LB broth and incubating at 37°C 211 overnight) were diluted in fresh antibiotic-free Mueller-Hinton (MH) broth to an OD<sub>600</sub> of 212 0.1 and then 200µl seeded into wells of a 96-well microtiter tray (MTT). Positive (200µl 213 0.1 OD<sub>600</sub> diluted organisms) and negative (200µl MH broth) controls were included per 214 215 blue light time point to be tested.

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216 To produce a 'transferable biofilm', a 96 well polypropylene plate [Starlabs, UK] was then placed into the MTT so that each well contained a 'peg', on which biofilms could 217 218 form, before the plates were sealed, and statically incubated at 33°C for 72 hours. After 72 hours, the pegs (±biofilm) were removed and washed in a MTT containing sterile 219 water (to remove any unbound cells). The positive (bacteria only) and negative control 220 221 (sterile broth only) 'peg plate' was placed in a clean, empty MTT and wrapped in foil. 222 Following this, both the control and the test peg plate were placed in the test area (15.5.cm beneath the light source) and exposed to the blue light for time points of 15, 223 30, 45 or 60 minutes (corresponding to a blue light dose of 54, 108, 162 and 216 J/cm<sup>2</sup> 224 respectively). The foil around the control plate prevented the pegs from receiving any 225 blue light treatment (and hence these positive control biofilms were not exposed to the 226 blue light), but the control plate biofilms would have most likely been exposed to the 227 228 same amount of heating and drying as the blue light exposed test plate.

After the treatment, the peg plates were carefully placed into a MTT containing 200µl sterile MH broth (herein referred to as 'reporter broth') for overnight incubation. After 18 hours, the OD of the reporter broth was measured to assess the viability (seeding) of the biofilms following blue light exposure.

To demonstrate the presence of biofilms on the pegs, crystal violet (CV) assays were additionally performed on the pegs after the OD of the reporter broth had been measured. This involved placing the pegs into MTTs containing 200µl of 1% CV (which binds to any present microbial biomass of biofilm), followed by washing (to remove unbound CV) and subsequent solubilisation of the CV in 200µl of 70% ethanol. The peg biofilm biomass could then be measured using OD readings as previously and the Applied and Environmental Microbioloay

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presence of the biofilm confirmed. Two biological and 10 technical replicates were
 performed for each strain and blue light exposure duration, respectively.

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#### 242 2.4 Statistical analysis

#### 243 2.4.1 Planktonic tests

For the planktonic data, the surviving fraction was determined from the quotient N/N<sub>0</sub>, with N = the number of colony formers of the irradiated sample and N<sub>0</sub> that of the nonirradiated controls. Plotting the logarithm of N/N<sub>0</sub> as a function of dose (blue light fluence in J/cm<sup>2</sup>), allowed survival curves to be obtained.

To determine the curve parameters, the following relationship was used:  $\ln N/N_0 = IC \times F + n$  where: N = the number of colony formers after blue light irradiation; N<sub>0</sub> = the number of colony formers without irradiation; IC = inactivation constant (cm<sup>2</sup>/J); and n = extrapolation number, (i.e. the intercept with the ordinate of the extrapolated semi-log straight-line). The inactivation constant and the reciprocal lethal dose (LD) values were determined from the slope of the dose–effect-curves (linear portion of the curve).

To allow for comparison with other bactericidal radiation sources in the literature, blue light mediated killing was calculated in terms of the inactivation constant slope (IC), and the kill kinetics shown as both the  $LD_{37}$  and  $LD_{90}$ . The significance of the difference of the dose–effect-curves was statistically analyzed using student's t-test. Differences with P values <0.05 were considered statistically significant.

259 LD<sub>90</sub> values were analysed using the statistical software package IBM SPSS V21.0, 260 were found to be log normal by QQ plot (data not shown), and were consequently 261 transformed to the logarithm of 10 prior to parametric analysis. Differences between 262 bacterial species was investigated using a 1 way ANOVA, and the suitability of the data 263 for parametric analysis was further established with the use of a Levene's test for 264 unequal variance (P=0.165). Where only one bacterial strain of species was available, 265 this species was taken out of the analysis. Multiple comparisons were made using the Bonferroni's correction. Similarly, the effect of pigmentation of S. aureus strains on 266 267 susceptibility to blue light was tested by using T-tests without Welches correction and

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#### 270 2.4.2 Biofilm tests

271 The ability of biofilms to seed new growth following exposure to blue light was assessed 272 by comparing the OD values at each blue light time point verses the untreated (positive) 273 control, and significance was determined using the student's t test. In order to 274 investigate any possible link between biofilm size/depth (colourimetry), and blue light 275 sensitivity, these two parameters were investigated through QQ plots in SPSS (version 21.0; SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 21.0. Armonk, NY: IBM Corp). Initial 276 analysis suggested a transformation of both parameters by the logarithm of 10 was 277 needed to render the data suitable for parametric analysis (analysis not shown). Very 278 279 little difference between the technical replicates was observed with regards to either parameter and therefore the median of the  $log_{10}$  of the technical replicates was used for 280

suitability was further tested using Levene's test for unequal variance (P=0.984).

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282 the OD values over the 4 time points for the positive control. Comparisons of biofilm values were made using 1 way ANOVA and students' 't' tests (without Welch's 283 correction) and comparisons of variances were made with F tests and Brown-Forsythe 284 tests. The viability of each strain of bacteria in biofilm was analysed by Bonferroni's 285 286 posts tests across each time point (SPSS). Where significant differences between the 287 positive control and the blue light occurred, the blue light was regarded as having an effect from there on leading to an ordinal score for each strain of 15 min (54 J/cm<sup>2</sup>), 30 288 min (108 J/cm<sup>2</sup>), 45 min (162 J/cm<sup>2</sup>), 60 min (216 J/cm<sup>2</sup>), or >60 min. Comparisons of 289 biofilm sensitive scores were made using Kruskal-Wallis tests. 290

analysis. The capacity for each strain to form a biofilm was taken from the average of

In order to characterise whether correlation existed between measured parameters, the 291 292 Spearman's method was used. In order to determine the statistical power of the correlations, the computer program SPSS sample power V3.0 (IBM) was used and 293 power was calculated for one sample correlations using the derived R value and the 294 sample size (N = 34). 295

296

#### RESULTS 297 3

Blue light was tested against 34 bacterial isolates; including clinical isolates from QEHB 298 299 and culture collection type strains. The results of the spectral output testing of the blue 300 light platform (with an Ocean Optics USB2000 spectrometer), determined the emission 301 peak of the blue light produced was at 400nm, with a full-width half maximum value of ±8.5 nm (Fig. S1). 302

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## 304 3.1 Sensitivity of isolates to blue light when grown in planktonic culture

All 34 isolates were sensitive to blue light treatment, and there was no significant decay in the dark incubated controls. In contrast, rapid and substantive loss of viability was observed where all test bacteria were exposed to blue light (Figure 1A-F).

308	Twenty four of the isolates (71%) demonstrated at least a 5 $log_{10}$ decrease in viability
309	following 15 (54 J/cm <sup>2</sup> ) to 30 minutes (108 J/cm <sup>2</sup> ) of blue light exposure (Table 2), and
310	for the majority of these isolates (A. baumannii (12/12), S. aureus (4/5), S. maltophilia
311	(2/3), <i>E. meningoseptica</i> (1/1)), there was a greater than 6 $log_{10}$ decrease in viability.
312	Ten of the 34 isolates showed <5 $log_{10}$ decrease in viability. The isolates concerned
313	included E. cloacae (ENTCL_525, ENTCL_801, ENTCL_804), E. coli (EC_073,
314	EC_042), K. pneumoniae (MDR_A, MDR_B), S. aureus (MSSA_10788), S. maltophilia
315	(STEMA_551), and <i>E. faecium</i> (EFM_513). Four of the 34 isolates ( <i>E. cloacae</i>
316	(ENTCL_525, ENTCL_801, ENTCL_804) and <i>E. faecium</i> (EFM_513)), took longer to kill
317	than the majority of isolates, requiring extended timepoints up to 120 minutes (432
318	$J/cm^2$ ) to obtain 2-3 log <sub>10</sub> decrease in viability.
319	Loss of bacterial viability associated with blue light was calculated as previously
320	described to give $LD_{90}$ values in terms of J/cm <sup>2</sup> . Investigation of these $LD_{90}$ values
321	indicated that differences between $LD_{90}$ values were very likely driven by differences in
322	the blue light susceptibility of different bacterial species (P<0.001). We found that the
323	highest $LD_{90}$ values belonged to <i>E. cloacae</i> and <i>K. pneumoniae</i> strains which had
324	values statistically higher than all other species included in the analysis (where more

than one representative strain was tested) (P<0.05 in all cases) (Figure 2). The 325 326 exception to this was E. coli which had moderate blue light tolerance, but no statistical differences were seen between the strains tested . A. baumannii, S. aureus, P. 327 aeruginosa and S. maltophilia all had similar and low levels of resistance to the blue 328 329 light exposure.

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331	In the initial assay of planktonic cell resistance to blue light, we observed that the S.
332	aureus strains demonstrated different colony pigmentation; appearing either as pale
333	yellow (MRSA_508, MRSA_520, MRSA_531 and MSSA_F77) or orange
334	(MSSA_10788) when grown on LB agar. We hypothesised that this pigmentation may
335	be responsible for the variability seen in both the survival fraction curves and $LD_{90}$
336	values when exposed to blue light (Figures 1B and 2). Four additional culture collection
337	strains of S. aureus were assessed for blue light sensitivity, including two pale yellow
338	(MSSA_29213, MSSA_10442) and two orange (MSSA_33807, MSSA_4163) strains. In
339	total nine strains of S. aureus were tested, six yellow and three orange. We determined
340	that the orange pigmentation correlated with increased resistance to blue light in both
341	the survival fraction curves and in $LD_{90}$ values (Figures 3A and B). The $LD_{90}$ values
342	were statistically significantly higher in the orange pigmented strains than in their yellow
343	counterparts (P=0.003).

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345 3.2 Sensitivity of isolates to blue light when grown in biofilms

Blue light treatment resulted in reductions in biofilm seeding for all isolates tested (Figure 4A-C), and the majority of these reductions (apart from timepoint 15 minutes for MSSA\_10788) were statistically significant (p-values <0.05 in student's t-tests compared to the positive control). The percentage reductions are shown in table 3 with the single non-significant result denoted by a ^.

351 The most susceptible isolates were the Gram negative organisms, and in particular ACI 19606, where there was a 93.5% reduction in biofilm seeding (p<0.001) after 15 352 minutes (54 J/cm<sup>2</sup>) of blue light exposure. As a group, the other Gram negative 353 comparator organisms were the most susceptible, with 10/16 (63%) showing greater 354 355 than 80% reductions in biofilm seeding (average = 86%) at 15 minutes, compared to 1/12 for A. baumannii and 1/6 for the Gram positive organisms. Although ENTCL 804 356 responded well to blue light treatment at 30 minutes/108 J/cm<sup>2</sup> (46.6% reduction), 45 357 minutes/162 J/cm<sup>2</sup> (88.2% reduction), and 60 minutes/216 J/cm<sup>2</sup> (87.8% reduction), the 358 359 treatment actually resulted in increased biofilm seeding at 15 minutes of 18.7%. This 360 result was repeatable and was seen in a number of replicates.

As mentioned, the Gram positive biofilms were less susceptible to blue light treatment, with only two isolates (33%) achieving at least 90% reductions in seeding. It is important to note however the small sample size. One isolate of *S. aureus* (MSSA\_10788), which is recognised in the EN standards for assessing the efficacy of chemical disinfectants was the least sensitive to blue light, achieving a maximum reduction in biofilm seeding of 36% at 45 minutes (162 J/cm<sup>2</sup>). This result was again repeatable and was seen in 48replicate pegs. This is further evidence towards the hypothesis that bacterial

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pplied and Environmental Microbioloay pigmentation attenuates the sensitivitiy to blue light, in biofilms as well as in planktoniccells.

370 In order to characterise how the different biofilm forming properties (seeding ability and 371 biofilm size) of each bacterial species relate to each other, a series of correlations were 372 performed. We found no evidence for significant correlations existing between i) 373 median biofilm size (CV assay) and median sensitivity of biofilm to blue light (P = 0.133), or ii) median biofilm size and  $LD_{90}$  (P = 0.912). For these reasons we feel that 374 any differences between species in biofilm resistance to blue light are likely to be 375 intrinsic differences rather than a function of the biofilm. However, we are not able to 376 377 dismiss the alternative hypothesis that correlations do exist as these analyses were 378 insufficiently powered. We found the statistical power to be 21% when considering the 379 potential correlation between planktonic and biofilm killing (R = 0.200) and 33% when considering the correlation between biofilm killing and biofilm formation (R = -0.263). In 380 this respect, we must actually conclude that real correlations between these parameters 381 382 might exist; however, if they do exist, they are likely to less apparent in comparison to the correlation observed between biofilm formation and planktonic killing. 383

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We found a significant correlation between the sensitivity of strains to blue light in the planktonic state and their ability to form biofilms (Spearman's Coefficient = 0.369, P = 0.032). This indicated that strains that demonstrated greater resistance to blue light in planktonic state were more likely to produce thicker biofilm.

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### 391 4 DISCUSSION

392 In this study, we have shown blue light (400 nm) to be effective at inactivating both 393 planktonic cells and biofilms of important nosocomial wound pathogens. Contrary to published research (1,15,16), we found Gram negative organisms to be more 394 395 susceptible to blue light. There are a number of differences between these published 396 studies and our study which may contribute to these conflicting findings. Firstly, we tested a number of isolates per species (most of the studies test one strain of each 397 species) comprising both clinical and control strains (most of the published studies use 398 399 control strains which may have been passaged many times), and our light box exposed the bacteria to higher doses (60mW/cm<sup>2</sup>) than the 10mW/cm<sup>2</sup> used by Maclean et al 400 401 (15). Although we only tested a small number of isolates, the Gram positive biofilms appeared less sensitive to blue light treatment, with one strain (MSSA 10788) 402 consistently resisting the effects of blue light. 403 Analyzing blue light susceptibility against multiple clinical strains from the same species 404

has permitted us to assess the heterogeneity of intra-species kill rates. In some species

such as *A. baumannii* the rate of blue light mediated killing was extremely

407 homogeneous; however, *S. aureus* strains display a much more heterogeneous
408 response to blue light stress.

It has long been recognised that bacterial cells have utilised pigmentation as a virulence
factor (38). One of the most easily recognisable bacterial pigments are the triterpenoid
carotenoids, which impart the eponymous golden colour to *S. aureus* strains. Various

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412 authors have identified a correlation between strains containing the carotenoid pigment staphyloxanthin and the ability to survive on surfaces exposed to natural sunlight (39), 413 414 and it is well known that carotenoids function as antioxidants. Furthermore, staphyloxanthin has been shown to provide protection for pigmented S. 415 aureus strains against ROS produced by phagocytes (40, 41). 416 417 Augmentation of the clinical isolates of S. aureus with a series of well characterized strains from culture collections allowed us to correlate increased blue light killing times 418 (as seen with MSSA 10788) with colony pigmentation. Planktonic testing and 419 assessment of the LD<sub>90</sub> values per colour group, show that the light sensitivity of the 420 421 strongly orange pigmented strains is significantly different to the standard pale yellow strains (p-value <0.003) (Figure 3B). Therefore, although all species of S. aureus tested 422 423 were susceptible to blue light, it is important to consider the effects of bacterial 424 pigmentation when determining the required blue light exposure for effective 425 decontamination. 426 As well as differences in sensitivity, there were also several instances where blue light 427 treatment increased the planktonic growth and biofilm seeding. For example, with 428 ENTCL 804, there was an increase of 18.7% in seeding after 15 minutes of blue light treatment. Light has been shown to facilitate growth when the wavelengths and dose 429 are not appropriate (42), and Nussbaum et al (43) found that 810 nm and 905 nm 430 431 improved the growth of *E. coli* and *S. aureus*, respectively. Furthermore, Mussi et al (44)

- reported that blue light treatment decreased motility and biofilm formation in *A*.
- baumannii, and increased pathogensis when co-cultured with Candida albicans (a
- 434 model for apoptosis in human alveolar macrophages) (45). However, there are several

important differences between studies; the fluence was considerably lower than in this
study (1.32-1.89 mW/cm<sup>2</sup> verses 60 mW/cm<sup>2</sup>) and the light wavelength peaked at 460
nm verses 400 nm, while the exposure was measured over 4 days verses 30 minutes.
However, it does raise interesting questions on the effects of suboptimal light exposure
on bacterial cells which should be looked into in future studies. Furthermore, the
enhanced growth in our study warrants further investigation.

We found that, a correlation existed between the strains which were sensitive to blue 441 442 light in planktonic state and those which produced larger amounts of biofilm in the CV assay. The reason for this observation is not clear in this investigation; however we 443 hypothesise that this indicates that blue light selective pressure may exist in 444 environmental niches where protection as a biofilm might provide benefits against other 445 446 stimuli that are likely to co-exist with blue light. The fact that we were unable to observe 447 a correlation between biofilm and planktonic resistance to blue light might indicate that these mechanisms are functionally independent. Planktonic cells need to rely on their 448 intrinsic transparency, pigmentation and repair to protect against blue light. In biofilm 449 450 bacteria can rely on more extracellular exudate and neighbours to protect against blue 451 light.

To the best of our knowledge, our work is one of the first to show the antibacterial activity of 400 nm light against a range of clinically relevant bacterial strains (as well as control strains), and one of just a handful to look at non-dental biofilms. The inclusion of multiple isolates is an additional strength of the paper as it allows correlations between phenotypic characteristics and blue light resistance to be explored. Although there are several limitations (monomicrobial biofilms tested instead of polymicrobial, no formal

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assessment of the potential for the development for resistance, the relatively small
number of isolates tested, and the potential biasing effect of the included resistant
isolates), our work nonetheless provides valuable insights into this technology, and
especially how it relates to the eradication of biofilms for environmental
decontamination.

463 The findings in this paper demonstrate that high intensity blue light can be used to inactivate a wide range of clinical pathogens, not only in the planktonic state but also as 464 465 mature biofilms. This technology has many practical applications within healthcare settings, as blue light may ameliorate opportunistic infections indirectly by reducing the 466 bacterial load on environmental surfaces and directly within wounds. Future studies are 467 warranted to investigate this further, and especially whether the exposure times of the 468 469 400 nm blue light can be reduced for a range of different clinical applications. As blue light is equally efficacious against antibiotic resistant pathogens, this technology may 470 prove an important weapon in the future fight against antimicrobial resistance. 471

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#### 480

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490 **7 Disclaimer** 

"This paper presents independent research funded by the National Institute for Health
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#### 623 Figure Legends:

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45.

- 624 **Figure 1.** Survival of planktonic bacteria after exposure to 400 nm blue light.
- 625 Strains: A. Acinetobacter baumannii strains: closed circles (• ACI\_616; open circles ACI\_618; closed
- triangles up ACI\_AYE; open triangles up ACI\_665; closed triangles down ACI\_19606; open triangles down
- 627 ACI\_648; closed diamonds ACI\_659; open diamonds ACI\_C60; closed squares ACI\_671; open squares
- 628 ACI\_672; closed hexagons ACI\_698; open hexagons ACI\_642.
- 629 B. Staphylococcus aureus: open circles MSSA\_10788; closed triangles up: MSSA\_F77; closed squares
- 630 MRSA\_520; open triangles up MRSA\_531; closed circles MRSA\_508
- 631 C. Stenotrophomonas maltophilia: circles STEMA\_558; triangles up STEMA\_551; squares STEMA\_529
- 632 D. Enterobacter cloacae: circles ENTCL\_804; triangles up ENTCL\_801; squares ENTCL\_525
- 633 E. Pseudomonas aeruginosa: closed circles: PSE\_1586; open circles PSE\_PAO1; closed triangles up
- 634 PSE\_568; closed squares PSE\_1054; open squares PSE\_6479
- 635 F. Other: E. coli EC\_042 open circles: E. coli EC\_073 closed circles; K. pneumoniae MDR-A open squares:
- 636 K. pneumoniae MDR-B closed squares; Elizabethkingia meningoseptica open triangles up EKIN\_502;
- 637 Enterococcus faecium EFM\_513 open triangles down
- 638 Data are averages  $\pm$  standard deviations (n = 3).

639	Figure 2. Comparison of blue light $LD_{90}$ values between strains and species. Each
640	individual circle represents the average $LD_{90}$ for each strain ± standard deviations ( $n =$
641	3). The average $LD_{90}$ value for each species is shown by horizontal lines.
642	
643	Figure 3. A. Correlation between survival of planktonic S. aureus strains following blue
644	light exposure, and cell pigmentation.
645	Orange carotenoid producing strains: closed circles MSSA_4163; closed triangles down MSSA-33807;
646	closed triangles up MSSA_10788. Yellow non-carotenoid producing strains: open circles MSSA_10442;
647	open squares MSSA_F77; open diamonds MRSA_520; open triangles down MRSA_531; open triangles
648	up MRSA_508; open hexagons MSSA_29213. Data are averages $\pm$ standard deviations ( $n = 3$ ).
649	
650	<b>B.</b> Comparison of blue light $LD_{90}$ values between yellow and orange pigmented <i>S.</i>
651	aureus strains.
652	Each individual circle represents the average $LD_{90}$ for each strain ± standard deviations ( $n = 3$ ). The
653	average $LD_{90}$ value for yellow and orange pigmented strains is shown by horizontal lines.
654	
655	Figure 4, A-C: Graphs showing the biofilm seeding results for all isolates.
656	Optical density on the y axis refers to the average biofilm seeding for the isolates tested after
657	exposure to blue light (BL) at the range of durations tested (in minutes) on the x axis. Positive
658	control: refers to the average biofilm seeding of the dark incubated, non blue light exposed

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standard error.

Tables:

Table 1: List of the clinical and control isolates used in this study. Table 2: Antimicrobial effects of blue light on planktonic cells Table 3: Average percentage change in biofilm seeding in isolates exposed to blue light compared to non-exposed dark incubated controls

isolates. Negative control: refers to a negative (broth only) control. The error bars represent the

#### Supplementary: 671

- 672 Figure S1: Emission spectrum of Henkel Loctite blue light array determined using an
- 673 Ocean Optics USB2000 spectrometer

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**Figure 1.** Survival of planktonic bacteria (in terms of survival fraction) after exposure to 400 nm blue light. **A:** *A. baumannii*, **B:** *S. aureus*, **C:** *S. maltophilia*, **D:** *E. cloacae*, *F:* Other Gram negative organisms.

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Figure 2: Comparison of blue light LD<sub>90</sub> values between strains and species. Each individual circle represents the average  $LD_{90}$  for each strain ± standard deviations (n = 3). The average  $LD_{90}$ value for each species is shown by horizontal lines.



**Figure 3. A:** Correlation between survival of planktonic *S. aureus* strains following blue light exposure, and cell pigmentation, **B:** Comparison of blue light LD<sub>90</sub> values between yellow and orange pigmented *S. aureus* strains.

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Figure 4, A-C: Graphs showing the biofilm seeding results for all isolates. Optical density on the y axis refers to the average biofilm seeding for the isolates tested after exposure to blue light at the range of durations tested (in minutes) on the x axis. Positive control: refers to the average biofilm seeding of the dark incubated, non BL exposed isolates. Negative control: refers to a negative (broth only) control. The error bars represent the standard error.

ACI\_616

Table 1: List of the clinical and control is	solates used in this study.
--	-----------------------------

Study Identifier	Organism	Description
ACI_616	Acinetobacter baumannii	QEHB clinical outbreak isolate
ACI_618	Acinetobacter baumannii	QEHB clinical outbreak isolate
ACI_642	Acinetobacter baumannii	QEHB clinical outbreak isolate
ACI_648	Acinetobacter baumannii	QEHB clinical outbreak isolate
ACI_659	Acinetobacter baumannii	QEHB clinical outbreak isolate
ACI_665	Acinetobacter baumannii	QEHB clinical outbreak isolate
ACI_671	Acinetobacter baumannii	QEHB clinical outbreak isolate
ACI_672	Acinetobacter baumannii	QEHB clinical outbreak isolate
ACI_698	Acinetobacter baumannii	QEHB clinical outbreak isolate
ACI_AYE	Acinetobacter baumannii	MPR Clinical Isolate (unique)
ACI_C60	Acinetobacter baumannii	NCTC_13424 (unique)
ACI_19606	Acinetobacter baumannii	ATCC_19606 (unique)
ENTCL_525	Enterobacter cloacae complex	QEHB clinical isolate
ENTCL_801	Enterobacter cloacae complex	QEHB clinical isolate
ENTCL_804	Enterobacter cloacae complex	QEHB clinical isolate
STEMA_529	Stenotrophomonas maltophilia	QEHB clinical isolate
STEMA_551	Stenotrophomonas maltophilia	QEHB clinical isolate
STEMA_558	Stenotrophomonas maltophilia	QEHB clinical isolate
PSE_568	Pseudomonas aeruginosa	QEHB clinical isolate
PSE_PA01	Pseudomonas aeruginosa	ATCC_15692
PSE_6749	Pseudomonas aeruginosa	NCTC_6749
PSE_1054	Pseudomonas aeruginosa	QEHB Clinical burn isolate
PSE_1586	Pseudomonas aeruginosa	QEHB Clinical burn isolate
EKIN_502	Elizabethkingia meningoseptica	QEHB clinical isolate
EC_073	Escherichia coli	EPEC CFT_073
EC_042	Escherichia coli	EAEC_042
MDR_A	CPE^ Klebsiella pneumoniae	QEHB Clinical isolate
	(NDM-1 <sup>+</sup> positive)	
MDR_B	CRE* Klebsiella pneumoniae	QEHB Clinical isolate
	(ESBL positive with additional	
	permeability changes)	
MRSA_508	Staphylococcus aureus	QEHB Clinical isolate
MRSA_520	Staphylococcus aureus	QEHB Clinical isolate
MRSA_531	Staphylococcus aureus	QEHB Clinical isolate
MSSA_10788	Staphylococcus aureus	NCTC_10788
MSSA_F77	Staphylococcus aureus	NCTC_8532
EFM_513	Enterococcus faecium	QEHB Clinical isolate
MSSA_29213	Staphylococcus aureus	ATCC_29213
MSSA_10442	Staphylococcus aureus	NCTC_10442
MSSA_33807	Staphylococcus aureus	ATCC_33807
MSSA_4163	Staphylococcus aureus	NCTC_4163

	Exposure time	Irradiance	Dose			LD <sub>37</sub> value +		LD <sub>90</sub> v	LD <sub>90</sub> value +		
Isolate	(minutes)	mW/cm²	J/cm²	Log <sub>10</sub> reduction	P-value	J/cm2		J/cm2			
ACI_616	30	60	108	7.06	0.006	21	± 2	27	± 2		
ACI_618	30	60	108	5.78	0.007	55	± 4	59	± 3		
ACI_642	30	60	108	6.73	0.006	9	± 1	16	± 2		
ACI_648	30	60	108	6.14	0.007	21	± 2	29	± 3		
ACI_659	30	60	108	6.55	0.006	8	± 1	16	± 2		
ACI_665	30	60	108	6.14	0.006	7	± 1	12	± 1		
ACI_671	30	60	108	6.34	0.006	25	± 2	32	± 4		
ACI_672	30	60	108	6.22	0.006	16	± 2	24	± 2		
ACI_698	30	60	108	6.39	0.008	9	± 1	14	± 2		
ACI_AYE	30	60	108	6.70	0.006	10	± 1	16	± 2		
ACI_C60	30	60	108	6.76	0.007	7	± 1	14	±1		
ACI_19606	30	60	108	6.81	0.006	7	± 1	13	± 1		
ENTCL_525	100	60	360	6.76	0.006	113	± 12	136	± 19		
ENTCL_801	180	60	648	6.61	0.009	212	± 20	246	± 25		
ENTCL_804	160	60	576	6.24	0.007	258	± 18	306	± 24		
STEMA_529	30	60	108	7.21	0.006	7	± 1	12	± 2		
STEMA_551	30	60	108	2.97	0.006	26	± 3	48	± 5		
STEMA_558	30	60	108	7.33	0.006	8	± 1	18	± 2		
PSE_568	30	60	108	6.48	0.002	6	± 1	12	± 2		
PSE_PA01	30	60	108	5.59	0.001	6	± 1	17	± 3		
PSE_6749	30	60	108	6.55	0.009	7	± 1	13	±		
PSE_1054	30	60	108	6.01	0.002	9	± 1	15	± 2		
PSE_1586	30	60	108	6.07	0.002	13	± 2	22	± 2		
EKIN_502	15	60	54	6.79	0.006	1	± 0.5	4	± 3		
EC_073	30	60	108	4.71	0.006	56	± 4	64	± 7		
EC_042	30	60	108	1.55	0.006	74	± 8	85	± 9		
MDR_A	140	60	504	6.88	0.002	124	± 18	159	± 25		
MDR_B	140	60	504	6.61	0.007	185	± 16	219	± 22		
MRSA_508*	30	60	108	6.17	0.002	12	± 1	21	± 3		
MRSA_520*	15	60	54	6.82	0.002	1	± 0.5	5	±1		
MRSA_531*	30	60	108	6.41	0.001	7	± 1	15	± 2		
MSSA_10788 ^	80	60	288	7.07	0.001	99	± 12	118	± 15		
MSSA_F77*	30	60	108	6.76	0.006	3	± 1	12	± 2		
EFM_513	180	60	648	1.86	0.007	277	<u>± 1</u> 6	393	± 20		
Additional <i>S. aureus</i> isolates (for pigmentation investigation)											
ATCC 29213*	30	60	108	6.76	0.002	5	± 1	15	± 2		
NCTC 10442*	30	60	108	6.69	0.002	8	± 1	20	± 2		
 ATCC 33807 ^	80	60	288	7.01	0.002	15	± 2	40	± 5		
NCTC 4163 ^	80	60	288	6.07	0.003	38	± 5	71	± 6		

#### Table 2: Antimicrobial effects of blue light on planktonic cells

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Where \* yellow pigmentation, ^ orange pigmentation, + LD37 and LD90 values are expressed  $\pm$  standard deviation

	Average change in biofilm seeding (%) with blue light exposure								
Study Identifier	15 minutes (54 J/cm <sup>2</sup> )	30 minutes (108 J/cm <sup>2</sup> )	45 minutes (162 J/cm <sup>2</sup> )	60 minutes (216 J/cm²)					
ACI_616	-75.9	-92.4	-96.5	-94.5					
ACI_618	-39	-71.1	-85.6	-91.3					
ACI_642	-45.6	-69.8	-77.3	-76.3					
ACI_648	-43.7	-83	-78.2	-81.4					
ACI_659	-47.1	-88.6	-94.1	-94.3					
ACI_665	-53.9	-69.9	-82.5	-92					
ACI_671	-37.4	-60.6	-65.7	-79.9					
ACI_672	-31.1	-77.7	-76.5	-90.7					
ACI_698	-36.7	-87.3	-92.2	-93.7					
ACI_AYE	-41.9	-76.2	-86.7	-95.5					
ACI_C60	-60.4	-89	-93.3	-94.8					
ACI_19606	-93.5	-94.6	-93.2	-94.3					
ENTCL_525	-34.9	-86.1	-92.2	-92.6					
ENTCL_801	-61.3	-94.6	-95.6	-96.4					
ENTCL_804	+18.7	-46.6	-88.2	-87.8					
STEMA_529	-80.7	-81	-92.4	-95.1					
STEMA_551	-84.5	-95.1	-96.2	-94					
STEMA_558	-71	-93.3	-96.2	-94.7					
PSE_568	-83.9	-82.8	-87.2	-81.8					
PSE_PA01	-83.7	-86.2	-82.8	-89.5					
PSE_6749	-88.9	-90.3	-87.1	-88.9					
PS_1054	-58.3	-90.7	-83.2	-84.3					
PSE_1586	-80.3	-92.0	-89.4	-88.8					
EKIN_502	-85.8	-94.8	-91.6	-86.5					
EC_073	-93.0	-94.6	-96.2	-96.2					
EC_042	-92.1	-91.3	-92.1	-93.4					
MDR_A	-87.4	-96.0	-89.2	-82.4					
MDR_B	-75.3	-95.0	-95.8	-94.3					
MRSA_508	-59.5	-58	-73.7	-83.3					
MRSA_520	-44.5	-57.7	-73.2	-78.8					
MRSA_531	-81.6	-91.2	-88	-93.7					
MSSA_10788	-5.0 ^	-30.9	-36.3	-34.6					
MSSA_F77	-67.8	-79.6	-96.4	-92.0					
EFM_513	-66.3	-69.3	-68.2	-72.2					

**Table 3:** Average percentage change in biofilm seeding in isolates exposed to blue light compared to non-exposed dark incubated controls

^ p value = 0.15. Shading denotes reductions of at least 80% in biofilm seeding compared to the positive control