ENVIRONMENTAL MICROBIOLOGY

Fast and effective: intense pulse light photodynamic inactivation of bacteria

Tim Maisch · Franz Spannberger · Johannes Regensburger · Ariane Felgenträger · Wolfgang Bäumler

Received: 13 December 2011/Accepted: 2 February 2012/Published online: 22 February 2012 © Society for Industrial Microbiology and Biotechnology 2012

Abstract The goal of this study was to investigate the photodynamic toxicity of TMPyP (5, 10, 15, 20-Tetrakis (1-methylpyridinium-4-yl)-porphyrin tetra p-toluenesulfonate) in combination with short pulses (ms) of an intense pulse light source within 10 s against Bacillus atrophaeus, Staphylococcus aureus, Methicillin-resistant S. aureus and Escherichia coli, major pathogens in food industry and in health care, respectively. Bacteria were incubated with a photoactive dye (TMPyP) that is subsequently irradiated with visible light flashes of 100 ms to induce oxidative damage immediately by generation of reactive oxygen species like singlet oxygen. A photodynamic killing efficacy of up to 6 log₁₀ (>99.9999%) was achieved within a total treatment time of 10 s using a concentration range of 1-100 µmol TMPyP and multiple light flashes of 100 ms (from 20 J cm⁻² up to 80 J cm⁻²). Both incubation of bacteria with TMPvP alone or application of light flashes only did not have any negative effect on bacteria survival. Here we could demonstrate for the first time that the combination of TMPyP as the respective photosensitizer and a light flash of 100 ms of an intense pulsed light source is enough to generate sufficient amounts of reactive oxygen species to kill these pathogens within a few seconds. Increasing antibiotic resistance requires fast and efficient new approaches to kill bacteria, therefore the photodynamic process seems to be a promising tool for disinfection of horizontal surfaces in industry and clinical purposes where savings in time is a critical point to achieve efficient inactivation of microorganisms.

Keywords IPL \cdot Photoactive dye \cdot Light flash \cdot Bacteria \cdot TMPyP \cdot MRSA

Introduction

Sterilization processes

Successful inactivation or sterilization of pathogenic microorganisms is one important goal in a world of increasing multi-resistant pathogens in industry and medicine [3, 4, 9, 33]. Autoclaving (121°C steam) and thermal sterilization (hot air 220°C only) can not be used for some polymeric surface materials because of the high temperature used. The use of UV and γ -radiation is dangerous and critical because it can damage the DNA structure and induce mutagenesis [14]. Chemical agents such as ethylene oxide or hydrogen peroxide for sterilization are limited because of their toxicity to eukaryotic cells and the high amounts of fresh water needed for rinsing after application [26, 43]. Furthermore, chlorination is a widely used technique for disinfection, but the environmental impact of chlorine itself can be problematical [15, 45]. Over the last decades, silver, in terms of silver cations, was introduced as a disinfectant for the treatment of water, in dietary supplements, in medical applications, which can produce antimicrobial coatings and products [42].

Photodynamic antimicrobial action

Recently, photodynamic treatment of microorganisms has been shown to be very effective in vitro as well as in vivo [17–19, 29, 32, 38]. Photodynamic inactivation of microorganisms is based on the concept that positive-charged photosensitizers can attach and/or accumulate in or at the

T. Maisch (\boxtimes) \cdot F. Spannberger \cdot J. Regensburger \cdot

A. Felgenträger \cdot W. Bäumler

Department of Dermatology, Regensburg University Hospital, Franz-Josef-Strauss-Allee 11, 93053 Regensburg, Germany e-mail: tim.maisch@klinik.uni-regensburg.de

pathogen to induce irreversible damage upon light activation of the photosensitizer [2, 36]. The absorption of light by a photosensitizer leads to the generation of reactive oxygen species such as singlet oxygen, which induces an irreversible oxidative damage of the pathogens during illumination [30]. The presence of multiple positive charges enables the photosensitizer agent to interact with the negatively charged outer cell wall areas of bacteria, in particular with the negatively charged lipopolysaccharides of Gram-negative bacteria [34]. Tetra-cationic porphyrins are very effective against bacteria, like TMPvP (5, 10, 15, 20-Tetrakis (1-methylpyridinium-4-yl)-porphyrin tetra p-toluenesulfonate) [40]. An incubation of 5 min with TMPvP and very long illumination times in the range of 1-30 min with 60 mW cm^{-2} using an incoherent light source achieved a killing efficacy of $>5 \log_{10}$, corresponding to a total radiant exposure of $3.6-108 \text{ J cm}^{-2}$ [16]. These results strengthen the research interest for optimization of the photodynamic process regarding incubation time and applied radiant exposure using standard new incoherent light devices, to get overall treatment times within a few seconds.

Incoherent light sources

Many light sources have been applied and approved for topical photodynamic tumor treatment in dermatology, such as lasers and incoherent light sources [11]. Incoherent light sources have the advantage of a broad emission spectrum (400–1,000 nm) in the visible wavelength range, which covers the absorption spectra of many photosensitizers. Within these devices, intense pulsed light sources (IPLs) have been developed for different dermatological procedures and treatments, for instance rejuvenation of photo-damaged skin, removal of port-wine stains, and aesthetic challenges such as hair removal [20, 39, 41]. IPLs are high-power flash lamps that can emit millisecond pulses at high radiant emittance (mW cm⁻²). The basic principle of an IPL is selective thermal damage of the tissue target depending on the wavelength spectrum, pulse duration, and fluence. Short pulses reduce the diffusion of heat in deeper areas inside the tissue to avoid by-effects. The wavelength range of an IPL applicator is blocked by an optical edge filter, called the cut-off filter.

Aim of the study

By using such short IPL light pulses and short incubation times of a few seconds, we aimed to achieve a fast and effective photodynamic inactivation of bacteria yielding more than 3 \log_{10} (>99.9%). *Staphylococcus aureus*, methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA), and *E. coli*, prevalent pathogens of serious concern in hospital-acquired

infections, were the principal bacteria included in this study [8]. Furthermore, for industrial purposes, *Bacillus atrophaeus* was tested regarding its sensitivity to the photodynamic process.

Materials and methods

Bacterial strains

Biochemical analysis and resistance testing of each bacterial strain were done with a VITEK 2 system (bioMérieux, Nuertingen, Germany) according to the guidelines of the National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards (NCCLS, Wayne, PA). Methicillin-sensitive S. aureus (MSSA; ATCC 25923), MRSA (ATCC BAA-44 and ATCC 43300), B. atrophaeus (ATCC 9372), and E. coli (ATCC 25922) were used, which were grown aerobically at 37°C in Mueller-Hinton broth (Gibco Life Technologies GmbH, Eggenstein, Germany). An overnight bacteria culture (5 ml) was harvested by centrifugation (200 \times g, 15 min), washed with 0.01 mol l^{-1} mM phosphate-buffered saline (PBS; Biochrom, Berlin, Germany) at pH 7.4 containing $0.027 \text{ mol } 1^{-1} \text{ KCl}$ and $0.14 \text{ mol } 1^{-1} \text{ NaCl}$, and suspended in PBS at an optical density of 0.6 at 600 nm, which corresponded to $\sim 10^{7-8}$ bacteria ml⁻¹, for use in the phototoxicity experiments.

Light source and irradiation parameters

A commercially available IPL (VL-2 Applicator; Ellipse A/S, Hørsholm, Denmark) was used in this study with the following nominative cut-off excitation filter set of 550 nm (Fig. 1a). The manufacturer's settings for pulses are 100 ms or 83 ms corresponding to 20 or 10 J cm^{-2} , respectively. Multiple pulses were applied to establish dose-response curves as follows: (I) $1 \times 20 \text{ J cm}^{-2}$ followed by increments of 20 up to 80 J cm^{-2} , pulse duration was 100 ms. (II) $1 \times 10 \text{ J cm}^{-2}$ followed by increments of 10 up to 40 J cm⁻², pulse duration 83 ms. Suspensions of bacteria were incubated with a photosensitizer and subsequently irradiated. Illumination was done from the bottom side of the 96-well plates to avoid refraction of the light in the cell culture media. The optical power of such ILP is in the range of Watts, requiring an exposure time of milliseconds to achieve an effective radiant exposure $(J \text{ cm}^{-2})$ (see Eq. 1):

radiant exposure
$$\left[\frac{J}{cm^2}\right] = \frac{power}{area} \times time \quad \left[\frac{W}{cm^2} \times s\right]$$
(1)

The emission spectra of the IPL were normalized to it corresponding to maxima between 750 and 850 nm as previously described [31].

A



Photosensitizer TMPyP

TMPyP was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Taufkirchen, Germany), purity 97%. TMPyP was dissolved in distilled water at a stock concentration of 0.002 mol 1^{-1} , passed through a 0.22-µm pore-size filter and stored at 4°C until use. Dilutions were done in PBS-buffer (PAA Laboratories GmbH, Pasching, Austria). The absorption spectrum of 100 µmol 1^{-1} TMPyP was measured in aqua dist.

Phototoxicity assay of the bacteria

A total of $\sim 10^{7-8}$ bacterial cells per milliliter were placed into a 96-well microtiter plate (100 µl/well) and incubated with different concentrations of TMPyP (0, 1, 10, and 100 µmol 1⁻¹) for 10 s in the dark at room temperature. Immediately at the end of the incubation period, the bacteria were illuminated with the IPL. Controls were neither sensitized with TMPyP nor exposed to the light source or were incubated with a photosensitizer only or illuminated only. After illumination, the survival of the bacteria was determined by counting the number of CFU using the Miles, Misra and Irwin technique [35]. Serially diluted aliquots of treated and untreated (no photosensitizer, no light) cells were plated on Mueller–Hinton agar, and the number of CFU per milliliter was counted after 24 h of incubation at 37°C.

Statistical methods

All results are shown as medians, including the 25 and 75% quartiles, which were calculated from the values of at least three independent experiments. Each experiment was conducted in triplicate, with Prism 4 for Windows (GraphPad Software Inc., San Diego, CA, USA). The calculation was referred to untreated controls (bacteria, but no light and no photosensitizer) (black horizontal line). In Figs. 3, 4 and 5, medians on or below the dotted horizontal lines represent $\geq 99.9\%$ efficacy or $\geq 99.999\%$ of bacteria killing, corresponding to at least more than three magnitudes or five magnitudes of \log_{10} reduction compared to matching untreated controls. A reduction of at least three magnitudes of \log_{10} of viable median numbers of bacteria was stated as biologically relevant with regard to the



Fig. 1 IPL applicator and spectral emission of the IPL and absorption spectra of TMPyP. **a** IPL-handheld containing a glass applicator in action (*upper part*) illuminating five wells of a 96-well plate (*middle part*). Schematic drawing of an IPL-handheld (*lower part*). **b** Absorption spectrum of 10 μ mol 1⁻¹ TMPyP (*black*) is shown in the range between 450 and 750 nm (Q-bands I–IV) and the emission spectra of the IPL in the same range between 500–700 nm (*red*). The emission wavelength data of the IPL was normalized to their corresponding maxima between 750 and 850 nm, which is not shown here. *OD* optical density (color figure online)

Detection of singlet oxygen

The ability of TMPyP to generate singlet oxygen was qualitatively evaluated using a frequency-doubled Nd:YAG laser (PhotonEnergy, Ottensoos, Germany), as previously



Fig. 2 Fingerprint of singlet oxygen generation by TMPyP. Wavelength scan by summing up the luminescence signals of singlet oxygen at different wavelengths from 1,170 to 1,370 nm generated by 50 μ mol l⁻¹ TMPyP in H₂O

guidelines of hand hygiene [10]. Percentage of phototoxicity was calculated as follows (Eq. 2:

 $\frac{\text{CFU control} - \text{CFU sample}}{\text{CFU control}} \times 100 = \% \text{ of reduction}$ (2)

Results

Overlap of the TMPyP absorption spectrum with the emission spectra of the IPL device

Generally, light absorption by TMPyP for wavelengths above 700 nm is very low and no emission wavelengths of the IPL were detected below 490 nm. Therefore, the spectral overlap of TMPyP absorption and the IPL emission was considered in the range of 490–750 nm. Figure 1 shows the extent of the spectral overlap of the respective IPL and TMPyP. The emission spectrum of the IPL closely matches the four absorption peaks of TMPyP, the so-called Q-bands at 517, 554, 584, and 640 nm (Fig. 1).

Singlet oxygen generation and detection

The singlet oxygen generation by TMPyP upon excitation with visible light is shown in Fig. 2. The combination of the spectral and time-resolved distribution of the singletoxygen luminescence signals detected by the laser/photomultiplier-system confirms the generation of singlet



Fig. 3 Photosensitized inactivation of MSSA *S. aureus.* Survival of MSSA incubated with different TMPyP concentrations for 10s in the dark and followed by illumination with **a** multiple light flashes of 100 ms ($1 \times 20 \text{ J cm}^{-2}$ up to $4 \times 20 \text{ J cm}^{-2}$) or **b** 83 ms (10 J cm^{-2} each). Control (*white bars*): bacteria alone or incubated with TMPyP only, but not irradiated. *Bars* represent the median, including the 25 and 75% quartiles, of three independent experiments. Values on or below the *dotted horizontal line* represent \geq 99.9% (*chain-dotted line*) efficacy of bacteria alone, no light, no photosensitizer)

oxygen by TMPyP resulting in a characteristic fingerprint of singlet oxygen, which is in good agreement with already published data for singlet oxygen in aqueous solutions [30].

IPL induced phototoxicity of TMPyP-sensitized MSSA *S. aureus* and *E. coli*

Different clinical and industrial pathogens were incubated with different concentrations of TMPyP for 10 s only. Immediately after incubation, the bacteria were illuminated with different light flashes, which correspond to applied radiant exposures of 10 up to 80 J cm⁻². Incubation of MSSA with TMPyP caused a biologically relevant decrease in CFU/ml upon illumination with multiple light flashes (Fig. 3a, b). A TMPyP concentration of 1 µmol 1⁻¹ already exhibited a killing efficacy of ~2 magnitudes of log₁₀ reduction at a radiant exposure of 80 J cm⁻² (4× flashes, 20 J cm⁻² each). Incubation with higher concentrations of TMPyP (10 or 100 µmol 1⁻¹) showed a further decrease in bacterial survival of \geq 5 log₁₀ orders (killing efficacy of 99.999%) using only one light flash of 20 J cm⁻² (Fig. 3a). Antibacterial activity (\geq 99.999% killing efficacy) seemed to plateau with increasing radiant exposure (up to 80 J cm⁻²). In addition, MSSA was already killed to more than 99.999% at 10 µmol 1⁻¹ of TMPyP when the radiant exposure was reduced to 10 J cm⁻² (Fig. 3b).

Illumination with multiple radiant exposure of 20 J cm^{-2} of TMPyP-sensitized E. coli revealed a smaller decrease in CFU/ml compared to the killing efficacy of MSSA (Fig. 3 vs. Fig. 4). There was a biologically relevant decrease of $5 \log_{10}$ (>99.999% reduction) in CFU/ml of E. coli when irradiated with 40 J cm⁻² (2 \times 20 J cm⁻²) after photosensitization with 100 μ mol l⁻¹ TMPyP compared to the control group (Fig. 4a). However, a radiant exposure of 20 J cm^{-2} exhibited a biologically relevant killing efficacy of $3 \log_{10} (99.9\%)$ only at a used TMPyP concentration of 100 μ mol 1⁻¹. TMPyP concentrations of less than 100 μ mol l⁻¹ did not induce a biologically relevant photodynamic inactivation regardless of the used radiant exposure of up to 80 J cm⁻² (Fig. 4a). Furthermore, Fig. 4b showed the killing efficacy within 10s of TMPyP at 100 μ mol l⁻¹ against *E. coli* depending on the radiant exposure: ~ 1 magnitudes of log₁₀ reduction after one flash, ~ 3 magnitudes of log₁₀ reduction after two flashes, >3magnitudes of \log_{10} reduction after three flashes and >5 magnitudes of log₁₀ reduction after four flashes, which correspond to radiant exposure of 10, 20, 30, and 40 J cm⁻², respectively (Fig. 4b).

IPL induced phototoxicity of TMPyP-sensitized MRSA and *B. atrophaeus*

In order to investigate whether the observed growth reduction of methicillin-sensitive *S. aureus* (MSSA) was independent of the antibiotic resistance pattern, two MRSA strains were photosensitized with TMPyP for 10 s and illuminated under conditions identical to those used for the MSSA strain. In repeated experiments, both MRSA strains showed a similar decrease in CFU/ml as the MSSA strain (Table 1). TMPyP at a concentration of 10 μ mol l⁻¹ achieved a substantial killing efficacy of 5 log₁₀ already after a light flash of 10 J cm⁻² against both MRSA strains tested. As shown in (Table 1) higher applied radiant exposures up to 80 J cm⁻² did not further increase the killing efficacy compared to the growth of the controls without illumination. In addition, *B. atrophaeus* was already killed to more than 4 log₁₀ at 10 μ mol l⁻¹



Fig. 4 Photosensitized inactivation of *E. coli*. Survival of *E. coli* incubated with different TMPyP concentrations for 10 s in the dark and followed by illumination with **a** multiple light flashes of 100 ms $(1 \times 20 \text{ J cm}^{-2} \text{ up to } 4 \times 20 \text{ J cm}^{-2})$ or **b** 83 ms (10 J cm⁻² each). Control (*white bars*): bacteria alone or incubated with TMPyP only, but not irradiated. *Bars* represent the median, including the 25 and 75% quartiles, of three independent experiments. Values on or below the *dotted horizontal line* represent \geq 99.9% or \geq 99.999% (*chaindotted line*) efficacy of bacteria killing, which was referred to the untreated controls (bacteria alone, no light, no photosensitizer)

TMPyP and only one light flash of 10 or 20 J cm⁻² (Fig. 5). Again increasing the radiant exposure seemed to plateau the killing efficacy of *B. atrophaeus*.

Overall, all bacterial samples that were incubated without photosensitizer exhibited unaffected growth with and without illumination, demonstrating that the maximal radiant exposure of 80 J cm⁻² at the level of the illuminated bacteria samples has no antibacterial effects (Figs. 3, 4 and 5).

Discussion

Various studies have shown that photodynamic inactivation of bacteria with light in the visible wavelength range and

TMPyP 1 μM	Log ₁₀ reduction of viable bacteria number depending on the radiant exposure															
	83-ms pulse duration								100-ms pulse duration							
	10 J cm^{-2}		$20 \text{ J} \text{ cm}^{-2}$		$30 \text{ J} \text{ cm}^{-2}$		$40 \text{ J} \text{ cm}^{-2}$		20 J cm^{-2}		40 J cm^{-2}		60 J cm^{-2}		80 J cm^{-2}	
	0.65 ^a	0.23 ^b	1.9 ^a	1.97 ^b	0.98 ^a	2.99 ^b	0.9 ^a	2.99 ^b	0.75 ^a	2.96 ^b	2.98 ^a	2.99 ^b	2.99 ^a	3 ^b	3 ^a	3 ^b
10 µM	4	3.9	4	3.9	4	3.9	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
100 µM	5	3.9	5	3.9	5	3.9	5	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	5

Table 1 Phototoxicity of different radiant exposures against TMPyP-sensitized MRSA strains BAA-44 and 43300

^a MRSA, strain BAA-44

^b MRSA, strain 43300



Fig. 5 Photosensitized inactivation of *B. atrophaeus*. Survival of *B. atrophaeus* incubated with different TMPyP concentrations for 10 s in the dark and followed by illumination with multiple light flashes of 83 ms (*grey bars* crosshatched; 10 J cm⁻² each) or 100 ms (*grey bars*; 1×20 J cm⁻² up to 4×20 J cm⁻²). Control (*white bars*): bacteria alone or incubated with TMPyP only, but not

porphyrin-based photosensitizers, like TMPyP, exhibit significant photosensitizing activities against a broad range of pathogens only in the presence of light and oxygen, but takes overall very long treatment times due to the low intensity of the available light sources [28, 32]. In accordance with already published data, here in this study a characteristic fingerprint of singlet oxygen was detected upon excitation of TMPyP at 532 nm [30]. Furthermore, the quantum yield of singlet oxygen of TMPyP is ~70%, which is high compared to other known photosensitizers [13, 21, 46] like Methylene blue (52%) [44] or Photofrin (36%) [37].

The results of the present study showed that a commercially available IPL device with a standard cut-off filter

irradiated. *Bars* represent the median, including the 25 and 75% quartiles, of three independent experiments. *Values on or below the dotted horizontal line* represent \geq 99.9 or \geq 99.999% (*chain-dotted line*) efficacy of bacteria killing, which was referred to the untreated controls (bacteria alone, no light, no photosensitizer)

(550 nm) in combination with TMPyP, as the respective photosensitizer, is able to inactive different pathogens very fast and effective upon illumination with visible light. A very short incubation time of 10 s in combination with a low photosensitizer concentration of 10 μ M and a short light exposure time of 100 ms was effective in killing methicillin-sensitive *S. aureus*, two different MRSA strains, *E. coli* and *B. atrophaeus* with an efficacy of 99.999% (5 log₁₀ reduction).

A commercially available IPL was used as a light source, which has become increasingly popular for several reasons [5]. (1) IPLs were developed for different dermatological conditions including photodynamic therapy (PDT) and, therefore, IPLs are commonly used in dermatological practice. (2) IPLs can emit red light that overlaps with the absorption peaks of the Q-bands of porphyrin photosensitizers such as TMPyP. Therefore the use of such an IPL for antimicrobial photodynamic treatment would considerably shorten treatment times up to a few seconds in comparison to LED systems or other incoherent light sources, which take at least about 5–30 min depending on the extent of radiant exposure [27].

IPLs are high-power flash lamps that can emit millisecond pulses at high intensities (hundreds of $W \text{ cm}^{-2}$). Here no thermal damage of bacteria was observed because irradiation alone did not affect viability as compared to untreated controls (no light and no photosensitizer). Thus, bacteria killing was based solely on photodynamic action. Moreover, it is likewise of importance that the emission spectrum of the used IPL applicator sufficiently match the absorption spectra of TMPyP to achieve maximum antimicrobial killing efficacy. In our study, the Q-bands of TMPyP effectively absorb the emitted visible light of the IPL applicator (Fig. 1b). Such a cut of filter of 550 nm was selected, because only pure visible light should be used for this study. Due to safety reasons, UVA radiation was completely excluded concerning protection of the operator and the environment. When the Soret band of TMPyP should be light-activated, a suitable longpass-filter notation would let pass as well part of the UV-A radiation due to the transmission range of the filter. The results of this study clearly showed that it is not necessary to include the wavelength range for excitation of the Soret band at 420 nm of TMPyP for an enhanced light activation because photodynamic inactivation efficacy was extremely sufficient (>5 \log_{10} steps).

Therefore, the short light flashes of 83 or 100 ms were sufficient to start the photodynamic process using TMPyP, which generated reactive oxygen species such as singlet oxygen via type-II mechanism [27]. Therefore, the generation of singlet oxygen by IPL excited TMPyP is highly efficient and the interaction of singlet oxygen with the energy-producing membrane area systems of bacteria leads to a dissipation of the membrane potential [28].

Since the dramatic worldwide increase of antibiotic resistance both inside and outside of health care settings, new strategies to control infection are of interest [12]. At present, a wide variety of antibiotics, antiseptics, and disinfectants is in use where bacteria achieve multiple drug resistance [1, 6, 7]. Such a multiple drug resistance is spread within the bacterial community and this situation is leading to pathogens potentially resistant to any available antibiotic [25]. In general photodynamic killing efficacy was not influenced using a porphyrin-based photosensitizer against either a fluoroquinolon-resistant *E. coli* strain (efflux pump over-expression) or its wild-type. The

corresponding data are not presented due to not having differences in photodynamic inactivation efficacy.

So far, no bacteria strain is known that has developed resistance to the photodynamic process. Grinholc et al. could demonstrate that various porphyrin-based photosensitizers tested executed their antibacterial activity with no change in the antibiotic resistance pattern of the studied MRSA strains [23]. So far only the bactericidal effect of photodynamic inactivation against methicillinresistant and methicillin-susceptible S. aureus is straindependent, which means that different photodynamic parameters (applied radiant exposure, concentration, and incubation time) are necessary to achieve a complete eradication of different pathogens tested [22]. Furthermore, the strain-dependent differences of bactericidal photodynamic inactivation could not be correlated to either the levels of photosensitizer uptake or the pharmacological inhibition of the efflux pump [24]. Therefore, other factors might be influencing such observed differences in the photodynamic efficacy, such as aggregation of the photosensitizer, concentration of antioxidant enzymes, or cellular repair proteins, but all of these factors are not responsible for diminishing TMPyP-induced photosensitization because up to now, there is a lack of selection of photo-resistant bacteria after multiple photodynamic treatments [27]. Furthermore, the advantage of such a very short photodynamic treatment time of seconds is that it might not allow bacteria to react to the photodynamic process to attain resistance. Here, the photodynamic inactivation of E. coli indicates that stronger conditions were necessary than for the Gram-positive bacteria. According to the composition of the cell wall of Gram-positive and -negative bacteria, different porphyrine derivatives demonstrate variable degrees of bactericidal efficacy upon illumination. The presence of the outer membrane makes Gram-negative bacteria more resistant to photodynamic inactivation than Gram-positive bacteria [36]. Gram-negative bacteria, such as E. coli, possess an outer membrane, located outside the peptidoglycan layer consisting of negatively charged lipopolysaccharides (LPS) and some major proteins that compound the uptake of PS.

Besides medical application of IPL-based antimicrobial technology, this procedure should also be feasible in environmental technology. Considering safety, the use of light-activating molecules is safe due to the used wavelengths being part of the visible light spectrum and coupled with the fact that photodynamic inactivation occurs only when the light is switched on does not require additional chemical pre-treatments. The photodynamic process for microbial inactivation makes it very attractive for a range of potential decontamination applications, like cleaning and disinfection of horizontal surfaces and items in both health-care settings and industry, where liquid disinfection like alcohol, perchlorate, or H_2O_2 is not possible because protection is needed of corrosive material.

Overall, the results of this study clearly demonstrate for the first time that an IPL device is suitable in combination with TMPyP to induce a photodynamic process to inactivate clinical or industrial pathogens efficiently within a few seconds only. It should be emphasized that TMPyP has no clinical approval to be used as a medical drug. However, these results should encourage the development of similar porphyrin molecules with similar properties that can be approved in the near future. The rapid inactivation procedure within seconds suggest that it may be useful as a promising tool for industrial and clinical purposes where savings in time is a critical point to achieve efficient inactivation of microorganisms.

Acknowledgments The excellent technical assistance of Ewa Kowalewski and Francesco Santarelli is gratefully acknowledged. No financial conflict of interest is declared.

References

- al-Masaudi SB, Day MJ, Russell AD (1991) Antimicrobial resistance and gene transfer in *Staphylococcus aureus*. J Appl Bacteriol 70(4):279–290
- Alves E, Costa L, Carvalho CM, Tome JP, Faustino MA, Neves MG, Tome AC, Cavaleiro JA, Cunha A, Almeida A (2009) Charge effect on the photoinactivation of Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria by cationic meso-substituted porphyrins. BMC Microbiol 9:70
- Ang JY, Ezike E, Asmar BI (2004) Antibacterial resistance. Indian J Pediatr 71(3):229–239
- Appelbaum PC (2006) MRSA-the tip of the iceberg. Clin Microbiol Infect 12(Suppl 2):3–10
- Babilas P, Schreml S, Szeimies RM, Landthaler M (2010) Intense pulsed light (IPL): a review. Lasers Surg Med 42(2):93–104
- Baquero F, Negri MC, Morosini MI, Blazquez J (1998) Antibiotic-selective environments. Clin Infect Dis 27(Suppl 1):S5–S11
- Birosova L, Mikulasova M (2009) Development of triclosan and antibiotic resistance in *Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimuri*um. J Med Microbiol 58(Pt 4):436–441
- Blot S, Depuydt P, Vandewoude K, De Bacquer D (2007) Measuring the impact of multidrug resistance in nosocomial infection. Curr Opin Infect Dis 20(4):391–396
- Bower CK, Daeschel MA (1999) Resistance responses of microorganisms in food environments. Int J Food Microbiol 50(1-2):33-44
- Boyce JM, Pittet D (2002) Guideline for hand hygiene in healthcare settings. recommendations of the healthcare infection control practices advisory committee and the HIPAC/SHEA/APIC/IDSA hand hygiene task force. Am J Infect Control 30(8):S1–S46
- Brancaleon L, Moseley H (2002) Laser and non-laser light sources for photodynamic therapy. Lasers Med Sci 17(3):173– 186
- Branski LK, Al-Mousawi A, Rivero H, Jeschke MG, Sanford AP, Herndon DN (2009) Emerging infections in burns. Surg Infect (Larchmt) 10(5):389–397
- Breitenbach T, Kuimova MK, Gbur P, Hatz S, Schack NB, Pedersen BW, Lambert JD, Poulsen L, Ogilby PR (2009)

Photosensitized production of singlet oxygen: spatially resolved optical studies in single cells. Photochem Photobiol Sci 8(4):442–452

- Chapple RM, Inglis B, Stewart PR (1992) Lethal and mutational effects of solar and UV radiation on *Staphylococcus aureus*. Arch Microbiol 157(3):242–248
- 15. Exon JH (1984) A review of chlorinated phenols. Vet Hum Toxicol 26(6):508–520
- Feese E, Ghiladi RA (2009) Highly efficient in vitro photodynamic inactivation of *Mycobacterium smegmatis*. J Antimicrob Chemother 64(4):782–785
- Gad F, Zahra T, Francis KP, Hasan T, Hamblin MR (2004) Targeted photodynamic therapy of established soft-tissue infections in mice. Photochem Photobiol Sci 3(5):451–458
- Garcez AS, Nunez SC, Hamblin MR, Ribeiro MS (2008) Antimicrobial effects of photodynamic therapy on patients with necrotic pulps and periapical lesion. J Endod 34(2):138–142
- Garcez AS, Ribeiro MS, Tegos GP, Nunez SC, Jorge AO, Hamblin MR (2007) Antimicrobial photodynamic therapy combined with conventional endodontic treatment to eliminate root canal biofilm infection. Lasers Surg Med 39(1):59–66
- Goldman MP, Weiss RA, Weiss MA (2005) Intense pulsed light as a nonablative approach to photoaging. Dermatol Surg 31(2):1179–1187 discussion 1187
- Gottfried V, Peled D, Winkelman JW, Kimel S (1988) Photosensitizers in organized media: singlet oxygen production and spectral properties. Photochem Photobiol 48(2):157–163
- 22. Grinholc M, Szramka B, Kurlenda J, Graczyk A, Bielawski KP (2008) Bactericidal effect of photodynamic inactivation against methicillin-resistant and methicillin-susceptible *Staphylococcus aureus* is strain-dependent. J Photochem Photobiol B 90(1):57–63
- 23. Grinholc M, Szramka B, Olender K, Graczyk A (2007) Bactericidal effect of photodynamic therapy against methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* strain with the use of various porphyrin photosensitizers. Acta Biochim Pol 54(3):665–670
- 24. Grinholc M, Zawacka-Pankau J, Gwizdek-Wisniewska A, Bielawski KP (2011) Evaluation of the role of the pharmacological inhibition of *Staphylococcus aureus* multidrug resistance pumps and the variable levels of the uptake of the sensitizer in the straindependent response of *Staphylococcus aureus* to PPArg(2)-based photodynamic inactivation. Photochem Photobiol 86(5):1118– 1126
- Huycke MM, Sahm DF, Gilmore MS (1998) Multiple-drug resistant *enterococci*: the nature of the problem and an agenda for the future. Emerg Infect Dis 4(2):239–249
- Imlay JA, Linn S (1988) DNA damage and oxygen radical toxicity. Science 240(4857):1302–1309
- Jori G, Fabris C, Soncin M, Ferro S, Coppellotti O, Dei D, Fantetti L, Chiti G, Roncucci G (2006) Photodynamic therapy in the treatment of microbial infections: basic principles and perspective applications. Lasers Surg Med 38(5):468–481
- Komagoe K, Kato H, Inoue T, Katsu T (2011) Continuous realtime monitoring of cationic porphyrin-induced photodynamic inactivation of bacterial membrane functions using electrochemical sensors. Photochem Photobiol Sci 10(7):1181–1188
- 29. Komerik N, Nakanishi H, MacRobert AJ, Henderson B, Speight P, Wilson M (2003) In vivo killing of porphyromonas gingivalis by toluidine blue-mediated photosensitization in an animal model. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 47(3):932–940
- 30. Maisch T, Baier J, Franz B, Maier M, Landthaler M, Szeimies RM, Baumler W (2007) The role of singlet oxygen and oxygen concentration in photodynamic inactivation of bacteria. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 104(17):7223–7228
- Maisch T, Moor AC, Regensburger J, Ortland C, Szeimies RM, Baumler W (2011) Intense pulse light and 5-ALA PDT: phototoxic effects in vitro depend on the spectral overlap with

protoporphyrine IX but do not match cut-off filter notations. Lasers Surg Med 43(2):176–182

- 32. Maisch T, Wagner J, Papastamou V, Nerl HJ, Hiller KA, Szeimies RM, Schmalz G (2009) Combination of 10% EDTA, photosan, and a blue light hand-held photopolymerizer to inactivate leading oral bacteria in dentistry in vitro. J Appl Microbiol 107(5):1569–1578
- Mathur S, Singh R (2005) Antibiotic resistance in food lactic acid bacteria–a review. Int J Food Microbiol 105(3):281–295
- 34. Merchat M, Bertolini G, Giacomini P, Villanueva A, Jori G (1996) Meso-substituted cationic porphyrins as efficient photosensitizers of Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria. J Photochem Photobiol B 32(3):153–157
- Miles AA, Misra SS, Irwin JO (1938) The estimation of the bactericidal power of the blood. J Hyg (Lond) 38(6):732–749
- Nitzan Y, Dror R, Ladan H, Malik Z, Kimel S, Gottfried V (1995) Structure-activity relationship of porphines for photoinactivation of bacteria. Photochem Photobiol 62(2):342–347
- Pottier R, Truscott TG (1986) The photochemistry of haematoporphyrin and related systems. Int J Radiat Biol Relat Stud Phys Chem Med 50(3):421–452
- Ragas X, Dai T, Tegos GP, Agut M, Nonell S, Hamblin MR (2011) Photodynamic inactivation of *Acinetobacter baumannii* using phenothiazinium dyes: in vitro and in vivo studies. Lasers Surg Med 42(5):384–390

- Raulin C, Greve B, Grema H (2003) IPL technology: a review. Lasers Surg Med 32(2):78–87
- Salmon-Divon M, Nitzan Y, Malik Z (2004) Mechanistic aspects of *Escherichia coli* photodynamic inactivation by cationic tetrameso(*N*-methylpyridyl)porphine. Photochem Photobiol Sci 3(5): 423–429
- 41. Shamban AT (2009) Current and new treatments of photodamaged skin. Facial Plast Surg 25(5):337–346
- Silvestry-Rodriguez N, Sicairos-Ruelas EE, Gerba CP, Bright KR (2007) Silver as a disinfectant. Rev Environ Contam Toxicol 191:23–45
- 43. Snellings WM, Weil CS, Maronpot RR (1984) A two-year inhalation study of the carcinogenic potential of ethylene oxide in Fischer 344 rats. Toxicol Appl Pharmacol 75(1):105–117
- 44. Usui Y (1973) Determination of quantum yield of singlet oxygen formation by photosensitization. Chem Lett 7:743–744
- 45. Wigle DT, Arbuckle TE, Walker M, Wade MG, Liu S, Krewski D (2007) Environmental hazards: evidence for effects on child health. J Toxicol Environ Health B Crit Rev 10(1–2):3–39
- 46. Wilkinson F, Helman W, Ross AB (1993) Quantum yields for the photosensitized formation of the lowest electronically excited singelt state of molecular oxygen in solution. J Phys Chem Ref Data 22:113–262