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**Title:** Evaluation of the ability of *Acinetobacter baumannii* to form biofilms on six different biomedical relevant surfaces

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**Running Head:** *A. baumannii* biofilms on six different surfaces

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**SIGNIFICANCE AND IMPACT OF THE STUDY**

In the hospital environment, *Acinetobacter baumannii* is one of the most persistent and difficult to control opportunistic pathogens. The persistence of *A. baumannii* is due, in part, to its ability

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27 to colonize surfaces and form biofilms. This study demonstrates that *A. baumannii* can form  
28 biofilms on a variety of different surfaces and develops substantial biofilms on polycarbonate- a  
29 thermoplastic material that is often used in the construction of medical devices. The findings  
30 highlight the need to further study the *in vitro* compatibility of medical materials that could be  
31 colonized by *A. baumannii* and allow it to persist in hospital settings.

32

### 33 **ABSTRACT**

34 The human opportunistic pathogen, *Acinetobacter baumannii*, has the propensity to form  
35 biofilms and frequently causes medical device-related infections in hospitals. However, the  
36 physio-chemical properties of medical surfaces, in addition to bacterial surface properties, will  
37 affect colonization and biofilm development. The objective of this study was to compare the  
38 ability of *A. baumannii* to form biofilms on six different materials common to the hospital  
39 environment: glass, porcelain, stainless steel, rubber, polycarbonate plastic and polypropylene  
40 plastic. Biofilms were developed on material coupons in a CDC biofilm reactor. Biofilms were  
41 visualized and quantified using fluorescent staining and imaged using confocal laser scanning  
42 microscopy (CLSM) and by direct viable cell counts. Image analysis of CLSM stacks indicated  
43 that the mean biomass values for biofilms grown on glass, rubber, porcelain, polypropylene,  
44 stainless steel and polycarbonate were 0.04, 0.26, 0.62, 1.00, 2.08 and 2.70  $\mu\text{m}^3/\mu\text{m}^2$   
45 respectively. Polycarbonate developed statistically more biofilm mass than glass, rubber,  
46 porcelain and polypropylene. Viable cell counts data were in agreement with the CLSM-derived  
47 data. In conclusion, polycarbonate was the most accommodating surface for *A. baumannii*  
48 ATCC17978 to form biofilms while glass was least favorable. Alternatives to polycarbonate for  
49 use in medical and dental devices may need to be considered.

50

51 Key words: Biofilms, *Acinetobacter baumannii*, medical device, infection control, environment,  
52 environmental surfaces

### 53 **INTRODUCTION**

54 *A. baumannii* can disseminate and persist in hospital environments, causing nosocomial  
55 outbreaks and serious disease in the critically ill (Towner 2009; Chen *et al.* 2015; Weber *et al.*  
56 2015). Many of the infections caused by *A. baumannii* (ranging from urinary tract infections to  
57 ventilator-associated pneumonia) are associated with indwelling devices (Manchanda *et al.* 2010;

58 Patel *et al.* 2014) due to the formation of biofilm on these surfaces. Biofilms of *A. baumannii*  
59 are found on the surfaces of many types of medical devices including urinary catheters, central  
60 lines, surgical drains, ventilation equipment, dental water lines, and cleaning equipment as well  
61 as on a variety of other surfaces in the hospital environment (Donlan and Costerton, 2002; Cohen  
62 *et al.* 2014; Patel *et al.* 2014).

63  
64 Biofilms are a dynamic, heterogeneous community of microorganisms within a complex matrix  
65 of extrapolymeric substance that have integrated metabolic activities and produce sessile  
66 phenotypes markedly different from their planktonic counterparts (Sutherland 2001; Stoodley *et*  
67 *al.* 2002); (Hall-Stoodley and Stoodley 2005). A critical step for biofilm formation is for the  
68 pathogen to adhere to a surface. Cell-surface associated structures on the surface of *A.*  
69 *baumannii* can enhance attachment via pili, encoded by the *csuA/BABCDE* chaperone-usher  
70 pilus assembly operon (Tomaras *et al.* 2003), and there is evidence to suggest that the *bla*<sub>PER-1</sub>  
71 gene also enhances substrate adhesion (Lee *et al.* 2008). In terms of surface chemistry, the  
72 physio-chemical properties of inanimate surfaces also play a key role in cell adhesion and  
73 biofilm development. Electrostatic forces, Lifshitz-van der Waals forces, and  
74 hydrophobic/hydrophilic forces positively or negatively influence microbial adhesion to a  
75 surface (Bos *et al.* 1999). Increased surface roughness can increase the hydrophobicity of the  
76 surface by effecting the surface contact angle (Patankar 2004). For example, *Staphylococcus*  
77 *epidermidis* has greater adhesion to hydrophobic surfaces compared to hydrophilic surfaces  
78 (Cerca *et al.* 2005).

79  
80 A variety of material types are used in medical equipment and in the hospital setting.  
81 Polycarbonate, a durable, low-cost plastic that can undergo autoclave sterilization is found in a  
82 variety of medical devices including urinary catheters, gastrointestinal tubes, and  
83 cardiopulmonary bypass circuits, blood oxygenators and flood filters used in the bypass circuit  
84 (Duty *et al.* 2013). Mesh prosthetics are often composed of polypropylene (Byrd *et al.* 2011)  
85 and porcelain is commonly used in many implants and dental crowns (Schroder *et al.* 2011; Ren  
86 and Zhang 2014). Stainless steel makes up the majority of surgical equipment and rubber has a  
87 number of uses, particularly rubber seals, such as that used in disposable plastic syringes  
88 (Hamilton 1987). Cells of *A. baumannii* can persist on most of these inanimate surfaces (Wendt  
89 *et al.* 1997) but studies comparing *A. baumannii* biofilms across various surface types is lacking.

90 *A. baumannii* biofilms have been demonstrated on a limited number of substrata such as glass  
91 (Vidal *et al.* 1996) and plastic surfaces (Tomaras *et al.* 2003). Thus, the aim of this study was to  
92 compare the ability of *A. baumannii* to form biofilm on six different material types: glass,  
93 porcelain, stainless steel, rubber, polycarbonate plastic and polypropylene plastic.  
94 Understanding the propensity for biofilm formation on various surfaces provides critical  
95 information to different parties for selecting low biofilm materials, which is essential for  
96 minimizing the risk of biofilm-associated infections.

97

## 98 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

### 99 **Biofilm formation by *A. baumannii* ATCC17978 varies across substrata**

100 The material substratum is an essential factor that contributes to the ability of a pathogen to  
101 adhere to and form biofilm on a surface (Brandao *et al.* 2015; Fernandez-Delgado *et al.* 2015);.  
102 Aside from cellular properties and pathogen adhesion mechanisms, variations in surface  
103 roughness, hydrophobicity and chemical structure can impede or promote a pathogen's ability to  
104 attach and populate on that surface. To evaluate if variations between these surface types  
105 influenced the development of biofilms, the biofilms of *A. baumannii* ATCC 17978 were  
106 developed on disc coupons of glass, rubber, porcelain, polypropylene, stainless steel and  
107 polycarbonate in a CDC reactor for 4 days and the mean biomass values for biofilms grown on  
108 each surface type was determined using fluorescent staining and imaging by confocal laser  
109 scanning microscope (Figure 1). We did not anticipate that the rubber surface would absorb the  
110 stain, which made it difficult to distinguish the biomass from the background. Therefore, the  
111 biomass and live/dead ratio data obtained for rubber using microscopy is presented for reference  
112 only and the viable cell count data (which does not rely on microscopy) should be relied upon to  
113 estimate the biofilm biomass on rubber. We report that *A. baumannii* ATCC17978 can readily  
114 form biofilms on polycarbonate. Polycarbonate, a hydrophobic type of plastic, developed  
115 statistically more biofilm mass than glass, rubber, porcelain and polypropylene. We confirmed  
116 these biomass results by estimating the mean CFU cm<sup>-2</sup> for the biofilms grown on each of the  
117 surfaces using a serial dilution method that is independent of CLSM. The mean viable cells on  
118 each surface type is presented in Figure 2 and corroborate the mean biomass values determined  
119 using the confocal microscope. The biofilms growing on polycarbonate had a statistically  
120 significantly higher CFU cm<sup>-2</sup> compared to all other surface types. Our finding of high biofilm

121 formation on polycarbonate is consistent with the finding of Brandao *et al.* who demonstrated  
122 that polycarbonate composite orthodontic brackets sustained the highest level of bacterial  
123 adhesion in the buccal cavity compared to metal and ceramic brackets (Brandao *et al.* 2015).

124  
125 In contrast to polycarbonate, *A. baumannii* cells did not adhere to glass. On glass, which is a  
126 hydrophilic surface, *A. baumannii* weakly formed small, flat aggregates of biofilm. We found no  
127 statistically significant difference in biofilm mass on glass compared to porcelain and  
128 polypropylene, although higher biofilm mass was formed on these surfaces, which could also be  
129 visually seen (Figure 3). This is consistent with several other studies showing that biofilm  
130 formation by *A. baumannii* was less favorable on glass compared to plastic such as polystyrene,  
131 polypropylene and Teflon plastics (Tomaras *et al.* 2003; McQueary and Actis 2011) as well as  
132 polycarbonate (Pour *et al.* 2011). Surface roughness (Ra) measurements for glass, stainless steel  
133 and polycarbonate (only) were available from the supplier (BioSurface Technologies Corp.,  
134 Bozeman, MT), which were 0.425, 20.20 and 50.95  $\mu\text{in}$ , respectively. Recall that the mean  
135 biomass for these three surfaces was 0.043, 2.08 and 2.70 respectively. The increasing surface  
136 roughness and mean biomass, from glass to polycarbonate, suggests a positive trend between  
137 increased biofilm formation and rougher surfaces, although not statistically significant (Pearson  
138 correlation p value = 0.27).

139  
140 We performed biofilm imaging using the CLSM for each material type and select images are  
141 shown in Figure 4. Differences in the formation of biofilm can be visually seen. Biofilms grown  
142 on polypropylene and porcelain displayed a flat architecture. Polycarbonate best supported  
143 biofilm growth followed by stainless steel, as evidenced by the formation of mushroom  
144 structures on these two surfaces (Figure 4). Stainless steel had statistically significantly more  
145 biofilm mass compared to porcelain and glass. We used a brushed stainless steel, which has a  
146 striated surface structure. While the high surface energy of stainless results in a more  
147 hydrophilic surface (Fernandez-Delgado *et al.* 2015), the roughness of the surface increases  
148 surface hydrophobicity (Patankar 2004), which may contribute to the increased adhesiveness of  
149 cells. The surface groves also increase the surface area and enhance microbial colonization.  
150 This may also account for the high live/dead ratio seen for stainless steel (Figure 3) as cells  
151 adhere within the grooves, forming a strong base onto which live cells attach and subsist (Figure  
152 4). A qualitative comparison of microscan images with studies by Nan *et al.* who compared the

153 biofilms of *Staphylococcus aureus* on stainless steel with copper treated stainless steel (Nan *et*  
154 *al.* 2015) and by Fernandez-Delgado *et al.* who evaluated the biofilms of *P. mirabilis* on stainless  
155 steel (Fernandez-Delgado *et al.* 2015) reveals similarity in biofilm development with regard to  
156 this metal.

157

### 158 **Study limitations**

159 We evaluated the biofilm forming ability of a single, clonal species of *A. baumannii*, which  
160 makes it difficult to generalize our results to other microorganisms. Additional studies using  
161 diverse species are needed. Different strains/isolates may have different abilities to form  
162 biofilms on the materials we tested and this will be the subject of future studies to determine if  
163 our conclusions can be generalized to other *A. baumannii* strains/isolates. In addition, biofilms  
164 are known to exist as mixed species in nature and mixtures of colonizing species will influence  
165 bacterial attachment and the formation of biofilms (McEldowney and Fletcher 1987). Therefore,  
166 the level of biofilm we observed may be over or underestimated from what might occur in the  
167 natural environment. In addition to these considerations, this study focused on growing biofilms  
168 under dynamic (versus static) conditions. Dynamic conditions result in less biofilm formation  
169 when compared to static conditions (Tomaras *et al.* 2003). Therefore, our measures of biofilm  
170 mass do not represent biofilm that would form in the open environment lacking shearing stress.  
171 Of note, the hydrophobicity parameters of each substratum were not determined prior to use in  
172 this study, so we cannot definitively correlate differences in biofilm development on the basis of  
173 surface hydrophobicity.

174

### 175 **Summary**

176 We have demonstrated that there are differences in biofilm formation by *A. baumannii*  
177 ATCC17978 across different substrata. Specifically, we found that the formation of biofilm by  
178 *A. baumannii* ATCC17978 readily developed on polycarbonate followed by stainless steel.  
179 Glass was least favorable for biofilm formation. The differences in biofilm formation across  
180 different material types may be due to variations in surface roughness and porosity, ionic charge,  
181 and hydrophobicity and the extent to which the material surface influences attachment and  
182 biofilm formation warrant further investigation. Understanding these differences at the  
183 molecular level will deepen our understanding of how microorganisms are able to colonize and  
184 persist on medical devices, which is important for the development of new materials that will

185 inhibit microbial attachment and reduce biofilm related infections. In this regard, research on  
186 polycarbonate alternatives or on how polycarbonate used in the manufacture of invasive devices  
187 could be treated/modified to inhibit microbial attachment and biofilm formation is warranted.

188

189

## 190 MATERIALS AND METHODS

191 **Bacterial strain and culture conditions:** *Acinetobacter baumannii* ATCC 17978 (American  
192 Type Culture Collection, Manassas, VA) was used for all biofilm tests. A single colony on  
193 Mueller Hinton II (MHII) agar plate was sub-cultured into MHII broth (Becton, Dickinson and  
194 Co., Sparks, MD) and incubated for 15-18h at 37°C, which was then used to create the inoculum  
195 for the biofilm development.

196

197 **Preparation of material coupons:** All material coupons were round discs of one cm in  
198 diameter and approximately 3 mm thick. The following non-porous material coupons were used  
199 to grow *A. baumannii* biofilms: medical grade stainless steel (RD128-304), AHW BUNA-N  
200 Rubber (RD128-BUNA), porcelain (RD128-PL), polycarbonate plastic (RD128-PC),  
201 polypropylene plastic (RD128-PP) and borosilicate glass (RD128-GL) (all material coupons  
202 from BioSurface Technologies, MO). Before use, all material coupons were washed with soap  
203 and water, followed by a 70% ethanol bath, and then autoclaved for sterilization.

204

205 **Biofilm development:** A CDC biofilm reactor (Biosurface Technologies, Bozeman, MT) was  
206 used for the biofilm growth. The CDC biofilm reactor and its coupon holders were autoclaved  
207 before use. Material coupons (3 of each material type) were mounted on the coupon holders and  
208 the reactor was supplemented with 10% LB medium by a peristaltic pump with a continuous  
209 flow rate of 100 mL per h. Overnight cultures of *A. baumannii* ATCC 17978 (grown under  
210 shaking conditions at 37°C) were diluted by 1:100 for an initial concentration of approximately  
211  $4 \times 10^8$  CFU and inoculated into the glass vessel of the CDC reactor aseptically for a final  
212 concentration of approximately  $1 \times 10^6$  CFU/mL. The liquid growth medium was circulated  
213 through the vessel and a magnetic stir bar rotated by a magnetic stir plate generated a shear force.  
214 The CDC biofilm reactor was placed on bench and biofilms were grown at room temperature to  
215 mimic a natural environment. After four days of growth, the coupons were aseptically removed

216 for biofilm imaging and viable bacteria plate counting. Three duplicate CDC biofilm chamber  
217 experiments were performed.

218

219 **Bacterial count determination:** Biofilms on the coupons were recovered by homogenizing the  
220 coupon in 3 mL of 1× phosphate buffered saline (PBS, 10 mM, pH7.2) solution for 1 min using  
221 Omni-Tip™ disposable probes (OMNI International, Kennesaw, GA). Samples were serially  
222 diluted, 50 µl of each dilution were plated onto an MHII agar plate and incubated overnight at  
223 37°C for colony enumeration and the mean colony forming units (CFU) per cm<sup>2</sup> was calculated.

224

225 **Microscope Analysis:** Coupons were used for fluorescent staining and imaging by confocal  
226 laser scanning microscope (CLSM). Coupon with adhered biofilm was stained with LIVE/DEAD  
227 BacLight Bacterial Viability kit (L7012, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) according to manufacturer's  
228 instructions. Fluorescent images were acquired with an inverted CLSM (Olympus 1X71, Center  
229 Valley, PA) equipped with a Fluorescence Illumination System (X-Cite 120, EXFO) and filters  
230 for SYTO-9 (excitation = 488 nm/emission = 520 nm) and propidium iodide (excitation = 535  
231 nm/emission = 617 nm). Images were obtained using an oil immersion 60× objective lens and  
232 for each location, images were scanned at 1µm intervals. After acquiring images, a 3-D image  
233 was re-constructed by using IMARIS 7.3.1 software. Five different surface areas of each  
234 material coupon were randomly chosen for imaging in order to better represent biofilms. Biofilm  
235 biomass was calculated based on microscopic images using Comstat 2 (Heydorn *et al.* 2000;  
236 Vorregaard 2008). The surface of the rubber absorbed the live/dead stain making it difficult to  
237 differentiate the biomass from the background. Therefore, data on the biomass and live/dead  
238 ratio obtained for rubber using microscopy was presented for reference only and the viable cell  
239 count data (which does not rely on microscopy) is reliable to determine biofilm biomass  
240 developed on the rubber.

241

242 **Statistical Analysis:** Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 6 for Windows  
243 (Version 6.01, Graph Pad Software, Inc., La Jolla, CA). Statistical significance was assessed  
244 using one-way ANOVA with multiple comparisons using t-test and a significance level of  
245 0.05.

246

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252 the images.

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#### 254 **Potential conflicts of interest**

255 All authors report no conflicts of interest.

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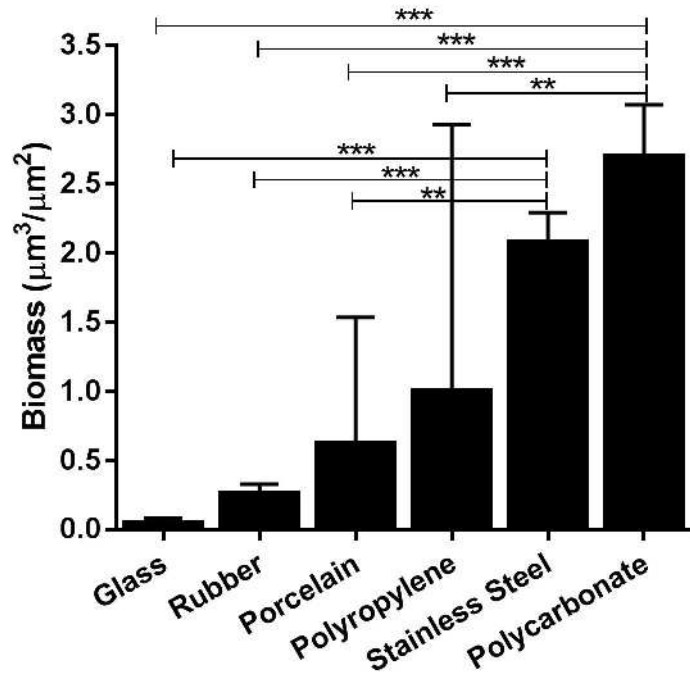
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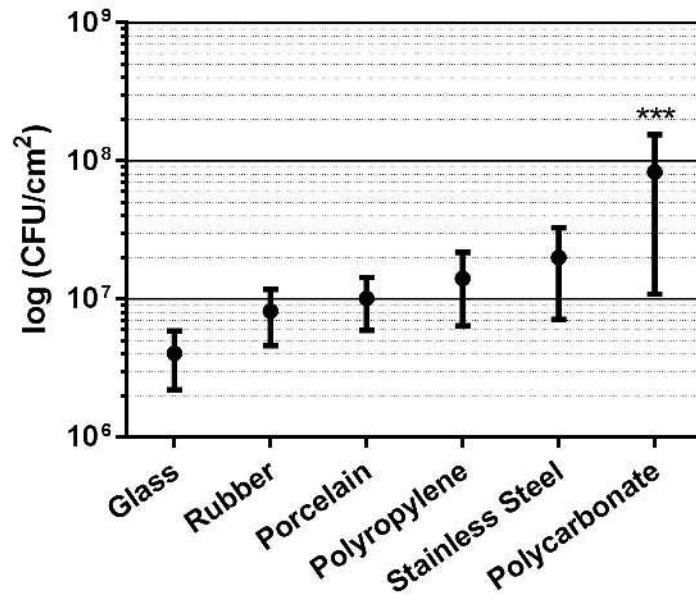
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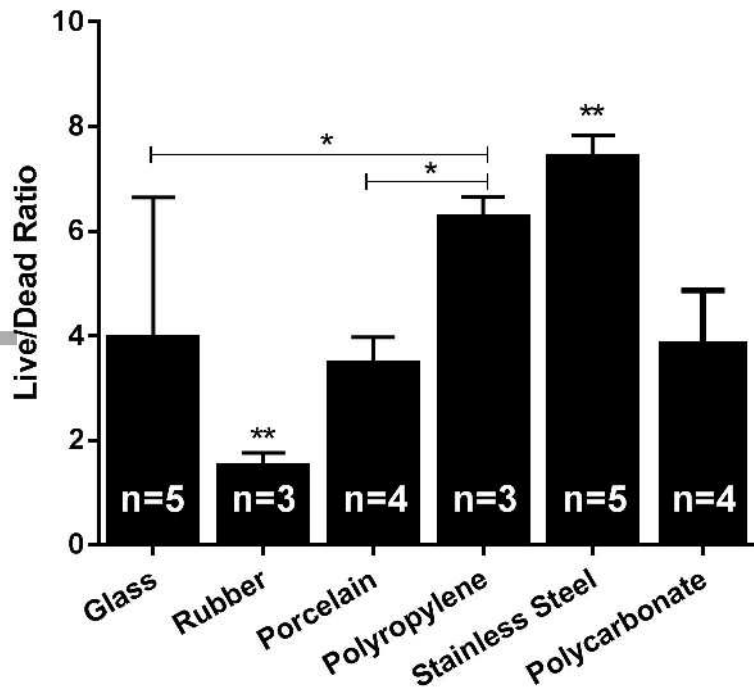
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