

Light-excited antibiotics for potentiating bacterial killing via reactive oxygen species generation

Qi Jiang, Fangjie E, Jingxiao Tian, Jiangtao Yang, Jianguan Zhang, and Yongqiang Cheng

ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces, **Just Accepted Manuscript** • DOI: 10.1021/acsami.0c02647 • Publication Date (Web): 23 Mar 2020

Downloaded from pubs.acs.org on March 23, 2020

Just Accepted

“Just Accepted” manuscripts have been peer-reviewed and accepted for publication. They are posted online prior to technical editing, formatting for publication and author proofing. The American Chemical Society provides “Just Accepted” as a service to the research community to expedite the dissemination of scientific material as soon as possible after acceptance. “Just Accepted” manuscripts appear in full in PDF format accompanied by an HTML abstract. “Just Accepted” manuscripts have been fully peer reviewed, but should not be considered the official version of record. They are citable by the Digital Object Identifier (DOI®). “Just Accepted” is an optional service offered to authors. Therefore, the “Just Accepted” Web site may not include all articles that will be published in the journal. After a manuscript is technically edited and formatted, it will be removed from the “Just Accepted” Web site and published as an ASAP article. Note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the manuscript text and/or graphics which could affect content, and all legal disclaimers and ethical guidelines that apply to the journal pertain. ACS cannot be held responsible for errors or consequences arising from the use of information contained in these “Just Accepted” manuscripts.

Light-excited antibiotics for potentiating bacterial killing via reactive oxygen species generation

Qi Jiang, Fangjie E, Jingxiao Tian, Jiangtao Yang, Jiangyan Zhang, and Yongqiang*

*Cheng**

Key Laboratory of Medicinal Chemistry and Molecular Diagnosis, Ministry of Education,

Key Laboratory of Analytical Science and Technology of Hebei Province, College of

Chemistry and Environmental Science, Hebei University, Baoding 071002, Hebei, P. R.

China.

KEYWORDS: light irradiation, antibiotics, photodynamic antibacterium, reactive oxygen species, photosensitizer

ABSTRACT: The irrational or excessive use of antibiotics causes the emergence of bacterial resistance, making antibiotics less effective or ineffective. As resistant antibiotics increase, it is crucial to develop new strategy and innovative approaches to

1
2
3
4 potentiate the efficacy of existing antibiotics. In this paper, we report that some existing
5
6
7 antibiotics can produce reactive oxygen species (ROS) directly under light irradiation.
8
9
10 Thus, a novel antibacterial photodynamic therapy (PDT) strategy is proposed by using
11
12
13 the existing antibiotics whose activities are potentiated via light-activation. This
14
15
16 antibiotic-based PDT strategy can achieve the efficient bacteria killing with low dosage
17
18
19 of antibiotics, indicating that bacterial killing can be enhanced by the light irradiated
20
21
22 antibiotics. Moreover, the specific types of ROS produced by different antibiotics under
23
24
25 light irradiation were studied for better elucidation of the antibacterial mechanism. The
26
27
28 findings can extend the application of the existing antibiotics and provides a promising
29
30
31 strategy for treatment of bacterial infections, and even cancers.
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Introduction

1
2
3 Since the discovery of penicillin in 1929, antibiotics have been widely used in the
4
5
6
7 treatment of infectious diseases, helping humans to reduce the threat of bacterial
8
9
10 infections.¹ However, the irrational or excessive use of antibiotics has given rise to a
11
12
13 large number of drug-resistant bacteria such as methicillin-resistant *staphylococcus*
14
15
16
17 *aureus* (MRSA), vancomycin-resistant *Enterococcus* (VRE), and multidrug-resistant *A.*
18
19
20 *baumannii* (MRAB).²⁻⁵ The emergence of bacterial resistance causes antibiotics to
21
22
23 become less effective or ineffective against drug resistant pathogens. Antibiotic
24
25
26
27 resistance has become a grave and growing public health problem, and poses a serious
28
29
30 threat to human health. Especially, the emergence and the rapid spread of drug-
31
32
33
34 resistant bacteria make common infections difficult to be cured with the existing
35
36
37 antimicrobial drugs. Eventually, there will be no appropriate drugs to treat an even
38
39
40
41 common disease and minor injuries.⁶⁻⁸
42
43
44
45

46 To date, although antimicrobial materials and new antimicrobial strategies have been
47
48
49 studied to kill bacteria,⁹⁻¹³ antibiotics remain the most commonly used antimicrobial
50
51
52
53 drugs in clinical practice. Scientists around the world are trying to develop the new
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 antibiotics, which is the most fundamental way to overcome current antibiotic
4
5
6
7 resistance.¹⁴ However, because the synthesis and clinical trials of new antibiotics take a
8
9
10 long time, the development of new antibiotics lags far behind the production rate of
11
12
13 drug-resistant bacteria.^{8,14} In contrast, the existing antibiotics have the advantages of
14
15
16 large quantity, low cost, and clear antimicrobial mechanism, although the efficacy of
17
18
19 some existing antibiotics has gradually declined with the development of drug-resistant
20
21
22 bacteria.^{15,16} Therefore, the development of new methods and strategies to potentiate
23
24
25 the efficacy of existing antibiotics have attracted much attention.¹⁷⁻¹⁹
26
27
28
29
30
31

32 Reactive oxygen species (ROS) are a group of active molecules containing oxygen,
33
34
35 including hydroxyl radicals ($\bullet\text{OH}$), superoxide radical ($\bullet\text{O}_2^-$), and singlet oxygen ($^1\text{O}_2$),
36
37
38 etc. Depending on photosensitizers or materials to produce ROS under appropriate light
39
40
41 irradiation, photodynamic therapy (PDT) strategy was demonstrated to carry out
42
43
44 bacteria killing.²⁰⁻²⁴ The ROS produced by light irradiation can rapidly damage nearly all
45
46
47 types of biomolecules such as proteins, lipids, and nucleic acids, resulting in bacterial
48
49
50 death. Therefore, PDT has the rapid and broad-spectrum antimicrobial properties and is
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 usually not easy to produce resistance in bacteria.^{25,26} Furthermore, studies have shown
4
5
6
7 that different kinds of antibiotics can kill bacteria not only through their specific
8
9
10 mechanisms of action, but also through the activation of cell metabolisms or the
11
12
13 synergistic interaction between antibiotic and materials to produce ROS.²⁷⁻³⁰ Courtney
14
15
16 et al reported that a light-activated quantum dot (QD) nanoparticle could produce
17
18
19 specific ROS, superoxide, and potentiated the activity of antibiotics in drug-resistant
20
21
22 clinical isolates.³⁰ However, the QD nanoparticles are usually limited in wide application
23
24
25 due to their inherent toxicity and poor biocompatibility. It was reported that ROS could
26
27
28 be produced directly by tetracycline antibiotics under light irradiation with ultraviolet light
29
30
31 (360 nm) or blue light (415 nm).^{31,32} The tetracycline antibiotics acted as
32
33
34 photosensitizers to perform antimicrobial PDT and potentiate the bacterial killing. Thus,
35
36
37 the light irradiation provides an important way to improve the antibacterial ability of
38
39
40 antibiotics. However, other antibiotics with photodynamic activity are rarely reported
41
42
43 among the existing antibiotics.
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 Herein, we demonstrate that some existing antibiotics can directly produce ROS under
5
6
7 light irradiation to achieve the antibacterial PDT. Although the bacteria can resist the
8
9
10 common antibiotics with non-lethal dose, the antibacterial activity of these antibiotics
11
12
13 can be enhanced under light irradiation through ROS generation, leading to the
14
15
16 enhancement of the bacteria killing. This PDT approach reduces the therapeutic dose of
17
18
19 these antibiotics, thereby reducing the emergence of resistance. This antibiotic-based
20
21
22 antibacterial PDT strategy differs fundamentally from previously described antibacterial
23
24
25 technology in several respects. First, the antibiotic used as photosensitizer for
26
27
28 antibacterial PDT is simple, cost-effective, and easy to be obtained from commercial
29
30
31 channels. Combination of their inherent antimicrobial mechanism and photodynamic
32
33
34 activity, the resistant antibiotics can be revived with their enhanced antibacterial activity.
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42 Second, the visible light source used in the light-excited antibiotics further reduces the
43
44
45 risk of bacterial damage caused by the light itself as compared with ultraviolet and blue
46
47
48 light sources. Third, since the toxicological and pharmacological properties of existing
49
50
51 antibiotics have been clearly studied, the development of antibiotic-based antibacterial
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

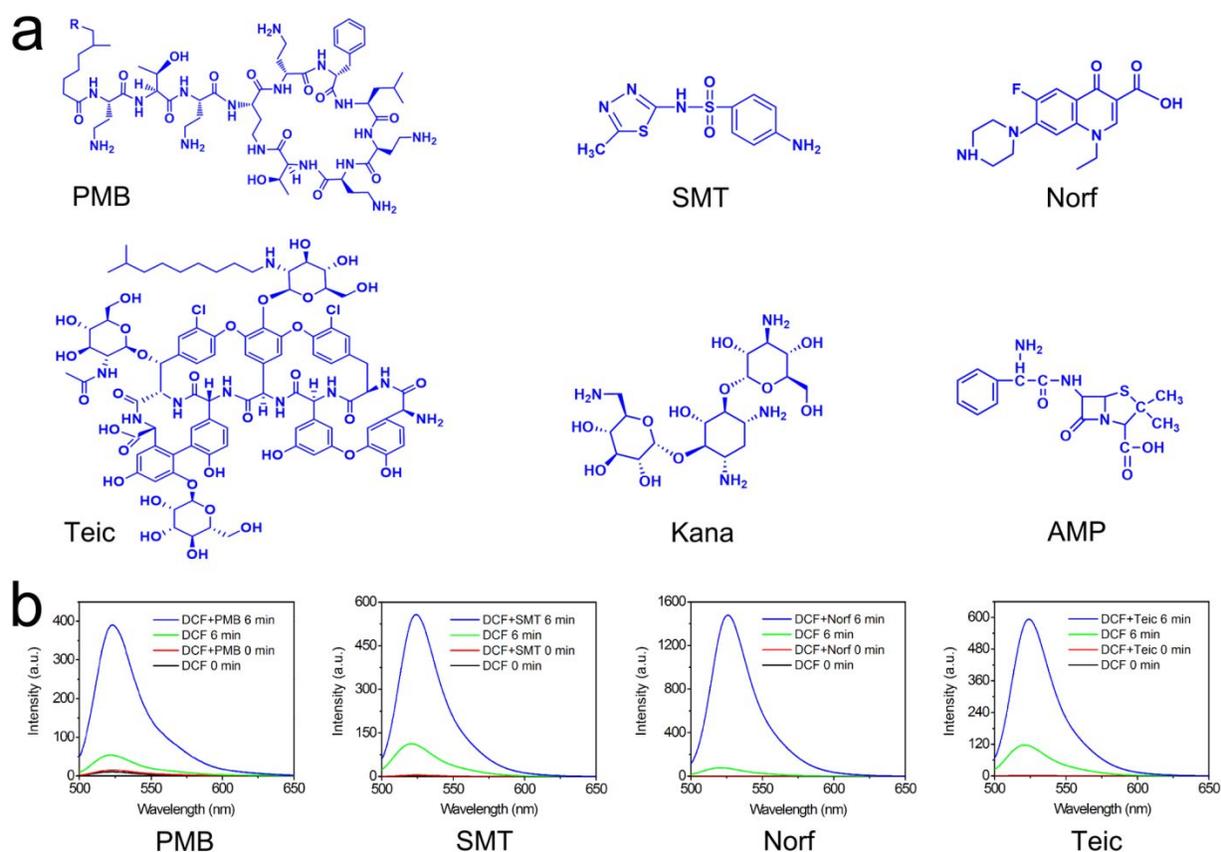
1
2
3 PDT can provide a rapid, efficient, and biocompatible way for potentiating bacterial
4
5
6
7 killing.
8
9

10 11 **Results and discussion**

12 13 14 **The ability of different antibiotics to produce ROS**

15
16
17
18 We investigated the ROS-generating ability of six types of antibiotics, including
19
20
21 polypeptide (polymyxin B, PMB), sulfonamide (sulfamethizole, SMT), fluoroquinolone
22
23
24 (norfloxacin, Norf), glycopeptide teicoplanin (Teic), beta-lactam (ampicillin, AMP), and
25
26
27 aminoglycoside (kanamycin, Kana). The structures of these antibiotics were shown in
28
29
30
31
32 Figure 1a. A fluorescence dye 2',7'-dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate (DCFDA),
33
34
35 which is non-fluorescent and become fluorescent 2',7'-dichlorodihydrofluorescein (DCF)
36
37
38 nonspecifically in the presence of a variety of ROS,³³ was used to measure the total
39
40
41
42
43 ROS produced by antibiotics. As shown in Figure 1b, there are weak fluorescence
44
45
46 responses of DCF with the antibiotics without light irradiation. However, the strong
47
48
49 fluorescence peaks of DCF at 525 nm are obviously observed from the four antibiotics
50
51
52
53 PMB, SMT, Norf, and Teic solution under light irradiation. These results indicate that the
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 four antibiotics can produce ROS under light irradiation, which provides the potential for
5
6
7 enhancing the antibacterial activity. For Kana and AMP with DCFDA, there are no
8
9
10 apparent fluorescence enhancements under light irradiation (Figure S1a, S1b). These
11
12
13 results indicate that Kana and AMP cannot produce ROS and their antibacterial
14
15
16 activities cannot be enhanced under light irradiation so they are not suitable for
17
18
19
20
21 antibacterial PDT.
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

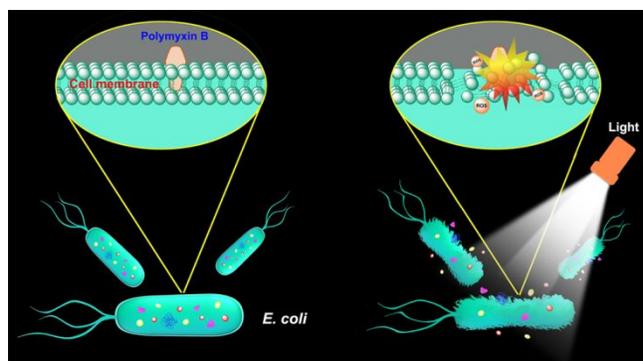


32 **Figure 1.** The structures of the antibiotics and total ROS detection. (a) Summary of the
33 structures of the used antibiotics. (b) Detection of ROS from different antibiotics by
34 fluorescence dye DCFDA.
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43

44 Light irradiated antibiotics for enhancing the killing of gram-negative bacterium

45
46
47 To test the antibacterial effect of the light-excited antibiotics, we selected antibiotic
48 PMB and a gram-negative bacterium, *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*, BL21) with kanamycin
49 resistance (*kana^r E. coli*) as research model. Before studying the killing effect of PMB,
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 we demonstrated that Kana has no effect on the viability of kana^r *E. coli* either in the
4
5
6
7 dark or in the light because the *E. coli* used is resistant to Kana and it can not to
8
9
10 produce ROS (Figure S2a). PMB as a polypeptide antibiotic primarily binds to the gram-
11
12
13
14 negative bacteria through electrostatic interactions and usually achieves the bacterial
15
16
17 killing by altering the permeability of bacterial outer membrane.³⁴ In this work, light
18
19
20 irradiated PMB is tested to potentiate the bacterial killing. We first used DCFDA staining
21
22
23
24 to study intracellular ROS production in PMB-treated kana^r *E. coli* by confocal laser
25
26
27
28 scanning microscope (CLSM) imaging. As shown in Figure 2a, there is almost no green
29
30
31 fluorescence from DCF in kana^r *E. coli* under light irradiation in the absence of PMB. In
32
33
34
35 contrast, the distinct green fluorescence from DCF is observed in kana^r *E. coli* treated
36
37
38 with PMB under light irradiation, suggesting that ROS can be produced from PMB
39
40
41
42 bound to kana^r *E. coli*.
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



Scheme 1. Schematic illustration of light excited antibiotic PMB producing ROS to potentiate the kana^r *E. coli* killing.

A schematic illustration of light excited PMB for enhancing the killing of kana^r *E. coli* is shown in Scheme 1. PMB with non-lethal dose has little damage on the kana^r *E. coli* without light irradiation. The PMB, however, produces ROS under light irradiation, which can kill the kana^r *E. coli*. Figure 2b shows the bacterial viability of kana^r *E. coli* treated by PMB without and with light irradiation, respectively. The viability of kana^r *E. coli* declined slightly with the concentration of PMB from 1 to 4 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ and decreased observably from 4 to 8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ in the dark. The 90% inhibitory concentration (IC90) of PMB against kana^r *E. coli* was acquired as 7.8

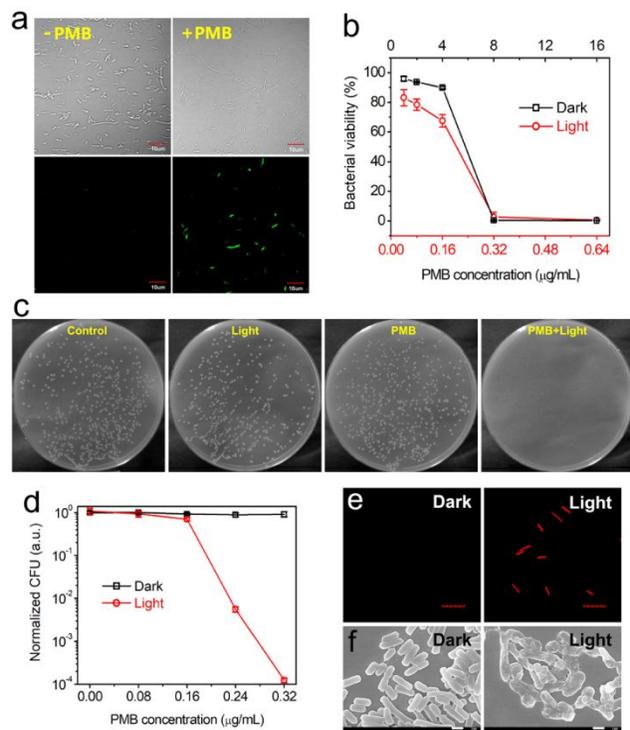


Figure 2. Potentiating antibiotic in killing of gram-negative bacterium *kana^r E. coli* via light irradiation. (a) Intracellular detection of ROS production using DCFDA staining. (b) The viability of *kana^r E. coli* treated with PMB in the dark (top axis) and in the light (bottom axis). Error bars represent standard deviation from three repeated measurements. (c) Plate photographs for *kana^r E. coli* diluted by the same times after treatment without light (Control), with light, PMB alone, and PMB+light, and respectively. PMB: 0.32 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$. (d) The CFU values of *kana^r E. coli* treated by PMB in the dark and in the light. Light irradiation with 50 mW/cm^2 for 40 min. (e) CLSM and (f) SEM images of

1
2
3 bactericidal effect of PMB against kana^r *E. coli* treated with 0.64 μg/mL PMB in the dark
4
5
6
7 and in the light. Light irradiation with 40 mW/cm² for 40 min. Scale bar: 10 μm in CLSM
8
9
10 images and 1 μm in SEM images.

11
12
13
14 μg/mL in the dark (Figure 2b, Table S1). By comparison, the viability of kana^r *E. coli*
15
16
17 reduced significantly with the concentration of PMB from 0.04 to 0.32 μg/mL under light
18
19
20
21 irradiation (Figure 2b, Table S1). The optimal light irradiation time and light intensity for
22
23
24 the light-activated PMB to kill kana^r *E. coli* were shown in Figure S3. The IC₉₀ value of
25
26
27 PMB against kana^r *E. coli* was reduced to 0.3 μg/mL in the light, which was 26 times
28
29
30
31 lower than that of 7.8 μg/mL in the dark. These results indicate that the antibacterial
32
33
34 activity of PMB can be obviously potentiated through light-activation.
35
36
37

38
39 To verify the enhanced antibacterial activity of light-excited PMB, we utilized the
40
41
42 colony-forming units (CFU) counting method to investigate the antibacterial efficacy of
43
44
45 PMB. As can be seen from Figure 2c, the survival rates of kana^r *E. coli* treated with light
46
47
48 irradiation only (Figure 2c, Light) or low-dose PMB alone (Figure 2c, PMB) are not
49
50
51 significantly different from those treated without any treatment (Figure 2c, Control).
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 However, when the same low dose of PMB is used to treat the *kana^r E. coli* with light
5
6
7 irradiation (Figure 2c, PMB+Light), the survival rate of *E. coli* reduces to nearly 1%.

8
9
10 Figure 2d shows that the CFU value of *kana^r E. coli* treated by PMB with 0.32 $\mu\text{g/mL}$
11
12
13
14 decreases 3.7 orders of magnitude in the light compared to in the dark, indicating that
15
16
17 the light-excited PMB can further damage the bacterial cells and enhance the bacteria
18
19
20
21 killing.

22
23
24 To evaluate the antibacterial effect of light-activated PMB, CLSM imaging was used to
25
26
27 directly observe the antibacterial effect of PMB against the *kana^r E. coli* treated with or
28
29
30 without light irradiation. As shown in Figure 2e, when *E. coli* is treated with PMB in dark,
31
32
33
34 there is no red fluorescence emission of propidium iodide (PI), which is a DNA stain to
35
36
37 evaluate cell viability. The result can be attributed to the fact that the *kana^r E. coli* resists
38
39
40
41 the low dosage of PMB (0.64 $\mu\text{g/mL}$), which is not sufficient to kill the *kana^r E. coli*.
42
43
44
45 However, for the *kana^r E. coli* treated with PMB and light irradiation together (Figure 2e),
46
47
48
49 the red fluorescence of PI is observed in fluorescence field. This is because that PMB
50
51
52 binds to the cell membrane of *E. coli* through the electrostatic interaction and produces
53
54
55
56 ROS under light irradiation, leading to the bacteria death. Moreover, scanning electron
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 microscope (SEM) was used to study the microscopic structure of *E. coli* for
4
5
6
7 investigating the bactericidal effect. As shown in Figure 2f, SEM imaging shows that the
8
9
10 morphology and membrane structure of *E. coli* are unbroken for the *E. coli* treated with
11
12
13 PMB in dark, because the dosage of PMB with 0.64 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ is extremely low and a non-
14
15
16 lethal dose. By contrast, the *E. coli* treated with both PMB and light irradiation is
17
18
19 ruptured and collapsed, indicating that the *E. coli* has been killed owing to the leakage
20
21
22 of intracellular contents. The microscopic characteristics of *E. coli* observed by SEM
23
24
25 further confirm that the light-excited PMB can greatly damage the cell membrane and
26
27
28 improve its antibacterial activity against kana^r *E. coli*, which is consistent with the result
29
30
31
32
33
34
35 of CLSM.
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

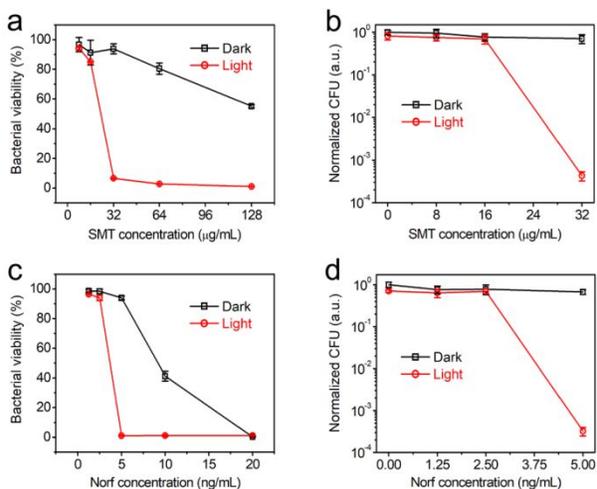


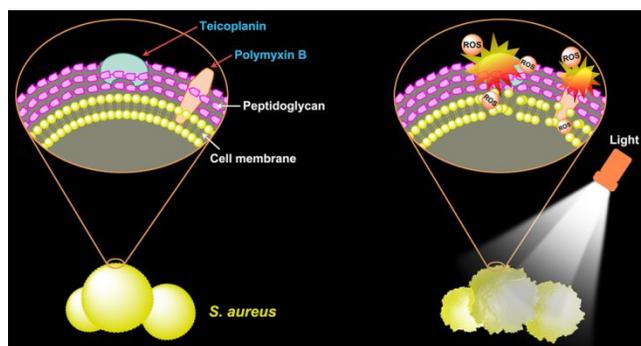
Figure 3. Potentiating SMT and Norf in killing of gram-negative bacterium *kana^r E. coli* via light irradiation. The viability of *kana^r E. coli* treated with SMT (a) and Norf (c) in the dark and in the light, respectively. (b) The CFU values of *kana^r E. coli* treated with SMT (b) and Norf (d) in the dark and in the light, respectively. Light irradiation with 50 mW/cm² for 40 min. Error bars represent standard deviation from three repeated measurements.

To further verify the potentiation of other light-activated antibiotics, we investigated the other three types of antibiotics, including SMT, Norf, and AMP that were usually used against gram-negative bacteria. SMT usually interferes with folate metabolism, resulting in bacteria death.³⁵ However, as shown in Figure 3a, the low concentration of SMT with

1
2
3 non-lethal dose cannot kill the kana^r *E. coli* in the dark (black curve). SMT can induce
4
5
6
7 the killing of the kana^r *E. coli* by producing ROS under light irradiation (red curve). When
8
9
10 the concentration of SMT increases from 8 to 128 μg/mL without light irradiation, the
11
12
13 corresponding viability of kana^r *E. coli* slightly decreases from 96.7% to 55.1%. In
14
15
16
17 contrast, the viability of kana^r *E. coli* under light irradiation is gradually reduced from
18
19
20
21 94.1% to 6.6% with the increasing of the concentration of the SMT from 8 to 32 μg/mL.
22
23
24 The IC90 value of SMT against kana^r *E. coli* is reduced from >128 to 31.5 μg/mL
25
26
27 (Figure 3a, Table S1). The CFU value of kana^r *E. coli* treated by SMT with 32 μg/mL
28
29
30
31 decreases by 3.2 orders of magnitude in the light compared to in the dark (Figure 3b),
32
33
34 indicating that the killing efficiency of SMT in the light enhances remarkably as
35
36
37 compared with in the dark. Similarly, although quinolone antibiotic Norf can bind to
38
39
40
41 topoisomerase and interfere with the DNA synthesis,^{35,36} it is not enough to kill bacteria
42
43
44
45 with low dosage (Figure 3c). The enhanced antibacterial activity of Norf against kana^r *E.*
46
47
48
49 *coli* is acquired under light irradiation as compared with those of Norf without light
50
51
52 irradiation (Figure 3c, 3d). Accordingly, the IC90 value of Norf against kana^r *E. coli* is
53
54
55
56 reduced from 17.6 to 4.8 ng/mL (Figure 3c, Table S1). The CFU value of kana^r *E. coli*
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 treated by Norf with 5 ng/mL decreases by 3.3 orders of magnitude in the light
4
5
6 compared to in the dark (Figure 3d). These results show that the light-activation can
7
8
9
10 potentiate the antibacterial activity of SMT and Norf for killing *E. coli*. However, the beta-
11
12
13 lactam antibiotic AMP with different concentrations has almost the same effect on the
14
15
16
17 viability of *kana^r E. coli* with and without light irradiation (Figure S2d). The result
18
19
20 indicates that light-activation has no effect on the antibacterial activity of AMP against *E.*
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Light irradiated antibiotics for enhancing the killing of gram-positive bacterium

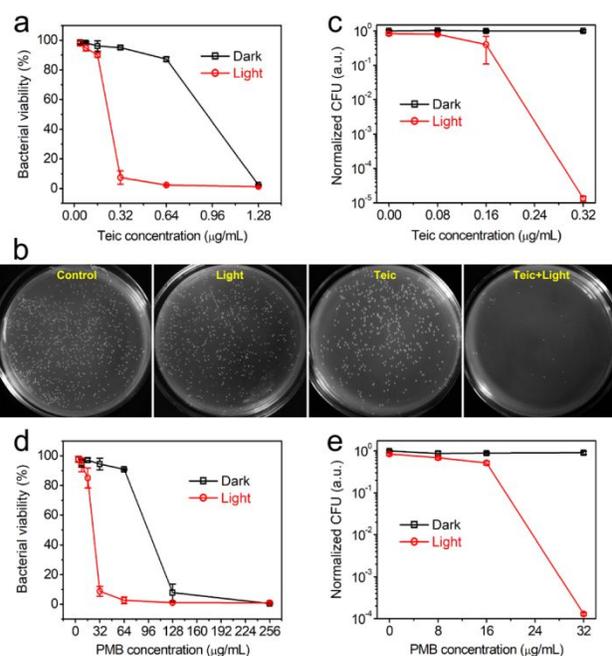


47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Scheme 2. Schematic illustration of the photoexcited Teic and PMB producing ROS to potentiate the *S. aureus* killing.

1
2
3
4 In order to further test the potentiation of light-activated antibiotics, we selected a
5
6
7 gram-positive bacterium *Staphylococcus aureus* (*S. aureus*) and glycopeptide antibiotic
8
9
10 Teic to investigate the photodynamic killing of *S. aureus*. Generally, Teic inhibits
11
12
13 peptidoglycan synthesis by binding the D-alanyl-D-alanine dipeptide in bacterial
14
15
16 membrane and blocking transglycosylase activity for killing of bacteria.³⁷ The schematic
17
18
19 diagram of antibacterial PDT mechanism of Teic against *S. aureus* is shown in Scheme
20
21
22
23
24 2. Teic bound to *S. aureus* with low concentration is not enough to kill *S. aureus*. The *S.*
25
26
27 *aureus*, however, may be killed by ROS produced by Teic under light irradiation. As can
28
29
30
31 be seen from Figure 4a, the IC₉₀ value of Teic against *S. aureus* treated with light
32
33
34 irradiation is 0.31 μg/mL, which is 3.9 times lower than that of 1.22 μg/mL treated
35
36
37 without light irradiation. Figure 4b is the CFU counting method to evaluate the
38
39
40 photodynamic bactericidal efficacy of Teic. The CFU counting result of *S. aureus* treated
41
42
43 with light irradiation only (Figure 4b, Light) or Teic alone (Figure 4b, Teic) is almost the
44
45
46 same as that of *S. aureus* without any treatment (Figure 4b, Control), which indicate that
47
48
49 the light irradiation only or low dose of Teic alone can hardly kill the *S. aureus*. By
50
51
52
53 contrast, the low doses of Teic are nearly 98% effective in killing *S. aureus* under light
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 irradiation (Figure 4b, Teic + Light). Figure 4c shows that the killing efficiency of Teic
4
5
6
7 with 0.32 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ against *S. aureus* was 4.9 orders of magnitude higher in the light than
8
9
10
11 in the dark, demonstrating that the bactericidal activity of Teic against gram-positive
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Figure 4. Potentiating antibiotics in killing of gram-positive bacterium *S. aureus* via light irradiation. The viability of *S. aureus* treated with Teic (a) and PMB (d) in the dark and in the light, respectively. Error bars represent standard deviation from three repeated measurements. (b) Plate photographs for *S. aureus* diluted by the same times after treatment without light (Control), with light, Teic alone, and Teic+light, and respectively.

1
2
3 Teic concentration: 0.32 $\mu\text{g/mL}$. The CFU values of *S. aureus* treated by Teic (c) and
4
5
6
7 PMB (e) in the dark and in the light, respectively. Light irradiation with 40 mW/cm^2 for 40
8
9
10 min.

11
12
13
14
15 Commonly, narrow-spectrum antibiotics are effective only against specific classes of
16
17
18 target pathogens.³⁸ Among them, PMB is mainly suitable for gram-negative bacteria
19
20
21 owing to its ability for specifically binding to the cell membrane. PMB is not normally
22
23
24 used to treat gram-positive bacteria because the cell walls of gram-positive bacteria with
25
26
27 peptidoglycan are too thick to bind with PMB easily. However, the photodynamic
28
29
30 antibacterial activity of PMB inspired us to study the light-activated PMB against gram-
31
32
33 positive bacterium. The mechanism of the light-activated PMB for the killing of *S. aureus*
34
35
36 is shown in Scheme 2. Despite a small amount of PMB that binds to *S. aureus* cannot
37
38
39 damage the *S. aureus* in the dark, it can achieve the killing of *S. aureus* by producing
40
41
42 ROS with light irradiation. As shown in Figure 4d and 4e, the killing effect of PMB on *S.*
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
aureus is significantly higher under light irradiation than without light irradiation. The
IC90 value of PMB against *S. aureus* is reduced from 125.5 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ without light

1
2
3 irradiation to 31.0 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ with light irradiation (Figure 4d, Table S1). The killing efficiency
4
5
6
7 of PMB against *S. aureus* improves by 3.9 orders of magnitude in the light as compared
8
9
10 with in the dark (Figure 4e). These results indicate that the antibacterial activity of PMB
11
12
13 against *S. aureus* can be enhanced by ROS produced by PMB under light irradiation,
14
15
16
17 which provides a possibility for the colistin antibiotics against gram-positive bacteria. At
18
19
20 the same time, it also shows that the antibiotic-based PDT can expand the application
21
22
23
24 of antibiotics.
25
26
27

28 **Specific ROS characterization by fluorescent indicators and EPR spectrum**

29
30

31 In antimicrobial PDT, the ROS that play a bactericidal role mainly involve three types,
32
33
34 including $\bullet\text{OH}$, $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$, and $^1\text{O}_2$.²¹ To better understand the PDT mechanism of the light-
35
36
37 excited antibiotics, we systematically investigated the ability of PMB, SMT, Norf, and
38
39
40 Teic to produce the specific type of ROS, including $\bullet\text{OH}$, $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$, or $^1\text{O}_2$. These specific
41
42
43 ROS were measured by using specific ROS fluorescence dyes and electron
44
45
46 paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectrum, respectively.
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

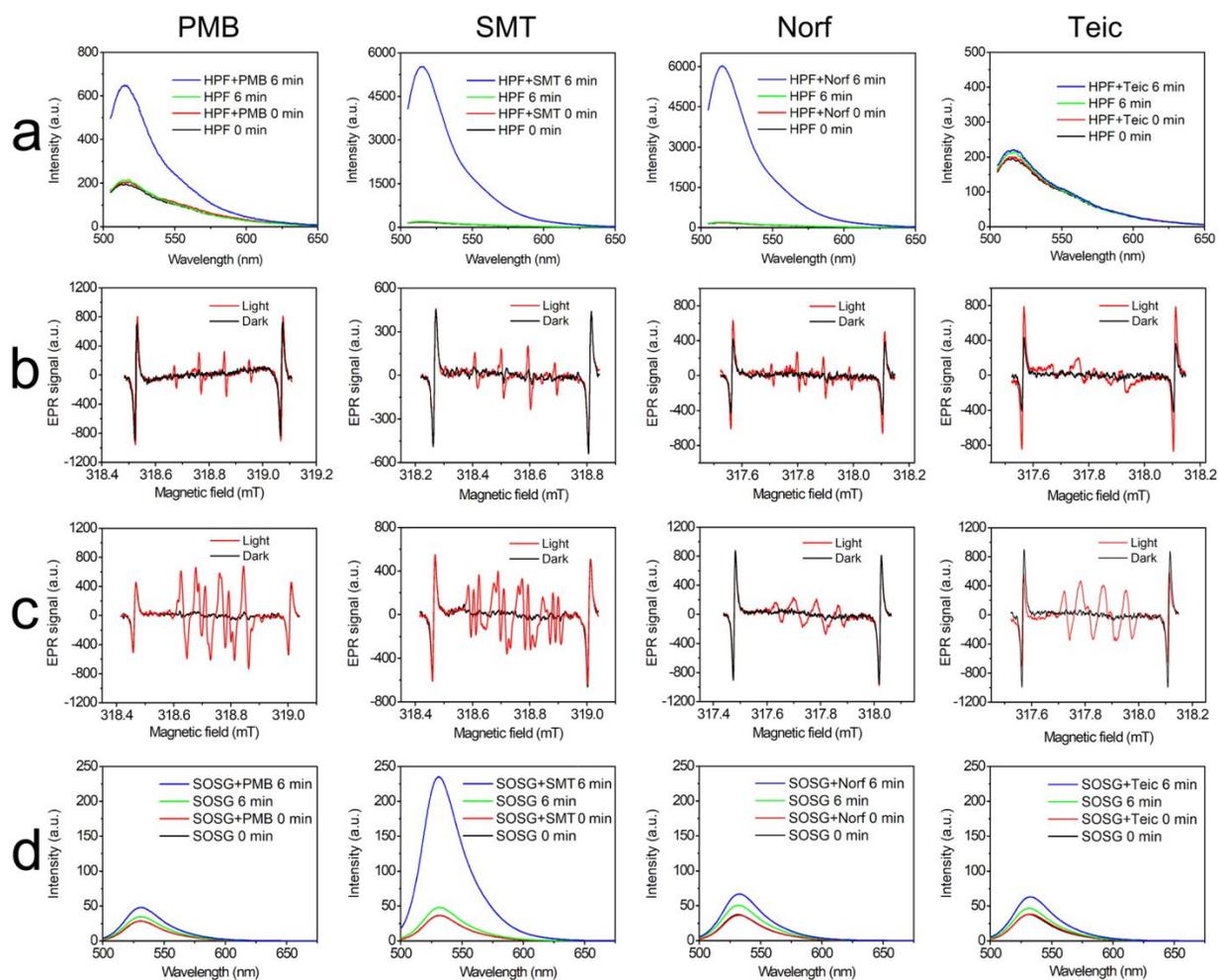


Figure 5. Detection of the specific type of ROS. (a) Detection of $\bullet\text{OH}$ from different antibiotics by fluorescence dye HPF. EPR spectra of (b) DMPO- $\bullet\text{OH}$ adducts and (c) DMPO- $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ adducts. (d) Detection of $^1\text{O}_2$ from different antibiotics by fluorescence dye SOSG.

A specific fluorescence dye 3'-(p-hydroxyphenyl) fluorescein (HPF) was used to detect $\bullet\text{OH}$.³⁹ As shown in Figure 5a, the fluorescent signals are weak in the solution of

1
2
3 the four antibiotics with HPF in the dark. In contrast, the strong fluorescent signals are
4
5
6
7 observed in the solution of three antibiotics PMB, SMT, and Norf with HPF under light
8
9
10 irradiation. Because HPF itself is non-fluorescent and emits fluorescence through
11
12
13 interaction with $\bullet\text{OH}$ specifically, we infer that these three antibiotics produce the $\bullet\text{OH}$
14
15
16 under light irradiation. However, the fluorescence signal of HPF with Teic is weak with
17
18
19 irradiation, suggesting that the ability of Teic to produce $\bullet\text{OH}$ under light irradiation is
20
21
22 poor. Moreover, the $\bullet\text{OH}$ was further characterized by using EPR spectra with 5,5-
23
24
25 Dimethyl-1-pyrroline-n-oxide (DMPO) as the trapping reagent.⁴⁰ As shown in Figure 5b,
26
27
28 four-line EPR characteristic signal of DMPO- $\bullet\text{OH}$ spin adduct of the antibiotics PMB,
29
30
31 SMT, and Norf are clearly observed in the EPR spectra. The intensity ratios of the four-
32
33
34 line signal are 1: 2: 2: 1, indicating that $\bullet\text{OH}$ is generated in the antibiotics solutions
35
36
37 under light irradiation. For Teic, there is no evident EPR characteristic signals from $\bullet\text{OH}$
38
39
40 in the EPR spectra, suggesting that Teic has the poor ability to produce $\bullet\text{OH}$ under light
41
42
43 irradiation. These detection results of $\bullet\text{OH}$ by EPR are consistent with those of
44
45
46 fluorescence detection by HPF.
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 The $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ production of the four antibiotics under light irradiation was detected by using
5
6
7 the EPR spectrum.⁴⁰ As shown in Figure 5c, Teic with light irradiation has the EPR
8
9
10 characteristic signal of DMPO- $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ spin adduct with intensity ratios of 1:1:1:1, indicating
11
12
13 that Teic can produce $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ under light irradiation. For Norf, the EPR characteristic signal
14
15
16 from $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ is weak and can be ignored compared with that from $\bullet\text{OH}$ of Norf. For PMB
17
18
19 and SMT, no the characteristic peaks of $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ are observed in their EPR spectra,
20
21
22 suggesting their poor ability of producing $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ under light irradiation.
23
24
25
26
27

28 Singlet Oxygen Sensor Green (SOSG) reagent is highly selective for $^1\text{O}_2$ and does not
29
30
31 show any appreciable response to $\bullet\text{OH}$ or $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ under light irradiation.⁴¹ As shown in
32
33
34 Figure 5d, the fluorescence signal of SOSG with SMT under light irradiation is
35
36
37 remarkably higher than that of without light irradiation or SOSG itself, indicating that
38
39
40 SMT can produce strong $^1\text{O}_2$ under light irradiation. For PMB, Norf, and Teic, the
41
42
43 fluorescence intensities of SOSG with them under light irradiation increase slightly as
44
45
46 compared with those of without light irradiation, indicating that the three antibiotics
47
48
49 possess poor ability to produce $^1\text{O}_2$ under light irradiation.
50
51
52
53
54
55

56 **Table 1.** Summary of the specific types of ROS produced by antibiotics
57
58
59
60

ROS	Antibiotics			
	PMB	SMT	Norf	Teic
$\bullet\text{OH}$	+	+	+	-
$\bullet\text{O}_2^-$	-	-	-	+
$^1\text{O}_2$	-	+	-	-

Note. “+” and “-” indicate the positive and negative activity, respectively.

The specific types of ROS under light irradiation were summarized in Table 1. The results indicate that different types of antibiotics with PDT activity can produce different types of ROS, such as $\bullet\text{OH}$, $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$, and $^1\text{O}_2$, under light irradiation. We conclude that the antibacterial activity of the light-activated PMB and Norf may mainly be attributed to the $\bullet\text{OH}$ production. SMT performs the photodynamic killing of bacteria mainly due to the production of $^1\text{O}_2$ and $\bullet\text{OH}$ under light irradiation. The generation of $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ under light irradiation is the main factor of photodynamic antibacterial activity of Teic.

In general, the wavelength of the light source used by PDT matches the absorption band of the photosensitizer. However, as shown in Figure S4, the absorption band of all four antibiotics are in the ultraviolet region (<400 nm), which does not match the visible light source used in this work. Although the mechanism by which these antibiotics

1
2
3 produce ROS remains to be understood, the results of the light-activated antibiotics in
4
5
6
7 this study are helpful to understand the photodynamic activity of different antibiotics and
8
9
10 develop new efficient antimicrobial antibiotics with their PDT ability.
11
12

13 **Conclusions**

14
15
16
17 In summary, we report that the existing antibiotics, such as PMB, SMT, Norf, and Teic,
18
19
20 are capable of producing ROS under light irradiation, suggesting that these antibiotics
21
22
23 can be directly used as photosensitizer for the photodynamic killing of bacteria. All of
24
25
26 these light-excited antibiotics give more than about 3 orders of magnitude of bacterial
27
28
29 killing efficiency, comparable to those of light-excited tetracyclines. These antibiotics
30
31
32 used in antibacterial PDT have more advantages than the general photosensitizers
33
34
35 because of their intrinsic antibacterial properties and the specific targeted binding ability
36
37
38 with bacteria. Moreover, although different antibiotics have their own unique
39
40
41 antibacterial spectrum, the photodynamic activity of antibiotics endows them broader
42
43
44 applications due to their enhanced antibacterial ability. In addition, the visible light
45
46
47 source used in the light-activation study is less harmful to bacteria than the ultraviolet or
48
49
50 blue light source used in the light-activated tetracyclines. Therefore, this antibiotic-
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 based PDT method can extend the application of the existing antibiotics and reduce the
4
5
6
7 therapeutic dose of these antibiotics, thereby reducing the emergence of resistance. We
8
9
10 are conducting further research to discover more light-activated antibiotics. Due to the
11
12
13 large number and variety of antibiotics at present, further screening of antibiotics with
14
15
16
17 photodynamic activity can provide a novel, simple, and efficient way for treatment of
18
19
20
21 bacterial infections, and even cancers.
22
23

24 **Experimental Section**

25 **Materials and reagents.**

26
27
28
29
30
31 Ampicillin, Kanamycin sulfate, Polymyxin, Sulfamethizol, and Norfloxacin were
32
33
34 purchased from Sigma. Teicoplanin was purchased from Selleck. Aminopyridinium
35
36
37 iodide (PI) dye was obtained from Beyotime. Fluorescence dyes 2',7'-
38
39
40
41 dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate (DCFDA), 3'-(p-hydroxyphenyl) fluorescein (HPF),
42
43
44
45 Singlet Oxygen Sensor Green (SOSG), and cell culture plates were purchased from
46
47
48 Thermo Fisher. *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*, BL21) was purchased from Beijing Bio-Med
49
50
51
52 Technology Development Co., Ltd. The kanamycin-resistant *E. coli* BL21 (kana^r *E. coli*)
53
54
55
56 was obtained by transfecting kanamycin resistant plasmids of pET28a-PE66.⁴²
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 *Staphylococcus aureus* (*S. aureus*) ATCC 6538 was obtained from China General
5
6
7 Microbiological Culture Collection Center. Phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) buffer (20×)
8
9
10 was purchased from Sangon Biotech (Shanghai, China).

14 **Bacterial culture**

15
16
17 First, a kana^r *E. coli* or *S. aureus* picked from a single colony was transferred to 10 mL
18
19
20 of the Luria-Bertani (LB) medium with kanamycin (50 μg/mL) for *E. coli* or LB medium
21
22
23 for *S. aureus*, and then incubated in the dark at 37 °C and 180 rpm for about 6 h to an
24
25
26 optical density of 0.8 at 600 nm (OD₆₀₀ = 0.8). The optical densities at 600 nm of the
27
28
29 bacteria were measured using a TU-1901 UV-vis spectrophotometer (Purkinje, China).
30
31
32

33
34
35 Afterward, we transferred the defined amount of bacterial solution for centrifugation at
36
37
38 8000 rpm for 3 min and discarded the supernatant. Then, the bacterial solution was
39
40
41 washed with PBS buffer (1×) two times and suspended with LB medium or PBS (1×) for
42
43
44 the subsequent studies.
45
46
47

49 **Antibacterial activities of antibiotics against bacteria**

50
51
52 The bacterial viability of kana^r *E. coli* or *S. aureus* treated with antibiotics under light
53
54
55 irradiation was performed as follows. First, the above 0.8 OD bacterial solutions were
56
57
58

1
2
3 diluted 40 times. Next, aliquots of 80 μL bacterial solution were transferred to a 96-well
4
5
6
7 plate at a density of about 1.6×10^5 bacterial counts/well in LB medium. Then, different
8
9
10 concentrations of antibiotics were added to the bacteria solution and the final volume of
11
12
13 each well was 100 μL with LB medium. Subsequently, the 96-well plates were irradiated
14
15
16
17 by a MVL-210 visible light source equipped with a metal halogen lamp (Mejiro
18
19
20 Genossen, Japan) at different light intensity and different time. Afterward, the plates
21
22
23
24 were cultured at 37 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ and 180 rpm overnight about 16 h.
25
26
27

28 Finally, the absorbance of solution at 600 nm was measured with a Microplate Reader
29
30
31 SpectraMax M2 (Molecular Devices) and the bacterial viability was calculated according
32
33
34 to the following equation: Bacterial viability (%) = $[(C-B)/(A-B)] \times 100\%$, where A was
35
36
37 the absorbance of the mixture of bacteria without addition of antibiotic as the control, B
38
39
40 was the absorbance of the equivalent LB medium solution as background, and C was
41
42
43 the absorbance of the mixture of bacteria with different concentration of antibiotics as
44
45
46
47
48 sample without or with light irradiation.
49
50
51

52 **Antibacterial activity test by colony counting**

53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Aliquots of 800 μL of the above diluted 40 times bacterial solutions were transferred in
4
5
6
7 48-well plate. Then, four portions of the bacterial solution were added by LB solution
8
9
10 or/and antibiotics to the final volume 1 mL, respectively. The four bacterial solutions
11
12
13 contained bacteria only, bacteria treated with antibiotic, bacteria treated with light
14
15
16 irradiation, and bacteria treated with antibiotic under light irradiation, respectively. The
17
18
19
20 light irradiation was performed with 50 mW/cm^2 , 40 min for kana^r *E. coli* and 40
21
22
23 mW/cm^2 , 40 min for *S. aureus*. Then, each sample was serially diluted multiple folds
24
25
26
27 with PBS (1 \times). Subsequently, a 100 μL portion of the dilution bacteria was evenly
28
29
30
31 spread on the solid LB agar plate. The plates were cultured at 37 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for about 18 h.
32
33
34 Suitable plates were selected and the number of colony forming units (CFUs) was
35
36
37
38 counted. Plate counting photographs of the bacteria diluted by the same times were
39
40
41
42 taken by a Nikon D90 digital camera.
43
44

45 **CLSM and SEM characterization of bacteria treated with light irradiation and/or** 46 47 48 **antibiotic** 49

50
51
52 For CLSM imaging of the bactericidal effect of PMB, in two 1.5 mL centrifuge tubes, 1
53
54
55 mL the above kana^r *E. coli* solutions, which contained bacteria treated with antibiotic
56
57
58

1
2
3 and bacteria treated with antibiotic under light irradiation, were taken, respectively. After
4
5
6 incubating for 30 min, the solutions were centrifuged with 8000 rpm for 2 min, and
7
8
9 washed with PBS (1×) for two times. For CLSM imaging, the *E. coli* solutions were
10
11
12 stained with 1 μg/mL PI dye for 15 min and then washed with PBS for three times.
13
14
15 Finally, the precipitations were suspended with glutaraldehyde (0.5%) for 30 min, and
16
17
18 subsequently centrifuged with 8000 rpm for 2 min. After removing the supernate, the *E.*
19
20
21 *coli* pellets were suspended with 20 μL PBS buffer (1×). Finally, 10 μL *E. coli*
22
23
24 suspensions were transferred to a glass slide to be imaged with a FV1000-IX81
25
26
27 confocal laser scanning microscope (Olympus).
28
29
30
31
32
33

34
35 For SEM imaging, the bacterial pellets were collected and immediately fixed with
36
37
38 glutaraldehyde (0.5%) in PBS buffer at room temperature for 30 min. After centrifugation
39
40
41 and re-suspension, 5 μL of bacterial suspensions were added to a clean silicon slice
42
43
44 followed by naturally drying in the air. Then, the specimens were fixed with 0.1%
45
46
47 glutaraldehyde in PBS buffer for 1 h and 0.5% glutaraldehyde overnight, respectively.
48
49
50
51
52 After washing with sterile water for two times, the specimens were dehydrated by the
53
54
55 addition of ethanol in a graded series for 6 min, respectively. Finally, the specimens
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 were sprayed with platinum for SEM images, which were generated in the JSM-7500F
5
6
7 scanning electron microscope (JEOL).
8
9

10 **Detection of ROS in solution by DCFDA, HPF, and SOSG**

11
12
13

14 First, the total ROS generated from antibiotics PMB, SMT, Norf, AMP, Kana, and Teic
15
16
17 was detected by a ROS-sensitive probe, DCFDA, under light irradiation. Briefly, 100 μL
18
19
20 antibiotic (1mg/mL) and 200 μL activated DCFDA (40 μM) solution were added to 700
21
22
23
24 μL PBS buffer (25 mM, pH=7.4). After the mixtures were irradiated with light irradiation
25
26
27 (40 mW/cm²) for different time intervals, the fluorescence spectra of DCF solution were
28
29
30
31 recorded on an F-7000 fluorometer (Hitachi, Japan) from 505 to 650 nm with the
32
33
34
35 excitation wavelength of 480 nm.
36
37

38 For intracellular detection of ROS, a ROS assay kit (Beyotime) was selected and
39
40
41 followed by the manufacturer's procedures. Specifically, in two 1.5 mL centrifuge tubes,
42
43
44
45 80 μL kana^r *E. coli* (0.8 OD) solutions were diluted with 919 μL LB medium and then
46
47
48
49 stained with 1 μL DCFDA (10 mM). After incubating at 37 °C, 180 rpm for 20 min, the
50
51
52
53 solutions were centrifuged with 8000 rpm for 3 min. By discarding the supernates, the
54
55
56
57 precipitations were suspended with 1 mL LB medium without and with 0.64 μM PMB,
58
59
60

1
2
3 respectively. Then, the bacterial solutions were transferred to a 48-well plate.
4
5
6
7 Subsequently, the 48-well plates were irradiated by a MVL-210 visible light source
8
9
10 equipped with a metal halogen lamp (Mejiro Genossen, Japan) with 40 mW/cm² light
11
12
13 irradiation for 10 min. Next, the bacterial solutions were transferred to two 1.5 mL
14
15
16
17 centrifuge tubes and centrifuged at 8000 rpm for 3min, respectively. After discarding the
18
19
20 supernatants, the precipitations were resuspended with 50 μ L PBS buffer (1 \times). Finally,
21
22
23
24 10 μ L *E. coli* suspensions were transferred to a glass slide to be imaged with a FV1000-
25
26
27
28 IX81 confocal laser scanning microscope (Olympus).
29
30

31 Hydroxyl radical (\bullet OH) was detected by using HPF. Specifically, 100 μ L antibiotics (1
32
33
34 mg/mL), including PMB, SMT, Norf, Teic, and 100 μ L HPF (25 μ M) were added to 800
35
36
37
38 μ L PBS buffer (25 mM, pH=7.4). Then, the mixtures were exposed to light irradiation (40
39
40
41 mW/cm²) for different time intervals. The fluorescence spectra of HPF solution were
42
43
44
45 recorded on an F-7000 fluorometer (Hitachi, Japan) from 505 to 650 nm with the
46
47
48
49 excitation wavelength of 490 nm.
50
51

52 SOSG reagent was used for special detection of singlet oxygen (¹O₂). Briefly, 100 μ L
53
54
55
56 SOSG (25 μ M) solution and 100 μ L antibiotics (1 mg/mL), including PMB, SMT, Norf,
57
58
59

1
2
3 and Teic, were added into PBS buffer (25 mM, pH=7.4) with the final volume of the
4
5
6
7 mixture as 1 mL. The mixtures were irradiated by light irradiation (40 mW/cm²) for
8
9
10 different time intervals. The fluorescence spectra of SOSG solution were measured on
11
12
13
14 F-7000 fluorometer from 500 to 650 nm with the excitation wavelength of 480 nm.
15
16

17 **EPR spectra of radical anions under light irradiation**

18
19
20
21 70 μ L antibiotic (10 mg/mL in sterile water) was mixed with 70 μ L 5,5-Dimethyl-1-
22
23
24 pyrroline- n-oxide (DMPO, 100 mM in sterile water) as trapping reagent for detection of
25
26
27 \bullet OH. For detection of superoxide radical (\bullet O₂⁻), 70 μ L antibiotic (10 mg/mL in methanol)
28
29
30 was mixed with 70 μ L DMPO (100 mM in methanol) as trapping reagent. Then, the
31
32
33
34 mixture was sucked up by capillary with diameter of 0.5 mm. After sealing both sides of
35
36
37
38 capillary by rubber plug, the capillary was put into the resonator with a high-pressure
39
40
41
42 mercury lamp (USH-500SC) irradiation to capture the free radical at 25 °C for 2 min.
43
44
45
46 EPR signals of the antibiotics in capillary could be directly acquired on a JES-FA200
47
48
49 ESR Spectrometer.
50
51
52

53 ASSOCIATED CONTENT
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Supporting Information.

The Supporting Information is available free of charge.

Total ROS detection from Kana and AMP by fluorescence dye DCFDA, viability of kanar *E. coli* treated with Kana and AMP, effects of light irradiation time and light intensity on the viability of kana^r *E. coli*, absorption spectra of the antibiotics, IC90 values of the antibiotics for treatment of bacteria.

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

Yongqiang Cheng – orcid.org/0000-0002-9569-9517; Email: yqcheng@hbu.edu.cn;

Jiangyan Zhang Email: hdzjy2005@163.com

Author Contributions

Y.C. and J.Z conceived and designed the research. Q.J., F.E., J.T., and J.Y. performed the experiments. Y.C. and J.Z. analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript. All the authors discussed the results and edited the manuscript.

1
2
3 **Notes**
4
5

6
7 The authors declare no competing financial interest.
8
9

10
11 **ACKNOWLEDGMENT**
12
13

14
15 This work was supported by the financial support of the National Natural Science
16
17
18 Foundation of China (grant Nos. 21475031 and 21605034), and the Natural Science
19
20
21
22 Foundation of Hebei Province (grant Nos. B2018201049 and B2017201184).
23
24

25
26 **REFERENCES**
27
28
29

30 (1) Fischbach, M. A.; Walsh, C. T. Antibiotics for Emerging Pathogens. *Science* **2009**,
31
32
33 *325*, 1089–1093.
34
35

36
37
38 (2) Reardon, S. Bacterial Arms Race revs up. *Nature* **2015**, *521*, 402–403.
39
40

41
42 (3) Chang, H. H.; Cohen, T.; Grad, Y. H.; Hanage, W. P.; Brien, T. F.; Lipsitch, M.
43
44
45 Origin and Proliferation of Multiple-Drug Resistance in Bacterial Pathogens. *Microbiol.*
46
47
48
49 *Mol. Biol. Rev.* **2015**, *79*, 101–116.
50
51

1
2
3
4 (4) Chambers, H. F.; Deleo, F. R. Waves of Resistance: *Staphylococcus Sureus* in the
5
6
7 Antibiotic Era. *Nat. Rev. Microbiol.* **2009**, *7*, 629–641.
8
9

10
11 (5) Howden, B. P.; Davies, J. K.; Johnson, P. D.; Stinear, T. P.; Grayson, M. L.
12
13
14 Reduced Vancomycin Susceptibility in *Staphylococcus Aureus*, including Vancomycin-
15
16
17 Intermediate and Heterogeneous Vancomycin-Intermediate Strains: Resistance
18
19
20
21 Mechanisms, Laboratory Detection, and Clinical Implications. *Clin. Microbiol. Rev.* **2010**,
22
23
24
25 *23*, 99–139.
26
27

28
29 (6) Levy, S. B.; Marshall, B. Antibacterial Resistance Worldwide: Causes, Challenges
30
31
32 and Responses. *Nat. Med.* **2004**, *10*, S122–S129.
33
34
35

36
37 (7) Blair, J. M. A.; Webber, M. A.; Baylay, A. J.; Ogbolu, D. O.; Piddock, L. J. V.
38
39
40
41 Molecular Mechanisms of Antibiotic Resistance. *Nature Rev. Microbiol.* **2015**, *13*,
42
43
44
45 42–51.
46
47

48 (8) Brown, E. D.; Wright, G. D. Antibacterial Drug Discovery in the Resistance Era.
49
50
51
52 *Nature* **2016**, *529*, 336–343.
53
54
55

1
2
3
4 (9) Li, X.; Bai, H.; Yang, Y.; Yoon, J.; Wang, S.; Zhang, X. Supramolecular
5
6
7 Antibacterial Materials for Combatting Antibiotic Resistance. *Adv. Mater.* **2019**, *31*,
8
9
10 1805092.

11
12
13
14 (10) O'Connell, K. M. G.; Hodgkinson, J. T.; Sore, H. F.; Welch, M.; Salmond, G. P. C.;
15
16
17 Spring, D. R. Combating Multidrug-Resistant Bacteria: Current Strategies for the
18
19
20
21 Discovery of Novel Antibacterials. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **2013**, *52*, 10706–10733.

22
23
24
25 (11) Singh, A.; Dubey, A. K. Various Biomaterials and Techniques for Improving
26
27
28
29 Antibacterial Response. *ACS Appl. Bio Mater.* **2018**, *1*, 3–20.

30
31
32
33 (12) Baym, M.; Stone, L. K.; Kishony, R. Multidrug Evolutionary Strategies to Reverse
34
35
36
37 Antibiotic Resistance. *Science* **2016**, *351*, aad3292.

38
39
40
41 (13) Zhang, P.; Zhao, Q.; Shi, M.; Yin, C.; Zhao, Z.; Shen, K.; Qiu, Y.; Xiao, Y.; Zhao,
42
43
44
45 Y.; Yang, X.; Zhang, Y. Fe₃O₄@ TiO₂-Laden Neutrophils Activate Innate Immunity via
46
47
48
49 Photosensitive Reactive Oxygen Species Release. *Nano Letters*, **2019**, *20*, 261–271.

1
2
3 (14) Ling, L. L.; Schneider, T.; Peoples, A. J.; Spoering, A. L.; Engels, I.; Conlon, B. P.;
4
5
6
7 Mueller, A.; Schaberle, T. F.; Hughes, D. E.; Epstein, S.; Jones, M.; Lazarides, L.;
8
9
10 Steadman, V. A.; Cohen, D. R.; Felix, C. R.; Fetterman, K. A.; Millett, W. P.; Nitti, A. G.;
11
12
13 Zullo, A. M.; Chen, C.; Lewis, K. A New Antibiotic Kills Pathogens without Detectable
14
15
16
17 Resistance. *Nature* **2015**, *517*, 455–459.
18

19
20
21 (15) Van Boeckel, T. P.; Gandra, S.; Ashok, A.; Caudron, Q.; Grenfell, B. T.; Levin, S.
22
23
24
25 A.; Laxminarayan, R. Global Antibiotic Consumption 2000 to 2010: an Analysis of
26
27
28 National Pharmaceutical Sales Data. *Lancet Infect. Dis.* **2014**, *14*, 742–750.
29

30
31
32 (16) Gonzales, P. R.; Pesesky, M. W.; Bouley, R.; Ballard, A.; Bidy, B. A.; Suckow,
33
34
35
36 M. A.; Wolter, W. R.; Schroeder, V. A.; Burnham, C. D.; Mobashery, S.; Chang, M.;
37
38
39 Dantas, G. Synergistic, Collaterally Sensitive β -Lactam Combinations Suppress
40
41
42
43 Resistance in MRSA. *Nat. Chem. Biol.* **2015**, *11*, 855–861.
44
45

46
47 (17) Ejim, L.; Farha, M. A.; Falconer, S. B.; Wildenhain, J.; Coombes, B. K.; Tyers, M.;
48
49
50
51 Brown, E. D.; Wright, G. D. Combinations of Antibiotics and Nonantibiotic Drugs
52
53
54
55 Enhance Antimicrobial Efficacy. *Nat. Chem. Biol.* **2011**, *7*, 348–350.
56
57

1
2
3
4 (18) Morones-Ramirez, J. R.; Winkler, J. A.; Spina, C. S.; Collins, J. J. Silver
5
6
7 Enhances Antibiotic Activity Against Gram-Negative Bacteria. *Sci. Transl. Med.* **2013**, *5*,
8
9
10 190ra81.

11
12
13
14 (19) Tian, J.; Zhang, J. Yang, J.; Du, L.; Geng, H.; Cheng, Y. Conjugated Polymers
15
16
17 Act Synergistically with Antibiotics to Combat Bacterial Drug Resistance. *ACS Appl.*
18
19
20
21
22 *Mater. Interfaces* **2017**, *9*, 18512–18520.

23
24
25
26 (20) Acker, H. V.; Coenye, T. The Role of Reactive Oxygen Species in Antibiotic-
27
28
29 Mediated Killing of Bacteria. *Trends Microbiol.* **2017**, *25*, 456–466.

30
31
32
33 (21) Hamblin, M. R. Antimicrobial Photodynamic Inactivation: a Bright New Technique
34
35
36
37 to Kill Resistant Microbes. *Curr. Opin. Microbiol.* **2016**, *33*, 67–73.

38
39
40
41 (22) Maisch, T. Resistance in Antimicrobial Photodynamic Inactivation of Bacteria.
42
43
44
45 *Photochem. Photobiol. Sci.* **2015**, *14*, 1518–1526.

1
2
3 (23) Courtney, C. M.; Goodman, S. M.; McDaniel, J. A.; Madinger, N. E.; Chatterjee,
4
5
6
7 A.; Nagpal, P. Photoexcited Quantum Dots for Killing Multidrug-Resistant Bacteria. *Nat.*
8
9
10 *Mater.* **2016**, *15*, 529–534.

11
12
13
14 (24) Huang, Y.; Pappas, H. C.; Zhang, L.; Wang, S.; Cai, R.; Tan, W.; Wang, S.;
15
16
17
18 Whitten, D. G.; Schanze, K. S. Selective Imaging and Inactivation of Bacteria over
19
20
21 Mammalian Cells by Imidazolium-Substituted Polythiophene. *Chem. Mater.* **2017**, *29*,
22
23
24
25 6389–6395.

26
27
28
29 (25) Guern, F. L.; Sol, V.; Ouk, C.; Arnoux, P.; Frochot, C.; Ouk, T. Enhanced
30
31
32
33 Photobactericidal and Targeting Properties of a Cationic Porphyrin following the
34
35
36
37 Attachment of Polymyxin B. *Bioconjugate Chem.* **2017**, *28*, 2493–2506.

38
39
40 (26) Guern, F. L.; Ouk, T.; Ouk, C.; Vanderesse, R.; Champavier, Y.; Pinault, E.; Sol,
41
42
43
44 V. Lysine Analogue of Polymyxin B as a Significant Opportunity for Photodynamic
45
46
47
48 Antimicrobial Chemotherapy. *ACS Med. Chem. Lett.* **2018**, *9*, 11–16.

1
2
3
4 (27) Kohanski, M. A.; Dwyer, D. J.; Hayete, B.; Lawrence, C. A.; Collins, J. J. A
5
6
7 Common Mechanism of Cellular Death Induced by Bactericidal Antibiotics. *Cell* **2007**,
8
9
10 *130*, 797–810.
11

12
13
14 (28) Zhao, X.; Drlica, K. Reactive Oxygen Species and the Bacterial Response to
15
16
17 Lethal Stress. *Curr. Opin. Microbiol.* **2014**, *21*, 1–6.
18
19

20
21
22 (29) Brynildsen, M. P.; Winkler, J. A.; Spina, C. S.; MacDonald, I. C.; Collins, J. J.
23
24
25 Potentiating Antibacterial Activity by Predictably Enhancing Endogenous Microbial ROS
26
27
28 Production. *Nat. Biotech.* **2013**, *31*, 160–165.
29
30

31
32
33 (30) Courtney, C. M.; Goodman, S. M.; Nagy, T. A.; Levy, M.; Bhusal, P.; Madinger,
34
35
36 N. e.; Detweiler, C. S.; Nagpal, P.; Chatterjee, A. Potentiating Antibiotics in Drug-
37
38
39 Resistant Clinical Isolates via Stimuli-Activated Superoxide Generation. *Sci. Adv.* **2017**,
40
41
42 *3*, e1701776.
43
44

45
46
47 (31) He, Y.; Huang, Y.; Xi, L.; Gelfand, J. A.; Hamblin, M. R. Tetracyclines Function
48
49
50 as Dual-Action Light-Activated Antibiotics. *PLOS ONE* **2018**, *13*, e0196485.
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 (32) Xuan, W.; He, Y.; Huang, L.; Huang, Y.; Bhayana, B.; Xi, L.; Gelfand, J. A.;
4
5
6
7 Hamblin, M. R. Antimicrobial Photodynamic Inactivation Mediated by Tetracyclines in
8
9
10 Vitro and in Vivo: Photochemical Mechanisms and Potentiation by Potassium Iodide.
11
12
13
14 *Sci. Rep.* **2018**, *8*, 1–14.
15
16
17

18 (33) LeBel, C. P.; Ischiropoulos, H.; Bondy, S. C. Fluorometric Detection of Oxygen
19
20
21 Reactive Species: Characterization of the Probe 2', 7'-Dichlorofluorescein Diacetate.
22
23
24
25 *Chem. Res. Toxicol.* **1992**, *5*, 227–231.
26
27
28

29 (34) Storm, D. R.; Rosenthal, K. S.; Swanson, P. E. Polymyxin and Related Peptide
30
31
32 Antibiotics. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* **1977**, *46*, 723–763.
33
34
35
36

37 (35) Lewis, K. Platforms for Antibiotic Discovery. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.* **2013**, *12*,
38
39
40
41 371–387.
42
43
44

45 (36) Kohanski, M. A.; Dwyer, D. J.; Collins, J. J. How Antibiotics Kill Bacteria: from
46
47
48 Targets to Networks. *Nat. Rev. Microbiol.* **2010**, *8*, 423–435.
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 (37) Crofts, T. S.; Gasparrini, A. J.; Dantas, G. Next-Generation Approaches to
5
6 Understand and Combat the Antibiotic Resistome. *Nat. Rev. Microbiol.* **2017**, *15*, 422–
7
8 434.
9
10

11
12
13
14
15 (38) Walsh, C. Where will New Antibiotics Come from? *Nat. Rev. Microbiol.* **2003**, *1*,
16
17 65–70.
18
19

20
21
22 (39) Setsukinai, K.; Urano, Y.; Kakinuma, K.; Majima H. J., Nagano, T. Development
23
24 of Novel Fluorescence Probes That Can Reliably Detect Reactive Oxygen Species and
25
26 Distinguish Specific Species. *J. Biol. Chem.* **2003**, *278*, 3170–3175.
27
28
29

30
31
32 (40) Wang, F.; Wang, Y.; Li, Y.; Cui, X.; Zhang, Q.; Xie, Z.; Liu, H.; Feng, Y.; Lv, W.;
33
34 Liu, G. The facile synthesis of a single atom-dispersed silver-modified ultrathin g-C₃N₄
35
36 hybrid for the enhanced visible-light photocatalytic degradation of sulfamethazine with
37
38 peroxymonosulfate. *Dalton Trans.* **2018**, *47*, 6924–6933.
39
40
41

42
43
44 (41) Flors, C.; Fryer, M. J.; Waring, J.; Reeder, B.; Bechtold, U.; Mullineaux, P. M.; Nonell,
45
46 S.; Wilson M. T.; Baker, N. R. Imaging the Production of Singlet Oxygen in Vivo Using a New
47
48 Fluorescent Sensor, Singlet Oxygen Sensor Green®. *J. Exp. Bot.*, **2006**, *57*, 1725–1734.
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 (42) Zhu, C.; Yang, Q.; Lv, F.; Liu, L.; Wang, S. Conjugated Polymer-Coated Bacteria
4 for Multimodal Intracellular and Extracellular Anticancer Activity. *Adv. Mater.* **2013**, *25*,
5
6
7 for Multimodal Intracellular and Extracellular Anticancer Activity. *Adv. Mater.* **2013**, *25*,
8
9
10 1203–1208.
11
12
13
14

15 BRIEFS

16
17
18
19 Some existing antibiotics can produce reactive oxygen species (ROS) directly under
20
21
22
23 light irradiation for potentiating bacterial killing.
24
25
26

27 SYNOPSIS

