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1 **Mechanistic and phenotypic studies of bicarinalin,**
2 **BP100 and colistin action on *Acinetobacter baumannii***

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Abstract

19 **Abstract**
20 *Acinetobacter baumannii* has been identified by the WHO as a high priority pathogen. It
21 can be resistant to multiple antibiotics and colistin sulphate is often used as a last-resort
22 treatment. However, the potentially severe side-effects of colistin are well documented and
23 this study compared the bactericidal and anti-biofilm activity of two synthetic nature-inspired
24 antimicrobial peptides, bicarinalin and BP100, with colistin. The minimum bactericidal
25 concentration (MBC) against planktonic *A. baumannii* was approximately 0.5 µg/ml for colistin
26 sulphate and ~4 µg/ml for bicarinalin and BP100. *A. baumannii* commonly occurs as a biofilm
27 and biofilm removal assay results highlighted that both bicarinalin and BP100 had significantly
28 greater potential than colistin. Atomic force microscopy (AFM) showed dramatic changes in *A.*
29 *baumannii* cell size and surface conformity when treated with peptide concentrations at and
30 above the MBC. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) visualised the reduction of biofilm
31 coverage and cell surface changes as peptide concentration increased. Liposome assays
32 revealed that these peptides most likely act as pore-forming agents in the membrane.
33 Bicarinalin and BP100 may be effective therapeutic alternatives to colistin against *A. baumannii*
34 infections but further research is required to assess if they elicit cytotoxicity issues in patients.

35 **Keywords**

36 Scanning electron microscopy; atomic force microscopy; vesicle leakage; biofilm; antimicrobial

37 peptides; antibiotic resistance

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38 Introduction

39 It has been widely publicised that by 2050, deaths due to antimicrobial resistant (AMR)
40 infections may rise to 10 million per year and during that time, 300 million people will die from
41 AMR infections [1]. The abuse of currently used antimicrobials, the paucity of new
42 antimicrobials progressing successfully through clinical trials and the evolution of bacterial
43 resistance mechanisms have led to the prospect of returning to the pre-antibiotic era when
44 patients were dying from infections through minor injuries and routine surgeries. Although the
45 recent development of novel antibiotics [2, 3] has provided reason for optimism, these drugs
46 are generally limited to the treatment of Gram-positive infections while Gram-negative
47 pathogens remain of significant concern [4].

48 *Acinetobacter baumannii* is one such opportunistic pathogen [5, 6] occurring almost
49 exclusively in the hospital environment and is particularly prevalent in intensive care and burns
50 units; it has been reported to be responsible for between 2-10% of all Gram-negative
51 nosocomial infections [7]. A member of the 'ESKAPE' group [8] of pathogens, *A. baumannii* is
52 able to persist on clinical surfaces by forming biofilms [7, 9], an ability that renders bacteria
53 more resistant to many common antimicrobials [10, 11] leading to *A. baumannii* infections
54 becoming rapidly more difficult to treat [12]. It is able to persist for long periods on fomites [7,
55 9] enabling the pathogen to cause widespread epidemic infections in nosocomial settings.
56 Current treatments include β -lactam antibiotics with the carbapenems typically the treatment
57 of choice [9].

58 Antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) have been much heralded as alternatives to antibiotics
59 due to their ability to destroy multi-drug resistant (MDR) bacteria [13]. One example is colistin

60 sulphate (colistin), commonly used as a last resort treatment for MDR *A. baumannii* infections
61 [14]. However, the toxicity of colistin in patients is well known [13, 14] and resistance is
62 increasingly described [15-17] resulting in a crucial search for improved alternatives.

63 The aim of this study was to establish and visualise the activity of two little researched
64 AMPs, bicarinalin and BP100, which may be appropriate for use instead of colistin to treat MDR
65 *A. baumannii* infections. Bicarinalin is an amphipathic, C-terminally amidated, novel
66 antimicrobial peptide derived from the venom of the myrmicine ant, *Tetramorium bicarinatum*
67 [18, 19]. It consists of a sequence of 20 amino acid residues (KIKIPWGKVKDFLVGGMKAV) with a
68 molecular weight of 2213.78 g/mol. The action of bicarinalin has been evaluated against a
69 selection of Gram-positive and Gram-negative organisms [18, 19] and has been found to have
70 good antibacterial activity compared to other AMPs together with less haemolytic activity.

71 BP100 is a short C-amidated undecapeptide consisting of 11 amino acids (KKLFKKILKYL)
72 and a molecular weight of 1420.88 g/mol. It was originally synthesised by combinatorial
73 chemistry involving two peptides, cecropin A and melittin [20]. Cecropin A is a member of the
74 well-researched AMP family, the cecropins, first isolated from the giant silk moth *Hyalophora*
75 *cecropia*. The cecropin family, although susceptible to protease degradation, does not exhibit
76 cytotoxic effects against human erythrocytes [21, 22]. Melittin is a 26 amino acid, haemolytic
77 alpha helical peptide first purified from the European honeybee in 1958 [23], with
78 demonstrated antibacterial activity [24]. However, on its own, melittin's strong cytotoxic action
79 makes it unsuitable for clinical applications [25]. To circumvent cecropin A's susceptibility to
80 proteolytic degradation and melittin's high cytotoxicity, they were combined to produce a
81 derivative, BP100. BP100 exhibits low susceptibility to protease degradation and lower

82 cytotoxicity against erythrocytes and fibroblasts [26]. BP100 has been established to have good
83 antibacterial activity against several Gram-negative bacteria [20, 22].

84 It is believed that bicarinalin's antibacterial mechanism is similar to other AMPs, with its
85 cationic charge, as a result of lysine residues, naturally attracted to the anionic charged
86 bacterial cell surface. It is also believed that BP100 interacts with the bacterial cell membrane
87 via electrostatic attraction to the negatively charged LPS layer, causing blebbing on the surface
88 leading to a collapse of the outer membrane [20].

89 The aim of this study was to assess the potential of bicarinalin and BP100 as alternatives
90 to colistin to treat *A. baumannii* infections. The study also aimed to visualise the effects of these
91 antimicrobial agents on *A. baumannii* cells and biofilms using scanning electron microscopy
92 (SEM) and atomic force microscopy (AFM).

93 **Materials and methods**

94 **Bacterial culture conditions**

95 Fresh cultures of *Acinetobacter baumannii* (ATCC® 19606) were prepared by streaking a
96 culti-loop (ThermoFisher Scientific, UK) on freshly prepared Tryptone Soya Agar (TSA, Oxoid,
97 UK) and incubated for 24 h at 37 °C. Purity was assessed using Gram staining, cell morphology,
98 oxidase and Analytical Profile Index (API, Biomérieux, UK, 20NE kit) testing. A standard growth
99 curve for the *A. baumannii* was established to ensure mid-log phase growth and an initial
100 inoculum of 5×10^5 CFU/ml at the start of each experiment.

101 **Antimicrobial assays**

102 **Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC)**

103 The MIC was determined for each of the antimicrobial agents studied: colistin (Sigma-
104 Aldrich, UK), bicarinalin (97.7% purity, Genscript, USA) and BP100 (98.4% purity, Genscript,
105 USA). 10 ml of sterile Tryptone Soya Broth (TSB, Oxoid, UK) was inoculated with 2-3 colonies of
106 *A. baumannii* and incubated overnight at 37 °C and later diluted to an absorbance that equated
107 to 1×10^6 CFU/ml.

108 Antimicrobial solutions were prepared and sterilised by filtering through a 0.2 µm
109 minisart single use sterile filter (Sartorius-Stedim Biotech, Fisherscientific, UK). Stock solutions
110 (1024 µg/ml) were prepared, taking into account the stated product purity. Reduction of
111 peptide concentration through filtration was not assayed for.

112 50 µl of each agent, at a stock concentration of 1024 µg/ml, was added to well 1 of a 96-
113 well microplate (Fisherscientific, UK) and a two-fold dilution series prepared in wells 2 to 12. 50
114 µl of inoculated TSB, containing 1×10^6 CFU/ml of *A. baumannii*, was then added to each well

115 resulting in final peptide concentrations from 256 µg/ml to 0.125 µg/ml and a cell density of
116 5×10^5 CFU/ml. Plates were covered and incubated in a shaking incubator at 37 °C and 140 rpm
117 for 24 h. The lowest concentration of peptide where the well was visibly clear was recorded as
118 the MIC. The entire experiment was carried out three times in triplicate to give nine datasets
119 and the mean MIC established.

120 **Minimum bactericidal concentration (MBC)**

121 After recording the MIC, spread plates were prepared on TSA using 100 µl from each
122 clear well. These plates were incubated at 37 °C for 24 h. The lowest concentration where there
123 was no growth observed on the plate was recorded as the MBC. This was carried out after each
124 MIC test and therefore three times in triplicate.

125 **Minimum biofilm inhibitory concentration (MBIC)**

126 A 96-well microplate plate containing doubling dilutions of antimicrobial was incubated
127 with 5×10^5 CFU/ml *A. baumannii* for 24 h at 37 °C, 140 rpm. After 24 h, the wells were emptied
128 and washed three times with ¼ strength Ringer's solution and air dried for 1 h. 1% crystal violet
129 solution was added to each well and left at room temperature for 10 minutes. The wells were
130 emptied by pipetting, washed three times with distilled water, and air dried for 30 minutes at
131 37 °C. The stain was solubilised with 96% ethanol (100 µl). The plate was covered and shaken at
132 140 rpm for 30 minutes. 2 µl was removed and the absorbance of the solution was measured at
133 590 nm compared to a 96% ethanol blank. This was replicated three times and the mean
134 calculated. The percentage biofilm inhibited was calculated by comparing against an untreated
135 bacterial control. SPSS Statistics 21 (IBM, USA) was used for the statistical analysis of MBIC

136 results. The samples t-test was used to find if there was a statistical difference of 95% ($p \leq 0.05$,
137 statistically significant) or 99% ($p \leq 0.01$, highly significant).

138 **Biofilm removal assay**

139 Biofilms of *A. baumannii* were grown in 36 wells of a 96-well microplate (test plate) by
140 adding 50 μ l sterile TSB and 50 μ l of TSB inoculated with 1×10^6 CFU/ml culture. Plates were
141 incubated at 37 °C, 140 rpm for 24 h. On a separate 96-well microplate (titration plate) a
142 doubling dilution series was prepared with 75 μ l of TSB and 75 μ l of antimicrobial solution
143 (stock concentration, 8192 μ g/ml). The wells containing biofilm were washed three times with
144 $\frac{1}{4}$ strength Ringer's solution and 75 μ l sterile TSB was then added to each well. 75 μ l from the
145 titration plate, containing a specific concentration of peptide, was added to the corresponding
146 well on the test plate. This resulted in each well containing 150 μ l of TSB, which ensured the
147 biofilm was completely submerged, and the test wells containing a doubling dilution series of
148 antimicrobial (2048 μ g/ml to 2 μ g/ml). 150 μ l sterile TSB was added to the negative control
149 wells. Plates were covered and incubated in a shaking incubator for 24 h at 37 °C, 140 rpm.
150 After incubation, the wells were emptied by tipping onto absorbent paper, washed three times
151 with 200 μ l $\frac{1}{4}$ strength Ringer's solution and air fixed for 1 h under aseptic conditions.

152 The percentage of biofilm removal was quantified by measuring the absorbance after
153 applying crystal violet stain as described previously. The absorbance (at 590 nm) was
154 determined for each sample. Biofilm reduction (%) was determined by comparison of the
155 absorbance readings of the samples with the untreated control biofilms.

156 SPSS Statistics 21 software (IBM, USA) was used to assess the significance of the biofilm
157 removal assay results. The samples t-test was applied to assess the statistical difference of 95%
158 ($p \leq 0.05$) which was considered as statistically significant or 99% ($p \leq 0.01$) which was considered
159 highly significant.

160 **Scanning electron microscopy**

161 *A. baumannii* biofilms were prepared in 150 μ l TSB in 96-well microplates. Calgary
162 Biofilm Device (CBD) lids (Nunc-TSP Screening Plate Lids, ThermoScientific, UK) were placed on
163 the plates with the polystyrene pegs protruding into the broth. Plates were sealed and
164 incubated at 37 °C, 140 rpm for 24 h. After incubation, the pegs were washed by submerging in
165 200 μ l of sterile ¼ strength Ringer's solution and leaving for 2 minutes and this process was
166 repeated twice more. Each well was then filled with 100 μ l sterile TSB.

167 Antimicrobial challenge plates were prepared, containing agent concentrations of 1
168 μ g/ml, 10 μ g/ml and 100 μ g/ml. The CBD lid was placed onto this challenge plate, covered and
169 incubated at 37 °C, 140 rpm for 24 h. After 24 h the pegs were washed by submerging the CBD
170 lid in 250 μ l of sterile ¼ strength Ringer's solution and leaving for 2 minutes and subsequently
171 repeated twice more.

172 0.1M sodium cacodylate buffer was prepared to give a pH reading of 7.2. The CBD pegs
173 were then submerged in this solution for 3 minutes.

174 2.5% glutaraldehyde solution was prepared. The CBD lid was immersed in the buffer,
175 covered and left at ambient temperature (21 ± 2 °C) for 40 minutes. The CBD lid was then
176 removed and twice washed in distilled water for 2 minutes. Biofilms were then dehydrated

177 sequentially by placing twice into 50% methanol (Fisher Scientific, UK), 70% methanol and
178 finally 100% methanol. CBD lids were left in each solution for 2 minutes. Pegs were
179 subsequently air dried for 4 days.

180 Pegs were removed from the CBD lid and mounted onto 0.5" aluminium specimen
181 stubs, fixed using carbon adhesive discs (Agar Scientific, UK). After mounting, the carbon tabs
182 were painted with graphite and the pegs were coated with approximately 15-20 nm of
183 platinum. *A. baumannii* biofilms on the surface of the pegs were visualised using a FEI Quanta
184 FEG 650 Scanning Electron Microscope.

185 **Atomic force microscopy**

186 Atomic force microscopy (AFM) was used to obtain topographic images of *A.*
187 *baumannii* cells when subjected to peptide concentrations equating to ½ MBC, MBC and 2x
188 MBC. These concentrations were 0.25, 0.5 and 1 µg/ml for colistin and 2, 4 and 8 µg/ml for both
189 bicarinalin and BP100. 150 µl suspensions, containing inoculated TSB with *A. baumannii* cell
190 density of 5×10^5 CFU/ml and appropriate concentrations of antimicrobial, were prepared in 96-
191 well microplates. Plates were incubated at 37 °C, 140 rpm for 2 h.

192 After incubation the suspension was pipetted onto a poly-L-lysine coated slide (Sigma
193 Aldrich, UK) and left at ambient room temperature (21 ± 2 °C) for 20 minutes. Slides were
194 rinsed with distilled water and left to air dry.

195 Images were captured using a Bioscope Catalyst AFM (Bruker, Germany) operated in
196 PeakForce tapping mode using ScanAsyst-air tips (Bruker, Germany). Images were acquired on
197 an area of $4 \mu\text{m}^2$ at a scan rate of 0.5 Hz.

198

199 **Vesicle leakage assays**

200 Liposomes were made from lipids extracted from *A. baumannii*. *A. baumannii* cultured
201 at 37 °C was harvested and a total lipid extraction conducted as described by Bligh & Dyer [27],
202 with an extra step to extract any lipid remaining in the supernatant plus 3x washing steps with
203 1M KCl. The extracted lipid was stored in chloroform at -20 °C. A Stewart lipid assay was
204 conducted to quantify the lipid extracted.

205 2 mg lipid, dried from chloroform in a round-bottomed flask, was hydrated in 1 ml 100
206 mM 5(6)-carboxyfluorescein (Sigma Aldrich, UK) and allowed to hydrate for 25 minutes with
207 occasional shaking. The resulting suspension was extruded through a 400 nm filter and then a
208 100 nm Nuclepore track-etched polycarbonate membrane (Whatman, UK) using a mini-
209 extruder (Avanti Polar Lipids, USA) at 37 °C. The extruded liposomes were then washed 3 times
210 to remove un-encapsulated carboxyfluorescein by pelleting at 100,000 g and re-suspending in
211 50 mM Tris-HCl buffer and 10 mM NaCl at pH 7.3 before final re-suspension in 1 ml of the same
212 buffer.

213 6.25 µl of the above liposome suspension was added to 500 µl aliquots of antimicrobial
214 peptide solutions at the following concentrations: 0.25, 0.5, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128, 256 & 512
215 µg/ml in the above Tris buffer. An additional concentration of 0.125 µg/ml was used for colistin
216 due to its lower MIC. 100 µl aliquots were transferred to black 96-well microplates for
217 fluorescence measurements at 490 nm excitation and 520 nm emission using an Infinite 200Pro
218 (Tecan, Switzerland). Carboxyfluorescein leakage was measured relative to the same quantity of
219 liposomes suspended in 1% SDS following approximately 30 minutes exposure to the agent.

220 **Results**

221 **Antimicrobial assays**

222 MIC and MBC values were determined to be 0.5 µg/ml (0.43 µmol/L) for colistin, 4
223 µg/ml (1.8 µmol/L) for bicarinalin and 4 µg/ml (2.8 µmol/L) for BP100 (data not shown). Fig. 1
224 shows that the MBIC was found to be similar to the MIC and MBC for each agent with 90% of
225 biofilm formation inhibited at 0.5 µg/ml colistin and 4 µg/ml bicarinalin and BP100. This also
226 showed that at concentrations below the peptides' respective MBCs, biofilm formation was
227 possible with only 36% biofilm inhibition for colistin, 23% for bicarinalin and 20% for BP100. Fig.
228 2 shows the eradication of a 24-hour biofilm when subjected to increasing concentrations of
229 peptide. At 1 µg/ml of colistin, 27% of biofilm was removed. As the peptide concentration
230 increased, more biofilm was eradicated with 52% removed at 512 µg/ml. Bicarinalin removed
231 18% at 1 µg/ml which then increased to 70% at 128 µg/ml; no further biofilm eradication was
232 observed with higher concentrations. BP100 removed 17% at 1 µg/ml which remained low until
233 16 µg/ml. Above this concentration, the biofilm removed increased from 27% at 32 µg/ml to
234 76% at 512 µg/ml, higher than both colistin and bicarinalin, to 93% at 2048 µg/ml.

235 **Microscopy**

236 SEM (Fig. 3) and AFM (Fig. 4) provide visualisation of the effects of these agents on *A.*
237 *baumannii* cells. Fig. 3 demonstrates that, as the concentration of the agents increases, the
238 morphological changes to the cells become more pronounced including evidence of blebbing
239 and a more variable cell shape with shrinkage and membrane disruption. The coverage across
240 the surface also reduces: with no addition of antimicrobial agent the cells are packed closely
241 together and cover the whole interface; as the peptide concentration increases visible gaps are

242 seen between clusters of cells. The cellular morphological changes are also observed in Fig. 4 by
243 AFM. Blebbing is observed, causing varied cell shape and shrinkage at the MBC concentrations,
244 and the cells differ greatly compared to the cocci-bacilli shaped cells seen with no antimicrobial
245 treatment and below the MBC.

246 **Vesicle leakage assays**

247 To determine the mechanism of action of the antimicrobial agents, a vesicle leakage
248 assay was performed. Liposomes produced from lipids extracted from *A. baumannii* (Fig. 5) all
249 leaked carboxyfluorescein in the presence of the antimicrobials. The concentration of agent
250 causing half-maximal leakage for each agent was $\sim 1.75 \mu\text{g/ml}$ for colistin, $\sim 2.75 \mu\text{g/ml}$ for
251 BP100 and $\sim 2 \mu\text{g/ml}$ for bicarinalin (given maximal leakage of 70%, 65% and 56% respectively).
252 Vesicle leakage results support the proposal that these agents exert effects on the bacterial cell
253 membrane causing significant disruption to the cell surface (as shown in Fig. 4) and eventually
254 cell lysis (as shown in Fig. 3).

255 Discussion

256 *A. baumannii* susceptibility to colistin was similar to that determined by Li *et al.* [28] and Sauger
257 [29], confirming that *A. baumannii* 19606 strain is colistin susceptible as defined by The Clinical
258 and Laboratory Standards Institute. Bicarinalin results were compared with those of Rifflet [18]
259 and Téné [19] who investigated *Cronobacter* spp., *Enterobacter* spp. and *Staphylococcus* spp..
260 Results suggest that *A. baumannii* is generally more susceptible to bicarinalin than these other
261 bacteria. Antimicrobial activity results for BP100 against *A. baumannii* 19606 were comparable
262 to other bacteria in previous studies [20, 21].

263 Although the MBC for both bicarinalin and BP100 was 4 µg/ml, the molar concentration of
264 peptide differed (1.8 µmol/L for bicarinalin and 2.8 µmol/L for BP100). This is primarily due to
265 the differences in molecular weight (bicarinalin 2213.78 g/mol, BP100 1420.88 g/mol) indicating
266 that, although BP100 is smaller in length, it exerts a similar inhibitory and potent effect on *A.*
267 *baumannii*. By comparison, colistin has a MBC of 0.43 µmol/L (with the smallest molecular
268 weight, 1155.4 g/mol).

269 MBIC results demonstrated that, at the MBC for all three antimicrobials studied, there was less
270 than 10% biofilm formed compared to the control. Additionally, at concentrations of
271 antimicrobial agents equal to ½ MBC (2 µg/ml for bicarinalin and BP100, 0.25 µg/ml for colistin)
272 there was less inhibition of biofilm formation with 77% of biofilm formed in the presence of
273 bicarinalin, 95% in BP100 and 64% in colistin. This highlights that even below their respective
274 MBCs, bicarinalin and colistin have some potential to prevent biofilm formation but BP100 had
275 very little, possibly due to differences in size and mechanism of action.

276

277 Biofilm eradication results indicated that bicarinalin is superior at eradicating *A. baumannii*
278 biofilms than colistin above its MBC and both bicarinalin and BP100 are more effective at
279 concentrations above 128 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. Colistin was more effective at removing *A. baumannii* biofilms
280 at low concentrations; this was as expected due to its lower MBC which is nearly an order of
281 magnitude less than bicarinalin and BP100. However, the maximum biofilm removed was only
282 $\sim 50\%$ at 512 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. Bicarinalin was the most effective between 8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$, where it removed
283 $\sim 40\%$ of the biofilm, and 128 $\mu\text{g/ml}$, where it eradicated 70% of the biofilm. Any further
284 increase of concentration had no additional significant effect on the biofilm. The removal
285 activity of BP100 started slowly and at 16 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ it had removed only 20% of the biofilm, half
286 that of colistin. Above 16 $\mu\text{g/ml}$, BP100 increased relatively linearly to exceed bicarinalin activity
287 above 512 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. At 2048 $\mu\text{g/ml}$, the highest concentration tested, BP100 had eradicated $\sim 95\%$
288 of the biofilm. Colistin had the most biofilm removal activity, as expected, at low concentrations
289 of 1-4 $\mu\text{g/ml}$, below the MBC of bicarinalin and BP100. Bicarinalin was the most active between
290 8 and 128 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ and BP100 was the most effective from 256 to 2048 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. The superior
291 performance of bicarinalin, and particularly that of BP100 on biofilms at higher concentrations,
292 was not anticipated especially considering the MBC is significantly higher than colistin.

293 The SEM has been widely used to image bacterial biofilms [30, 31], revealing, with increasing
294 concentrations of peptide, progressive changes in cellular shape and structure of the biofilm.
295 Membrane protrusions between bacterial cells were seen in the control sample and at 1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$
296 concentrations for each agent in this study. Pili or cellular filaments between cells have been
297 previously documented between cells within biofilms [32, 33]. At the higher concentrations of

298 10 µg/ml and 100 µg/ml, these protrusions were not visible suggesting the inability of the cells
299 to form pili at these concentrations [34]. Fig. 3 clearly shows that as the concentration of agent
300 is increased, the cell shape becomes less regular and the surface coverage is decreased.

301 The effect of the antimicrobials on *A. baumannii* was visualised by AFM. Fig. 4 highlights that,
302 below the peptide MBC, the coccus-bacillus cell shape is conserved. However, at concentrations
303 at and above the MBC, the cell surface, conformation and size are drastically affected. At the
304 highest concentrations tested there is evidence of severe disruption to the cell surface,
305 cytoplasmic leakage and lysed cells.

306 Membrane disruption caused by peptide activity is noted from various studies [20, 35-37]. In
307 this study, indentations and pores are seen in the bacterial surface with resulting cytoplasmic
308 leakage and debris, suggesting loss of turgor pressure [38]. As the peptide concentration
309 increased, more intense membrane perturbation and cytoplasmic leakage were visualised.
310 Similar observations were described by Li *et al.* [35].

311 Although AFM imaging of bacterial cells in air is a widely used technique [20, 39], it can lead to
312 dehydration of the cell and changes in the cell surface that were not directly caused by peptide
313 activity. However, all images have been compared to the control of untreated cells.

314 The dye leakage assay reflects the relative potency of these peptides against *A. baumannii*,
315 suggesting that the peptides mediate their effects through the formation of pores in the
316 membrane although it likely reflects planktonic growth more accurately than biofilm-like
317 structures. It cannot be directly concluded whether the peptides exert their effects on the
318 cytoplasmic or outer membrane of the cell. The visualised bacterial cell morphological changes

319 seen in SEM (Fig. 3) and AFM (Fig. 4) images are likely to relate to outer membrane disorder
320 while the vesicle leakage assay may represent disruption to the cytoplasmic membrane.

321 Overall the results support the proposal that bicarinalin and BP100 could be used to control
322 infections caused by biofilm-producing prokaryotes. However, Torcato *et al.* [40] observed 50%
323 cytotoxicity against HELA cells at $49.2 \pm 1.4 \mu\text{mol/L}$ for BP100 which is higher than the MBC
324 observed here ($2.8 \mu\text{mol/L}$) but lower than the concentrations needed for antibiofilm activity,
325 suggesting that clinical antibiofilm activity of BP100 may be unlikely. Colistin performs well
326 against planktonic cells of *A. baumannii* but significantly less well against biofilms. As *A.*
327 *baumannii* is able to form biofilms, it is essential that investigations into the efficacy of novel
328 agents are performed rigorously on biofilms.

329 The results indicate that bicarinalin and BP100 both have similar bactericidal and generally
330 better anti-biofilm activity against *A. baumannii* than colistin, with evidence supporting the idea
331 that these peptides mediate their effects through the formation of pores in the membrane. This
332 is encouraging but cytotoxic studies will determine whether, at these concentrations,
333 bicarinalin and BP100 can be used in clinical treatment.

334 **Conflict of interest**

335 There is no conflict of interest between any author and any other people or organisation that
336 could inappropriately influence this work.

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439 **Figure legends**

440 Fig. 1: MBIC for colistin sulphate, bicarinalin and BP100. *A. baumannii* was subjected to a
441 doubling dilution series (2-2048 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) of antimicrobial for 24 h. After washing and air fixing for
442 1 h, samples were stained with 1% crystal violet. After 10 minutes the stain was solubilised with
443 96% ethanol and the absorbance at 590 nm was read against a 96% ethanol blank. The
444 percentage biofilm inhibited was calculated by comparing against an untreated bacterial
445 control. The experiment was carried out three times in triplicate.

446 Fig. 2: Percentage biofilm eradication by colistin sulphate, bicarinalin and BP100. *A.*
447 *baumannii* biofilms were grown for 24 h and then subjected to a doubling dilution series (2-
448 2048 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) of antimicrobial for 24 h. After washing and air fixing for 1 h, samples were stained
449 with 1% crystal violet. After 10 minutes the stain was solubilised with 96% ethanol and the
450 absorbance at 590 nm was read against a 96% ethanol blank. The percentage biofilm eradicated
451 was calculated by comparing against an untreated bacterial control. The experiment was
452 carried out twice in triplicate.

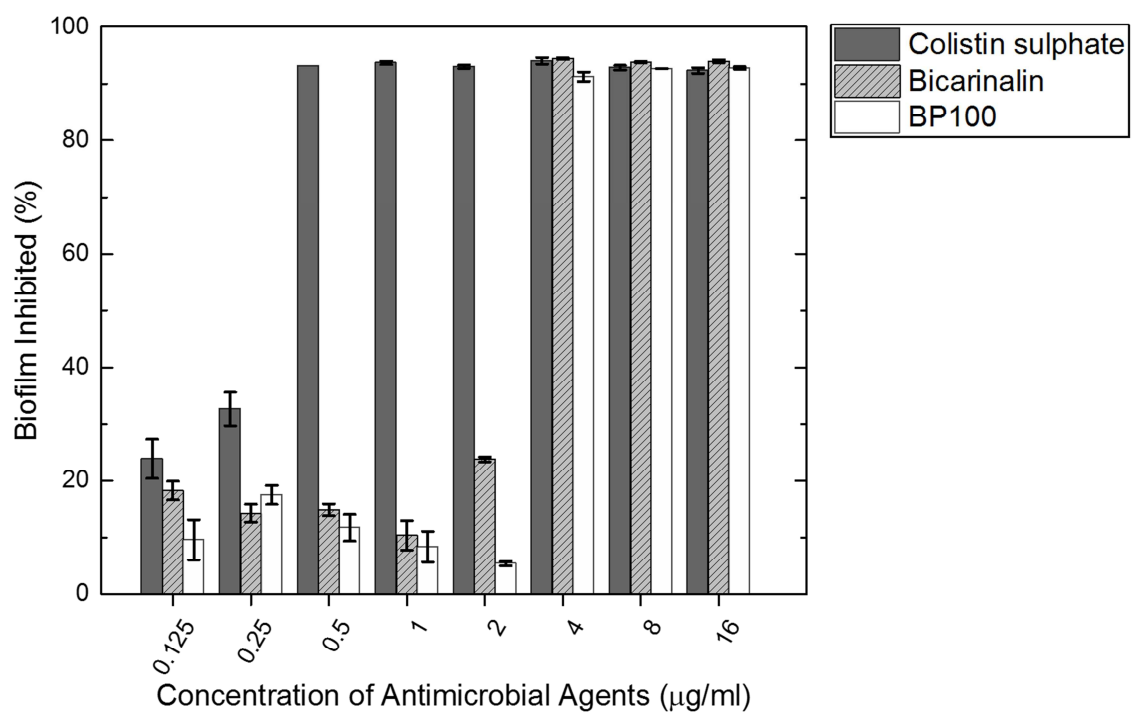
453 Fig. 3: SEM Images of *A. baumannii* biofilms. Biofilms were grown for 24 h then treated
454 for a further 24 h with colistin (A), bicarinalin (B) and BP100 (C). Control images, no
455 antimicrobial (1), 1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ (2), 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ (3), 100 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ (4). Scale bars on main images are 1 μm ,
456 10 μm on inset images.

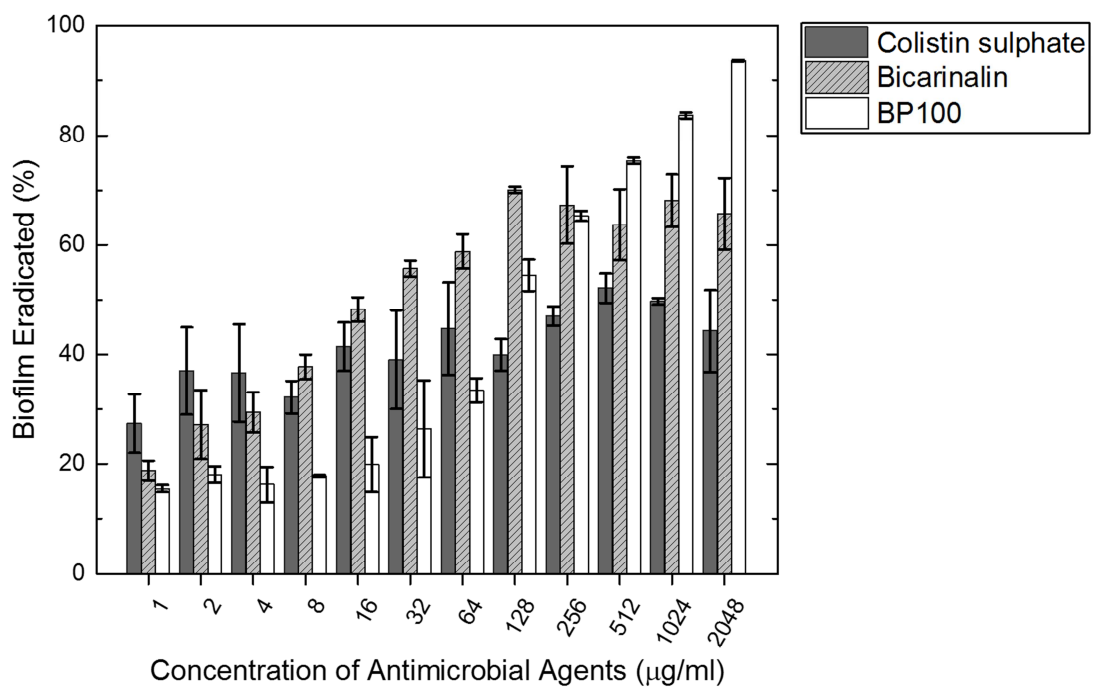
457 Fig. 4: AFM Images of *A. baumannii* cells after being treated with colistin (A), bicarinalin
458 (B) and BP100 (C) for 2 h and fixed onto a glass slide coated with poly-L-lysine. Control images,

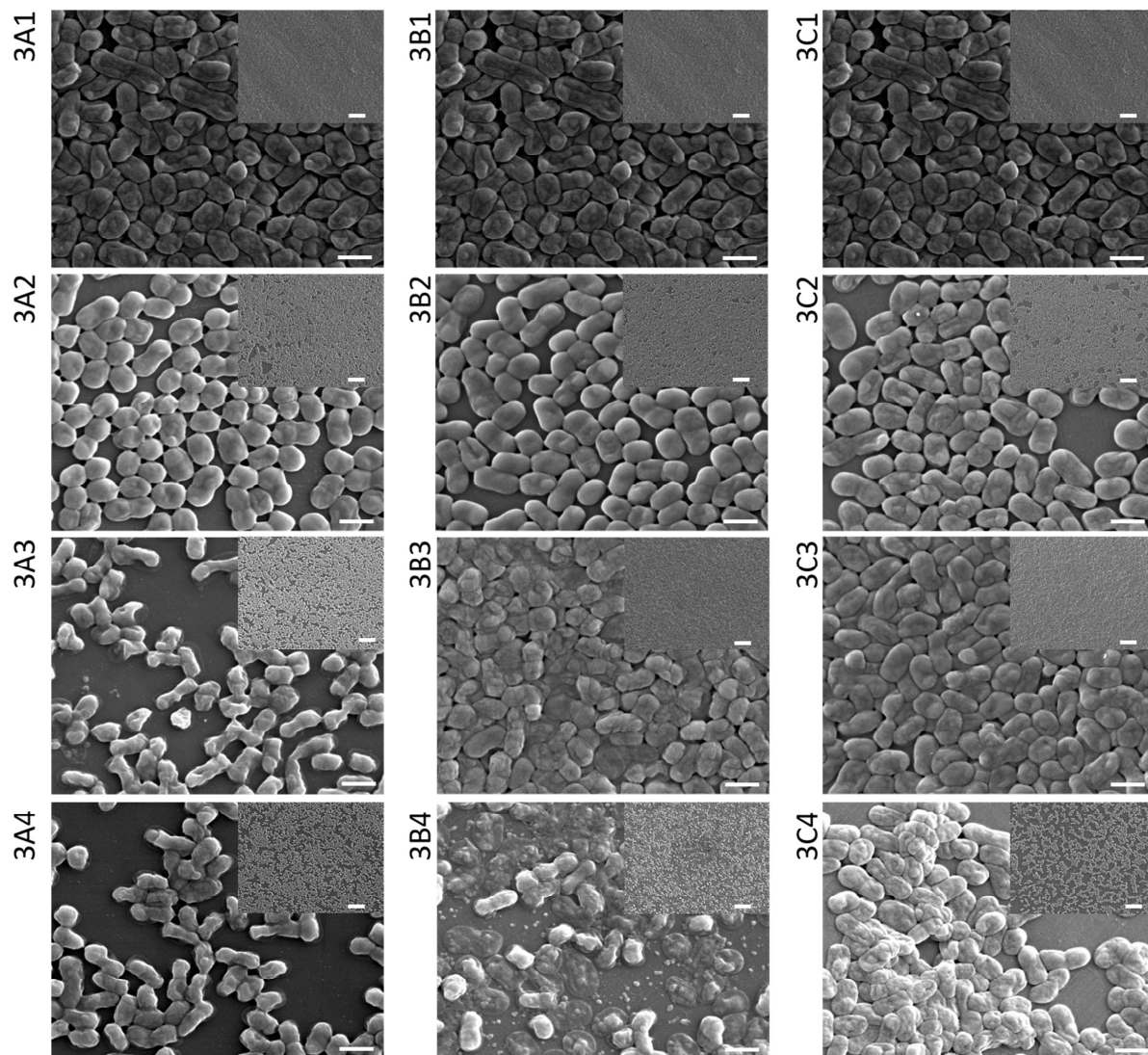
459 no antimicrobial (1), 1/2 MBC (2), MBC (3), 2X MBC (4). Images were $4\ \mu\text{m}^2$ and 256 lines at 0.5
460 Hz. Scale bars are $1\ \mu\text{m}$.

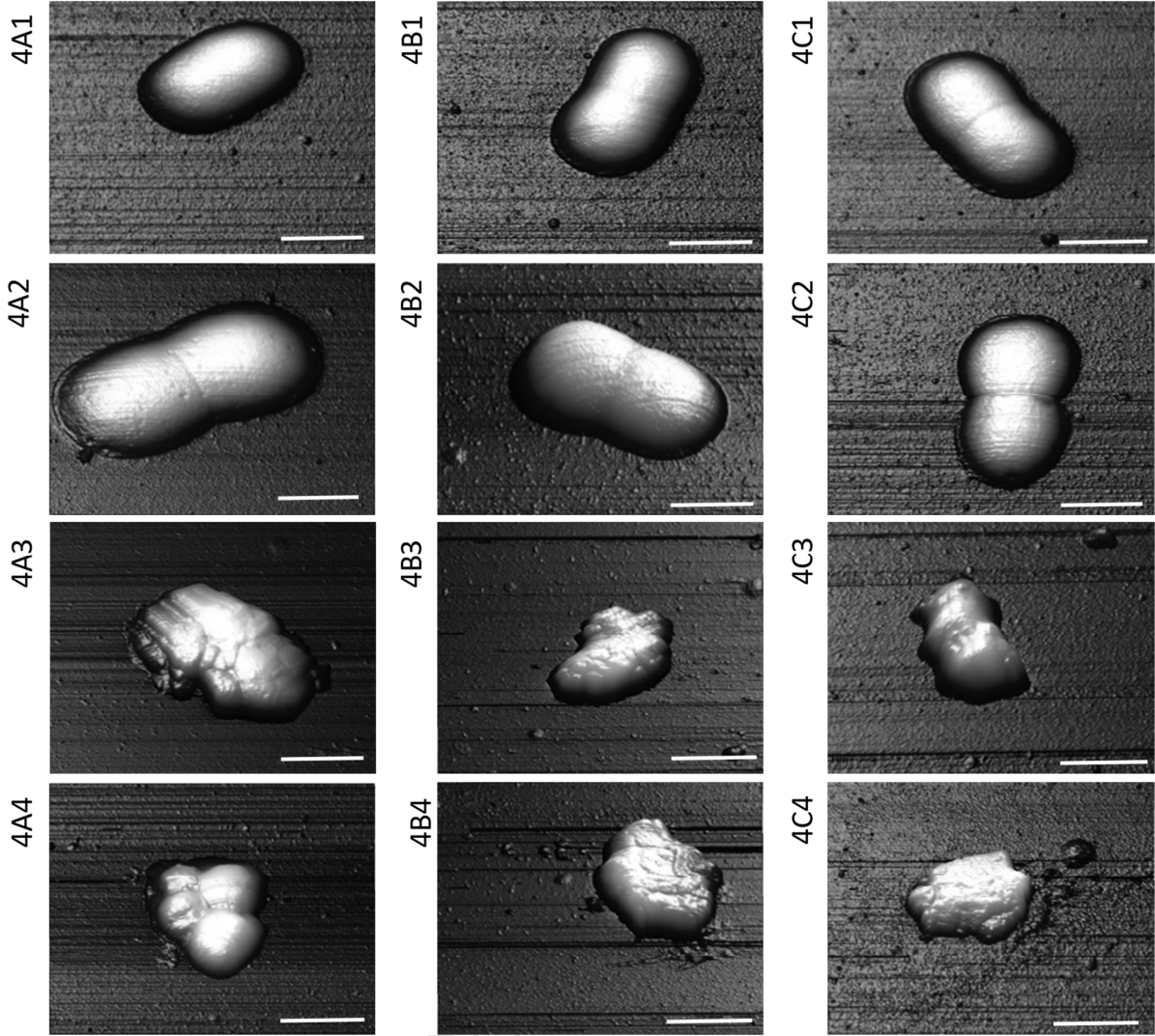
461 Fig. 5: The relative leakage of carboxyfluorescein from liposomes made from *A.*
462 *baumannii* total lipid extract in the presence of increasing concentrations of the three
463 antimicrobial agents. Error bars show the standard error around the mean of 3 replicates.

464 N.B. As instructed, panels of Figs. 3 & 4 have been provided on a single page. They can
465 be provided in separate files if required at a later stage.









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