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Optimization of an Extended Microplate Assay for Generating *Listeria monocytogenes*, *E. coli* O157:H7, and *Salmonella* Biofilms and Enzymatic Recovery for Enumeration

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Abstract: Biofilms enable the persistence of pathogens in food processing environments. In order to inactivate these microorganisms, sanitizing agents are needed that are effective against pathogens entrapped in biofilms which are more difficult to inactivate than planktonic cells that are displaced and found on equipment surfaces. We examined conditions to develop, analyze, and enumerate robust biofilms of 3 different foodborne pathogens assisted by fluorescence adherence assay and enzymatic detachment. We compared 3 different isomeric forms of fluorescent substrates that are readily taken up by bacterial cells based on carboxy-fluorescein diacetate (5-CFDA, 5,6-CFDA, 5,6-CFDA,SE). Biofilm-forming strains of *L. monocytogenes*, *E.coli* O157:H7, and *Salmonella* serovars were detected using the chosen substrate in a microplate fluorescence assay define previously for use with *Listeria*. Adherence levels were determined by differences in relative fluorescence units (RFU). Multiple hydrolytic enzymes were examined for each representative pathogen for the most suitable enzyme for detachment and enumeration to confirm data obtained by fluorescence assay. Cultures were grown overnight in microplates, incubated, washed and replenished with fresh sterile growth medium; this cycle was repeated 7 times before used as 'biofilms'. All treatments were performed in triplicate and compared by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine significant differences ($p < 0.05$). Analysis of 7-day biofilms by SEM indicated possible extracellular polysaccharide involvement with *Salmonella* and *E. coli*.

Keywords: Biofilm, carboxyfluorescein diacetate, *Listeria monocytogenes*, *Salmonella*, *E. coli* O157:H7, microplate assay.

1. Introduction

The development of a biofilm usually involves a cellular adherence event that develops into irreversible attachment followed by development of a 3-dimensional biofilm that progresses into a mature and intricate biofilm [1]. During this progression, cells or portions may slough off that are distributed elsewhere [2]. The initial or reversible attachment of planktonic cells to surfaces involves hydrophilic/hydrophobic interactions whereas the subsequent irreversible attachment is due to the development of stronger covalent bonds [3]. Attachment is affected by the physiochemical properties

of the surface, hydrodynamics, bacterial properties, and may also involve quorum sensing [4]. After attachment, micro-colonies are rapidly formed and the secretion of extracellular polysaccharide (EPS) starts to develop, becoming the 'glue' of the biofilm architecture. As biofilms mature, higher densities of EPS, channels, and pores results in the positioning of bacteria away from the substrate surface and facilitates release of planktonic cells or sloughing off as displaced biofilm particles [5]. This can occur due to environmental shear forces, fluid dynamics, or abrasion [4]. Biofilms are generally problematic wherever they are found and may cause biofouling on the bottom of boats [6], in plumbing systems [7], on medical devices (intravenous catheters) and dental surfaces (plaque) [8,9]. Biofilms may also be involved in adverse health consequences when found on equipment surfaces in food manufacturing [10,11].

Traditional methods used to quantify bacterial adherence on surfaces have included crystal violet staining (microscopic view) or absorbance readings [12,13]. An *in situ* fluorescence assay to assess the relative degree of attached bacteria has been implemented based on flow cytometry technique whereby individual fluorescing cells are quantified as they pass a laser beam. The procedure was used to screen adherence properties of various strains of *Listeria monocytogenes* [14]. Many strategies have been developed to disperse biofilms, as they pose a threat in food industries, dairy plants, prosthetic devices, human health (plaque) and many other areas [4,15,16]. The use of proteolytic enzymes has been suggested to detach or disintegrate biofilms [14,17]. Cellulases, lipases and proteases have been used to detach adhered *L. monocytogenes* cells from different surfaces. The detachment of cells was enumerated by plating cells after enzyme treatment of biofilm coated wells. The recovered cell counts helped quantify the detached cells. Maximum detachment of cells was obtained with BAX-protease enzyme [14]. In the current work we used repeated microplate culture to develop a challenging biofilm to facilitate future studies on sanitizer/antimicrobial effectiveness and the use of enzymatic detachment to readily allow bacterial enumeration of biofilms created with *Listeria monocytogenes*, *E. coli* O157:H7, and *Salmonella*.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Bacterial strains and growth conditions.

A variety of *E. coli* O157:H7, *L. monocytogenes*, and *Salmonella* serovars and strains from our culture collection were screened by a microplate adherence screening assay to confirm or identify high level adherence. Select, strongly-adherent strains from each genus were then further used for optimization of biofilm formation and enzyme detachment (enumeration recovery) assays such that they could be used for evaluation of sanitizers in subsequent studies. Cultures were stored frozen by centrifuging 9 ml of overnight cultures and re-suspending the pellets in 2-3 ml of fresh sterile BHI broth containing 10% glycerol and then stored in glass vials in an ultra-low freezer (-80°C). The frozen stocks were thawed and revived by transferring 100 µl into 9 ml of Brain Heart Infusion (BHI) broth. The BHI tubes with cultures were then incubated overnight at 30° C and sub-cultured at least twice before use in assays. Microbial enumeration for all the assays was carried out on Tryptic Soy Agar (TSA) plates, plated in duplicate. Although we screened a variety of strains in our culture collection, the main organisms used in this study were: *L. monocytogenes* 99-38, isolated from ground beef [14], *E. coli* O157:H7 F-4546, an outbreak isolate from alfalfa sprouts [18], and *Salmonella* Montevideo FSIS 051, an isolate from beef [19].

2.2. Microplate adherence assay.

Various parameters were tested on biofilms grown in microplates such as type of fluorescent dye, number of washes, age of biofilms, and enzymatic release of attached cells for microbial enumeration before settling on a standardized assay prior to use in testing sanitizers against biofilms produced by these organisms.

2.2.1 Fluorescence substrate.

The single-isomer substrate 5-carboxyfluorescein diacetate (5-CFDA) and mixed-isomer substrates 5,6-carboxyfluorescein diacetate (5,6-CFDA) and 5,6-carboxyfluorescein diacetate, succinimidyl ester (5,6-CFDA, SE; Molecular Probes/Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) were compared for the ability to produce fluorescence signals in a microplate biofilm assay and hence to determine which one was a more suitable substrate for our application. The fluorescent dyes were dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) to get 2% (w/v) stock solutions. Working solutions were prepared thereafter by allocating 10 µl of the stock solutions to 1 ml of Tris buffer (0.05 M, pH 7.4). The best performing fluorophore above was incubated with serial dilutions of planktonic cells of *L. monocytogenes* 99-38 to determine if the fluorophore would be overwhelmed by high cell levels that are likely to be present in extended biofilms. Fluorescent signals were read in a Tecan GENios plate reader (Phenix Research Products, Hayward, CA) using a fixed signal gain of 75% with excitation at 485 nm and detection at 535 nm.

2.2.2 Microplates as a substrate for attachment and biofilm formation.

Black, non-treated 96-well flat-bottomed microplates (Cat: 237105, NUNC, Denmark) were used to perform fluorescence assays and determine adherence of bacteria. Black plates prevent “cross-talk” from neighboring wells during fluorescence measurement and fluorescence signals can be read from the top. When fluorescence was not needed, sterile Falcon 96-well clear, non-treated flat-bottomed polystyrene microplates (Cat: 351172, Corning, NY) were used to grow microbial biofilms and perform subsequent washing, detachment, and enumeration assays.

2.2.3 Microplate washing.

The microplates used for detachment and lethality assays were subjected to a wash treatment in a Biotek Elx405 Magna plate washer (Ipswich, Suffolk, United Kingdom). This microplate washer was connected to separate liquid supply containers (10% bleach, sterile de-ionized water, or 0.05 M Tris buffer, pH 7.4) and to additional waste containers. The plate washer has 96 pairs of needles (a longer one for aspiration and a shorter one for dispensing) to draw liquids into, and out of, each of the wells and a shake parameter to shake the plate to re-suspend settled cells, or to release loosely adhered cells, before washing. Before washing the bacterial-adhered 96-well microplates, maintenance cycles were performed to sanitize the plate washer needles and tubing by washing with 10% bleach (2 times), followed by sterile de-ionized water (3 times), and sterile Tris buffer (2 times).

In order to determine how many washes were sufficient to remove loosely adhered cells from microplates prior to enzymatic treatment, we set up a series of plates that would be washed 1-4 times with 0.05 M Tris buffer (pH 7.4) using the ‘shake’ option in the Elx405 plate washer during each wash. After each wash series, buffer was added manually to microplates, shaken for 10 sec, and then recovered and plated for enumeration of planktonic cell counts.

2.3 Enzymatic detachment of adhered cells from microplates.

A variety of enzymes were used that act on different microbial substrates that may be involved with attachment to surfaces. Previously, we examined similar enzymes for ability to release *L. monocytogenes* [14]; in this study we again examined a similar set of enzymes for ability to release *L. monocytogenes* when attached to microplate surfaces, but also included *E. coli*, and *Salmonella*.

2.3.1 Enzymes for microbial detachment.

Bax protease (DuPont Qualicon, Wilmington, DE) was obtained as a premade solution and used as per manufacturer's guideline [12.5 µl in 1 ml Tris buffer (0.05M, pH 7.4)] [14]. The specific protease and concentration/activity is undisclosed as it is a proprietary solution for their PCR kit.

Pronase E (P5147, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) from *Streptomyces griseus* was obtained in powdered form with activity of 5.3 U/mg. The working solution was prepared at concentration of 500 U/ml. For this purpose, 0.4715 gm of Pronase E powder was added to 5 ml of sterile Tris (0.05 M, pH 7.4), dissolved and filter sterilized (0.22 micron filter) to get a stock solution of 500 U/ml.

Trypsin (T4549, Sigma-Aldrich) from porcine pancreas was another protease enzyme used in this research. It was obtained in liquid (solution) form with an activity of 1485.9 U/ml. We examined trypsin at two concentrations, the original (1485.9 U/ml) and diluted to 500 U/ml.

Papain (5125, EMD Millipore Corp., Billerica, MA) from *Carica papaya* had a listed activity of 31,850 U/mg and a stock solution was prepared in 10 ml Tris (0.05 M, pH 7.4) at a concentration of 1000 U/ml.

Cellulase (C1184, Sigma-Aldrich) from *Aspergillus niger* was used in same concentration as pronase E i.e. 100 enzyme units (U) per 200 µl. The activity for cellulase was marked as 1.3 units/ mg solid and hence 1.92 grams of cellulase powder was added to 5 ml Tris (0.05 M, pH 7.4) to get desired stock solution concentration of 500 U/ml.

Lipase (L1754, Sigma-Aldrich) from *Candida rugosa* had activity of 1,170 U/mg solid. Lipase powder (2.14 mg) was dissolved in 5 ml of Tris (0.05 M, pH 7.4) to get a concentration of 500 U/ml and filter (0.22 micron) sterilized.

2.3.2 Enzymatic detachment and enumeration assay.

In order to obtain a plate count enumeration of biofilm-adhered bacteria, either before (controls) or after enzyme treatment (experimental), we had to evaluate and optimize the best method to detach and recover viable cells. For this purpose, overnight cultures (~10⁹ CFU/ml) of the three most strongly-adherent pathogenic microbes (one from each of the three genera) were diluted to ~10⁴ CFU/ml in BHI broth. A 200 µl aliquot of each culture was allocated, in triplicate, into Falcon 96-well microplates. The microplates were sealed with Parafilm (Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) to avoid evaporation and then incubated at 30°C for 24 hours. After 24 hours, the wells were washed 3 times with Tris buffer (0.05 M; pH 7.4) in a Biotec Elx405 Magna plate washer as described earlier. A 'shaking' option was used to wash off loosely adherent cells in addition to re-suspending settled planktonic cells. This was followed by the addition of fresh BHI (200 µl) into the wells and an additional incubation for 24 hours at 30°C. The same process of washing with Tris buffer and adding fresh BHI into wells was repeated each day for one week. After 7 days of washing and incubating, the final wash with Tris buffer using the plate washer (with shaking) was performed and 200 µl of different enzymes at the earlier stated concentrations were transferred into the experimental wells. After the addition of enzymes, the microplate was incubated for an hour at 37°C. Finally, to get detached cell counts, the

solutions from the wells were further diluted and plated on Tryptic Soy Agar (TSA) plates and incubated at 30°C for 24-36 hours.

2.4 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) of biofilms.

Biofilms of the strongly-adherent strains screened and confirmed by fluorescence microplate assay were examined by scanning electron microscopy (SEM). The individual adherent strains *Listeria monocytogenes* 99-38, *E. coli* O157:H7 F4546, and *Salmonella* Montevideo FSIS 051 were diluted in broth media ($\sim 10^4$ log cfu/ml in BHI media; 300 μ L) and dispensed into Millicell EZ Slide 8 wells (Millipore Sigma, Sheboygan Falls, WI), sealed with Parafilm (Fisher Scientific) to avoid evaporation, and incubated at 30°C. The media (BHI) in the wells was aspirated, washed with Tris (0.05 M; pH 7.4), and fresh sterile media added daily; this process was repeated for 7 days to get a 7-day old mature biofilm in the wells. A standard protocol provided by Oklahoma State University's Electron Microscopy lab was used to fix, dry and coat the samples before imaging. Cells were fixed for 2 h in 2.0% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer (21.4 g sodium cacodylate brought to 500 ml with dH₂O). The slides were then rinsed 3x in buffered wash (60 ml of 0.2 M cacodylate buffer, 140ml of dH₂O, and 12.3g of sucrose; 15 min/rinse). Adherent cells were again fixed for 1 h in 1% aqueous osmium tetroxide (OsO₄) at room temperature and then rinsed 3x in buffered wash solution (15 min/rinse). This was followed by dehydration in ethanol of different concentrations: 50%, 70%, 90%, 95%, and 100% (3x, 15 min/step) and then the slide(s) were subjected to critical point drying (CPD) or washed 2x for 5 min with HMDS (Hexamethyldisilazane, Sigma-Aldrich). Silver paint or double-sticky tape was used to mount on stubs which were then coated with gold-palladium (Au-Pd) and either visualized, or stored in a dust-free dry area (desiccator) to view later. The visualization of the biofilms was done using a FEI Quanta 600 FEG scanning electron microscope (SEM) at the Oklahoma State University Electron Microscopy Core Facility.

2.5 Statistical analysis.

Each trial was performed in triplicate replication. All data were presented as the mean of triplicate replications and standard deviation of the mean were represented by error bars. Statistical analysis was done by using one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Holm-Sidak test for pairwise multiple comparisons to determine significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

3. Results

3.1. Choice of fluorescent substrate.

We previously demonstrated that the mixed isomer, 5,6-carboxyfluorescein diacetate (5,6-CFDA) was superior to the single isomer 5-carboxyfluorescein diacetate (5-CFDA) for intensity of staining biofilms of *L. monocytogenes* [14] and included it again in this study for comparison of 5,6-CFDA, 5,6-CFDA,SE and 5-CFDA. We obtained lower levels of fluorescence using 5,6-CFDA,SE compared to fluorescence obtained with 5,6-CFDA (Fig. 1A). The 5,6-CFDA fluorophore was also examined for whether the level used was limiting with the high levels of bacterial cells that we observed during enzymatic detachment. When 2-fold dilutions of planktonic bacteria (from $\sim 1 \times 10^9$ cfu/ml) were incubated with the same amount of 5,6-CFDA as used in adherence assays, no loss of signal linearity was observed (Fig. 1B).

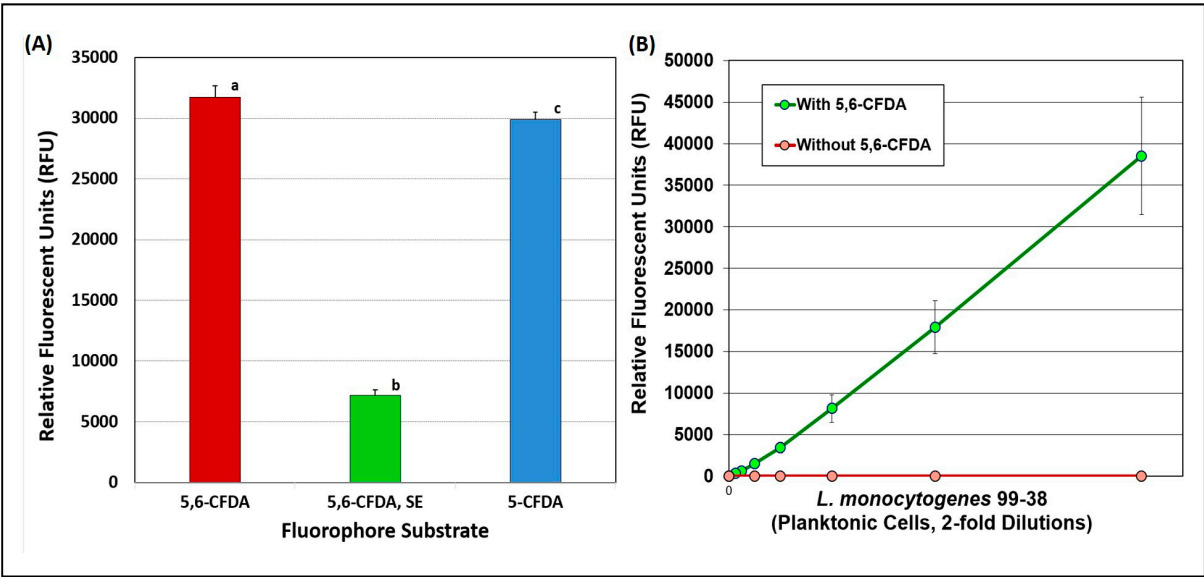


Figure 1. (A) Comparison of fluorescence signals obtained using *L. monocytogenes* 99-38 in microplate fluorescence assay with 5,6-CFDA, 5,6-CFDA,SE, or 5-CFDA. Data are presented as the mean of triplicate replications and error bars represent the standard deviation from the mean. Means with different lowercase letters are significantly different ($P < 0.05$). (B) Two-fold dilutions of planktonic cells incubated with 5,6-CFDA compared to cells without 5,6-CFDA and examined for fluorescence signals (Ex/Em: 485/535 nm). Error bars are the standard deviation of the means of triplicate replications.

3.2. Buffer washes with microplate biofilms.

Extended biofilms (3+ days of repeated media changes) of *L. monocytogenes* were examined for number of washes required to remove ‘loosely retained’ cells prior to enzymatic treatment for biofilm enumeration. When subjected to 4 rounds of buffer washes with automated ‘shaking step’ with each one, we found that 3 washes were sufficient to remove loose cells and further washes did not further diminish the levels of cells that are leaching from the biofilm (Fig. 2).

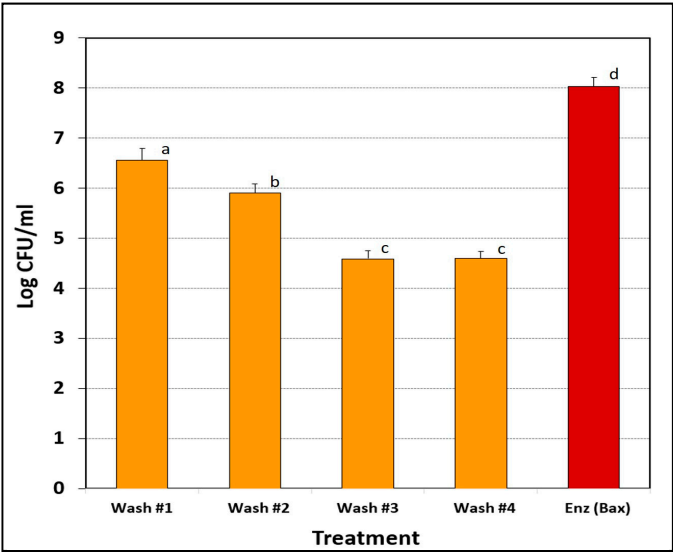


Figure 2. Enumeration of viable cells after multiple buffer washes with 0.05 M Tris buffer (pH 7.4) and after Bax protease treatment (after final wash) of *L. monocytogenes* 99-38 microplate biofilms. Data are presented as the mean of triplicate replications and error bars represent the standard deviation from the mean. Means with different lowercase letters are

significantly different ($p < 0.05$); means with the same lowercase letter are not significantly different ($p > 0.05$).

3.2. Screening of *Listeria monocytogenes*, *Salmonella*, and *E. coli* O157:H7 via fluorescence microplate assay.

Bacterial strains were evaluated by previously established conditions for the fluorescence microplate assay [14]. The adherence characteristics of numerous strains of *L. monocytogenes* isolated from ready-to-eat meat processing facilities has already been examined [20]. In this study, we again confirmed that *Listeria monocytogenes* 99-38 was a strongly-adherent strain in comparison with a ‘weakly-adherent’ *L. monocytogenes* CW35 (Fig. 3A).

Likewise, a fluorescence microplate assay of various serovars of *Salmonella* from our culture collection demonstrated that *Salmonella* Montevideo FSIS 051 was the most adherent strain and could be useful in development of microplate biofilms for testing of various antimicrobial interventions in a convenient microplate format (Fig. 3B).

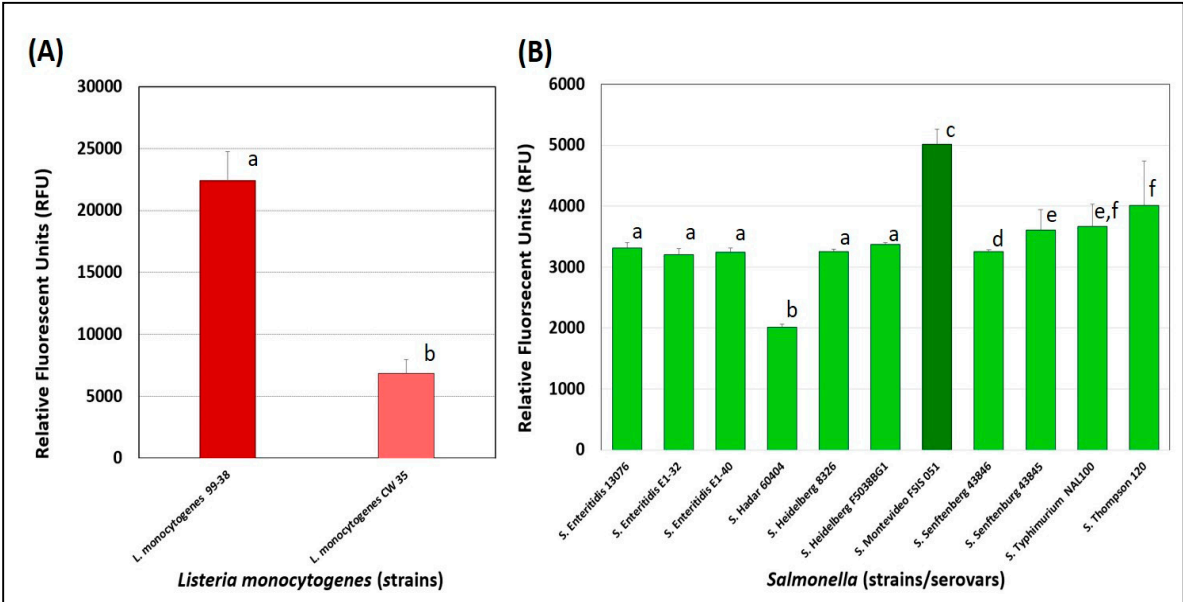


Figure 3. Comparison of adherence of (a) *Listeria monocytogenes* and (b) *Salmonella* by microplate fluorescence assay with 5,6-CFDA. Data are presented as the mean of triplicate replications and error bars represent the standard deviation from the mean. Means with different lowercase letters are significantly different ($p < 0.05$); means with the same lowercase letter are not significantly different ($p > 0.05$).

We also examined a variety of *E. coli* O157:H7 strains in our collection that were isolated from cattle and cattle facilities along with a known biofilm forming *E. coli* O157:H7 strain (F-4546) to screen for strong adherence as an indication of potent biofilm formation using the fluorescent adherence assay (Fig. 4). Although some strains were moderately adherent (K-3995, K-4492), none were as strongly adherent as the *E. coli* O157:H7 F-4546 control strain that is known for adherence (Fig. 4)

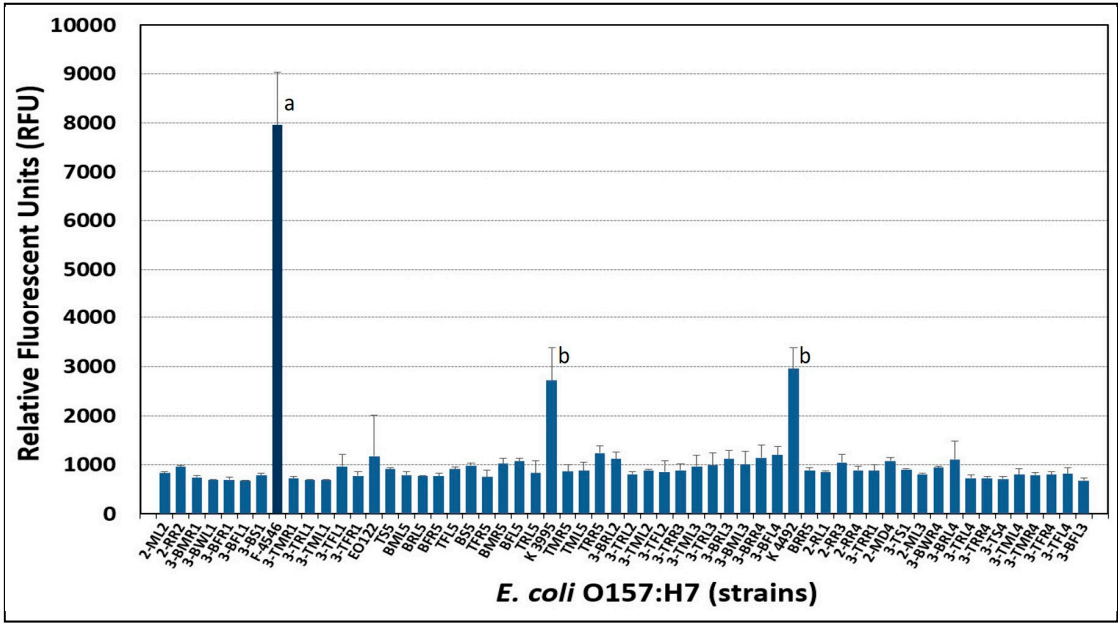


Figure 4. Comparison of adherence of various strains of *E. coli* O157:H7 by microplate fluorescence assay with 5,6-CFDA. Data are presented as the mean of triplicate replications and error bars represent the standard deviation from the mean. Means with different lowercase letters are significantly different ($p < 0.05$); means with the same lowercase letter are not significantly different ($p > 0.05$).

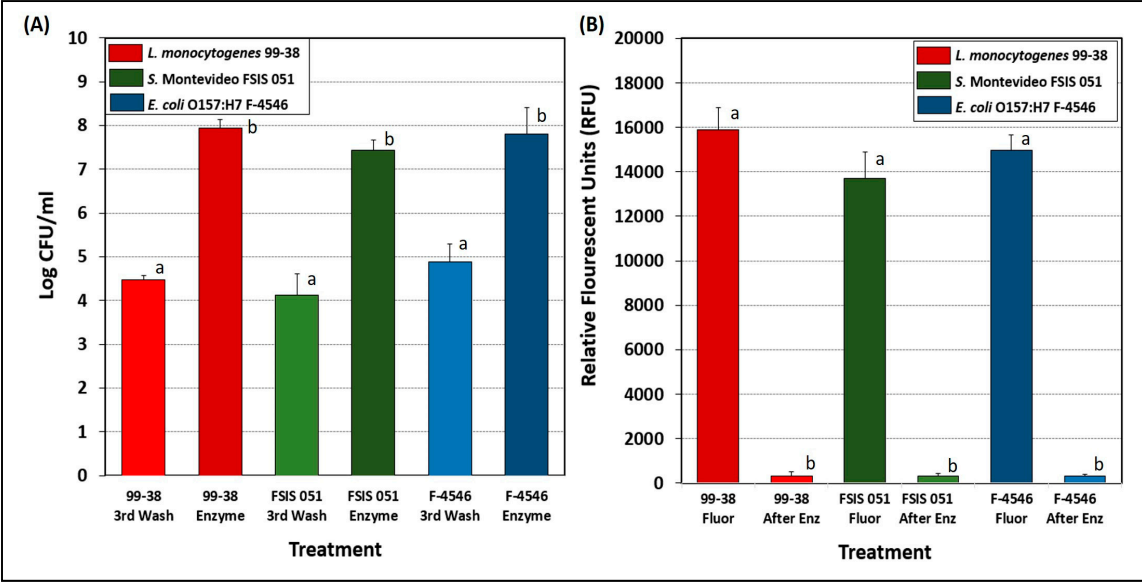


Figure 5. Comparison of enumeration and fluorescence data with *L. monocytogenes* 99-38, *Salmonella* Montevideo FSIS 051, and *E. coli* F-4546, before and after enzyme treatment of microplate biofilms. (A) Cell enumeration after 3rd round wash buffer followed by Bax protease release of adhered cells from microplates. (B) Fluorescence of biofilms with 5,6-CFDA before and after Bax protease treatment to release bacterial cells. Data are presented as the mean of triplicate replications and error bars represent the standard deviation from the mean. Significant differences of data from treatments with the same strain; data with different lowercase letters are significantly different ($p < 0.05$).

3.3. Development of expanded biofilms in microplates.

In previous studies, we initially used a short 2-3 day repeated incubation in microplates to establish differences in the abilities of different strains to adhere to microplate surfaces [14]. In this study, we were preparing to establish conditions for a robust biofilm for use in subsequent studies. This was done by repeated cycles of growth, adherence, washing away of planktonic/loose cells, and addition of sterile media to continue growth from those cells attached to microplate surfaces. Using the pronase E to recover and enumerate attached bacterial cells from microplates similarly as described previously with Bax protease [14]. The data shows that we were able to incrementally increased the level of adhered cells by >12-fold over 7-days (Fig. 6).

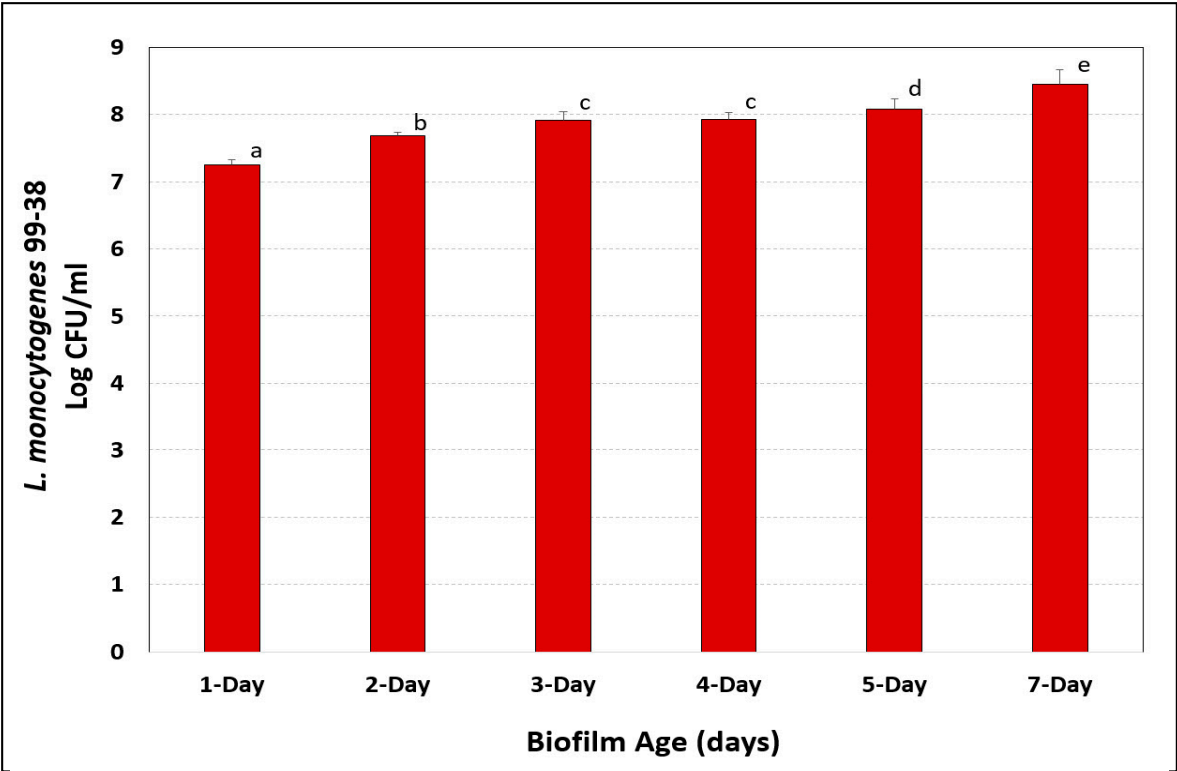


Figure 6. Enumeration of *L. monocytogenes* 99-38 biofilm levels over time after repeated incubation in microplates. Planktonic cells were removed daily, washed with buffer, and replaced with fresh sterile media. Attached cells were enumerated by detachment with pronase E and represented as the means of triplicate replications; error bars represent the standard deviation of the means. Bars with different lowercase letters represents significant differences in the means ($p < 0.05$); bars with the same lowercase letters are not significantly different ($p > 0.05$).

3.4. Evaluation of various enzymes for bacterial detachment and enumeration.

In prior assays, we have used both Bax protease [14] and pronase E (Fig. 6) for enumerating detached cells from surfaces. As we were trying to establish a set protocol that would be used to examine antimicrobials against biofilms of multiple pathogens, we decided to re-evaluate various enzymes to identify one that would be more suitable for all 3 pathogens that we have been working with to treat and enumerate bacterial cells in extended biofilms.

Although all the enzymes tested worked to obtain high level counts from 7-day biofilms, three were nearly equal for both *L. monocytogenes* 99-38 and *E. coli* O157:H7 F4546, including Bax protease, pronase E, and trypsin (Fig. 7). However, for *Salmonella*, there was a clear difference between trypsin and the other enzymes (Fig. 7).

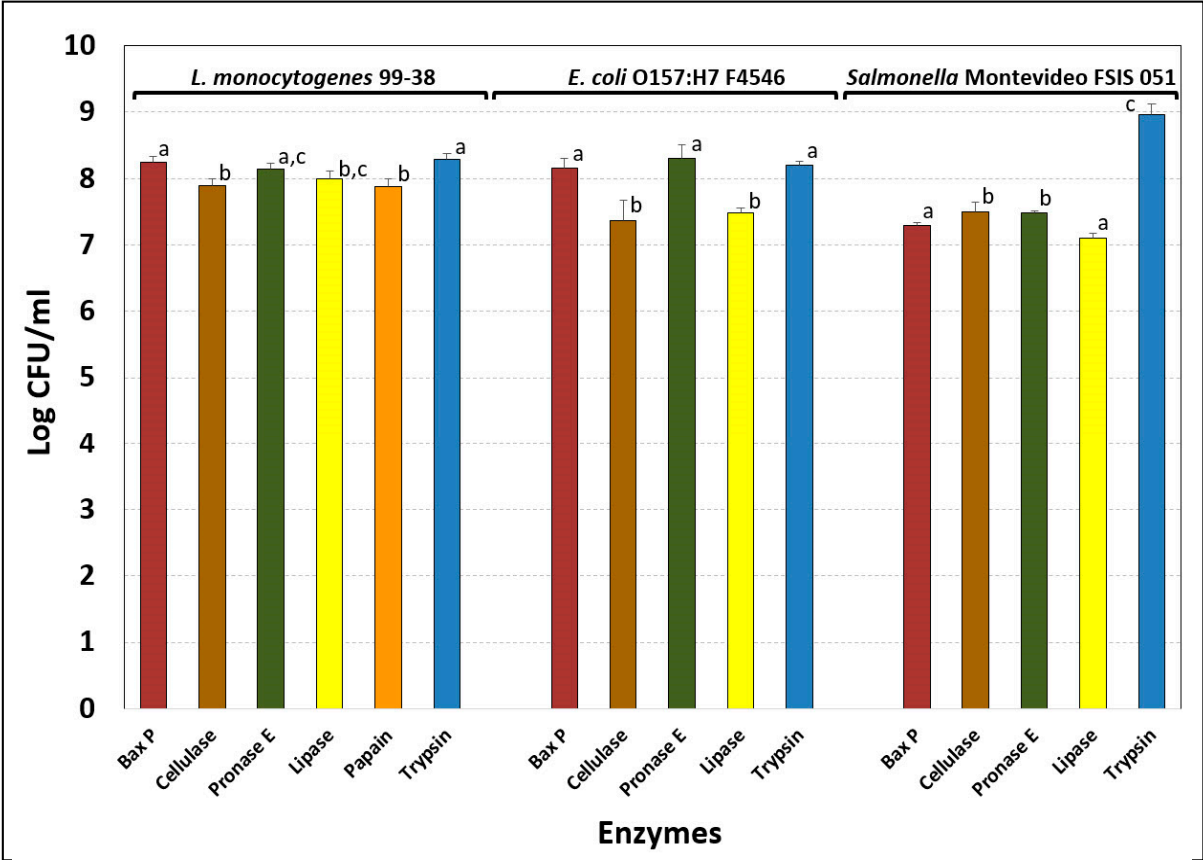


Figure 7. End point enumeration of *L. monocytogenes* 99-38 biofilm levels detached after treatment with various enzymes; Bax protease, cellulase, pronase E, papain, trypsin, or lipase. Planktonic cells were washed and replaced daily with fresh sterile media for up to 7 days. The levels of detachment are represented in terms of average log CFU/ml; data bars represent the means of triplicate replications and error bars represent standard deviation of the means. Data bars with different lowercase letters represent significant differences in the means ($p < 0.05$); data bars with the same lowercase letters are not significantly different ($p > 0.05$).

The 7-day biofilms for *L. monocytogenes* 99-38, *E. coli* F4546, and *Salmonella* Montevideo FSIS 051 were also visibly different (Fig. 8). The *Listeria* looked like clean, naked hotdogs (Fig. 8A) while the *E. coli* (Fig. 8B) and *Salmonella* (Fig. 8C) appeared to be coated with a film. Each of these biofilms provided >8 log CFU/ml in 200-300 μ l when recovered from microplate wells (with trypsin) and enumerated on petri plates (Fig. 7).

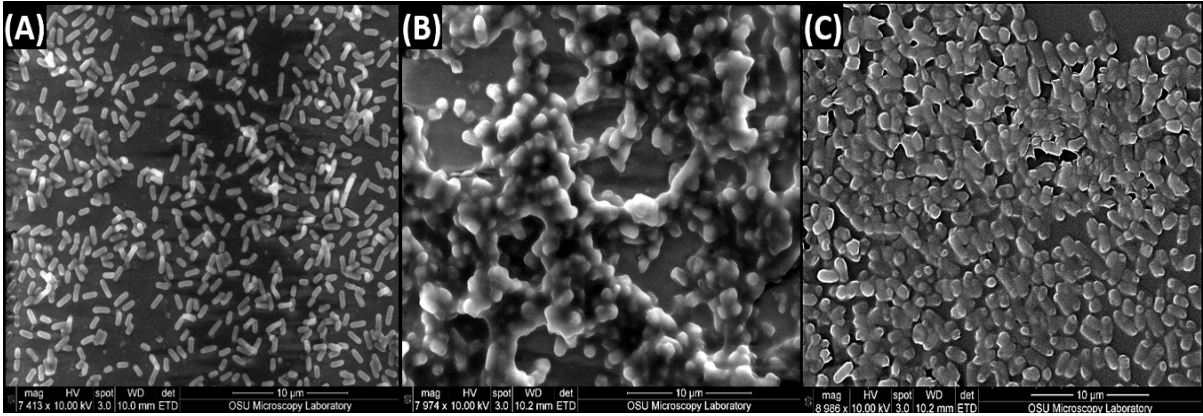


Figure 8. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) of extended 7-day biofilms prepared on slide chambers from (A) *Listeria monocytogenes* 99-38, (B) *E. coli* O157:H7 F4546, and (C) *Salmonella* Montevideo FSIS 051.

297 **4. Discussion**

298 Biofilm growth has been measured in different ways, from plating cells collected from surface
299 swabs to staining of biofilms with crystal violet. Biofilms in microplates have been stained with
300 crystal violet and absorbance measurements taken from dye recovered in destaining solutions [21,22],
301 or biofilms stained with crystal violet have been measured directly in microplates with a plate reader
302 [23], to vortexing with glass beads to recover cells for enumeration [24] or sonication after enzyme
303 treatment to dislodge cells [25]. Microplate adherence and fluorescence visualization was examined
304 to mimic flow cytometry where individual cells were ‘counted’ based on internalized fluorophores;
305 we presumed that the method could be exploited for a qualitative assessment of adherence by cells
306 attached *in situ* to microplate wells and using a fluorescence reader.

307 In prior and current studies to select the strongest adhering strains, we chose to use ‘non-treated’
308 microplates in order to assess the bacterial strains’ inherent and unaided ability to adhere (i.e.,
309 ‘treated’ are often used with tissue culture assays to promote adherence). Although we continued to
310 use the non-treated microplates in the development of biofilms, it is possible that treated plates could
311 subsequently be used to provide even more formidable biofilms for use in challenge studies with
312 antimicrobials and sanitizers. Flat-bottom microplates are also important when using microplate
313 washers as those with curved bottoms might interfere with lowering of the paired needles into the
314 plates and/or leave significant amounts of wash fluid behind.

315 Fluorescein is a fluorescing compound that can freely diffuse through cell membranes. Its use
316 became popularized by applications in flow cytometry visualization [26], vital staining of live/dead
317 bacterial cells [27], and applications allowing visualization by microscopy and studies in apoptosis
318 [28]. It can also be quenched by modification with diacetate which provides an advantage in that only
319 intracellular CFDA will fluoresce when it is hydrolyzed by esterases in the cytoplasm of bacterial
320 cells, causing a significant spike in intracellular fluorescence. Unmodified fluorescein can also
321 fluoresce externally to the cells. Therefore it is unnecessary to wash extracellular 5,6-CFDA away
322 from treated cells as it doesn’t fluoresce (but we do it anyway). The purported benefit of the succinyl
323 ester of 5,6-CFDA (5,6-CFDA,SE) was that in addition to the diacetate modification, the -SE
324 modification would allow it to be retained longer intracellularly because of the propensity to bind to
325 amino groups. Fuller et al. [29] used 5,6-CFDA,SE to follow the fate of labelled bacterial cells under
326 no growth conditions for 28 days in groundwater sediment microcosms as they retained fluorescence
327 during this time period. This feature may have not have been useful in our application as
328 measurements were always made immediately after incubation with fluorophore substrate, however
329 prior data showed that fluorescence levels change over time and we wondered whether this
330 modification would stabilize intracellular fluorescence levels to achieve higher and more sensitive
331 detection levels. We found that 5,6-CFDA not only performed better than 5-CFDA or 5,6-CFDA,SE
332 (Fig. 1A), but was also significantly less expensive than the other fluorophores. The use of 5,6-CFDA
333 in our application has been to qualitatively indicate degree of adherence of cells as in a biofilm. When
334 5,6-CFDA was mixed with serial dilutions of planktonic cells, we observed a linearity of signal even
335 with the least diluted (highest) level of cells while using the same amount of fluorophore substrate
336 suggesting that the levels used in our biofilm assays were not limiting (Fig. 1B). The fact that biofilm
337 adhered cells are likely diffusion limited compared to planktonic cells further suggests that levels of
338 fluorophore are not limiting in our biofilm assays.

339 Microplate biofilms comprised of *L. monocytogenes* 99-38 were washed multiple times with buffer
340 before enzymatic treatment in order to remove the final media containing bacterial broth culture and
341 any loosely adhered cells so that the resulting enzymatic enumerations would be more representative
342 of the biofilm population. The plate washer had a built-in shake mode that provided a standardized
343 shaking regimen between washes that helped to release loosely held cells attached directly to the
344 substrate surface or to other cells. We proceeded with washes until the level of planktonic cells
345 recovered in buffer stabilized as a measure of a sufficient degree of washing as there is likely to
346 always be a release of some proportion of cells from the biofilm (Fig. 2).

347 In establishing conditions for *Listeria*, *Salmonella*, and *E. coli* biofilms, we had previously
348 performed a robust screening of numerous strains of *L. monocytogenes* and again confirmed *L.*

monocytogenes 99-38 [14] as a robust, strongly-adherent strain that would serve well in the formation of biofilms in this study (Fig. 3A). We further screened strains of *E. coli* O157:H7 and *Salmonella* in our collection that could also be representative of good biofilm formers in preparation of a project to evaluate sanitizers on biofilms of *Listeria*, *Salmonella*, and *E. coli* O157:H7. Among the *Salmonella* strains/serovars in our collection, *Salmonella* Montevideo FSIS 051 was significantly more adherent than the other strains tested (Fig. 3B). *E. coli* F-4546, a control strain implicated in biofilm formation [30], was also the most adherent from among the 58 strains of *E. coli* O157:H7 tested (Fig. 4). Based on the fluorescent microplate data with these strains, we continued optimization of biofilm adherence with *L. monocytogenes* 99-38, *Salmonella* Montevideo FSIS 051, and *E. coli* F-4546 (Figs. 3 and 4).

The wash parameter was examined for all 3 of the selected strains (99-39, FSIS 051, and F-4546) to insure that significantly lower levels were in the final wash than were when recovered after protease treatment (Fig. 5A). Although seemingly high levels of cells are still recovered in the wash buffer, they represent a small proportion relative to the levels attached to the well surfaces (Fig. 5A). Similar ‘before and after’ trials using fluorescence assays were performed with a full biofilm load and compared to similar wells after detachment of cells with protease, washing with buffer, and application of fluorescent substrate (Fig. 5B). The absence of significant detectable signal after enzyme treatment supports the data obtained with enumeration after enzymatic detachment. Further, since application of 5,6-CFDA did not affect viability of cells, wells treated with the fluorophore and examined on the plate reader could be subsequently treated with protease and plated so that plate counts could be obtained for the same wells used for fluorescence measurements.

At a recent food safety meeting, data was presented with 1-24 hr surface-attached cells defined as biofilms, resulting in an ensuing discussion on “what degree of surface attachment and growth constitutes a biofilm”? In preparation for an upcoming study that would assess the effect of sanitizers on biofilms, we decided to increase the robustness of our biofilms by starting with a dilution of cells in media that would initiate growth with repeated cycling of buffer wash, fresh media, incubation, and growth, repeated daily for 7 days. Microplate biofilms were examined in 1-to-7 day increments (i.e., different plates for the respective days) by enzymatic detachment and enumeration of cell levels to insure that incremental increases were occurring during the extended cycle times (Fig. 6). It was also good to re-examine the enzymes that could be used to detach bacterial cells for all 3 organisms used in our repertoire for microplate biofilm assays since we did not previously examine biofilms from *E. coli* or *Salmonella*. Using a variety of enzymes, Bax protease, pronase E, and trypsin enumerated comparable levels of detached cells for *L. monocytogenes* 99-38 and *E. coli* F-4546 (Fig. 7). However, trypsin was significantly better in providing higher counts than the other enzymes with *Salmonella* Montevideo FSIS 051 and therefore trypsin was the enzyme of choice going forward (Fig. 7). Trypsin was a reasonable choice because it has been long been used in tissue culture studies for releasing tissue culture cells from flasks [31] and further, it is the least expensive of the enzymes used in this study, and is often sold in a convenient liquid form.

SEM examination of 7-day biofilms found visual differences between them (Fig. 8). After 7-days of recycling media addition, incubation, buffer washes, fresh media, and repeat, SEM analysis of *L. monocytogenes* 99-38 biofilms looked like clean cells attached to a surface (Fig. 8A) whereby *S. Montevideo* FSIS 051 (Fig. 8B) and *E. coli* F-4546 (Fig. 8C) appear as a matt of overlapping cells with a ‘coating’ on the bacterial cells. This difference could be due to the presence of extracellular polysaccharides that Gram-negative bacteria are known to produce [32].

5. Conclusions

We feel that we have improved our prior microplate biofilm assay that includes fluorescence analysis for qualitative assessment of cellular attachment and enzymatic detachment for quantification of cell enumeration. For the bacteria we have chosen, 5,6-CFDA and trypsin are both the most effective and least expensive of the alternative components we examined. Bacteria continue to leach from such biofilms, as shown in our buffer wash study, and mimics similar situations in food processing facilities where potential contact surface biofilms may contaminate passing foods as foci of contamination. We hope to examine the effect of sanitizers on these extended biofilms that would

reflect a potential problem in food processing plants where sanitation may be lacking or insufficiently applied, resulting in the accumulation of pathogenic biofilms. It will be interesting to see if the observation of potential EPS coating of *Salmonella* and *E. coli* biofilms affects sanitizer lethality on biofilms related to these organisms.

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