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1 **Lethal effects of high intensity violet 405-nm light on *Saccharomyces***
2 ***cerevisiae*, *Candida albicans* and on dormant and germinating spores**
3 **of *Aspergillus niger***

4
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18 **Running Title:** 405-nm light inactivation of fungi

19

20 **Keywords:** *Aspergillus*; yeast; 405-nm light; spores; germination; inactivation.

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27 **Abstract**

28 This study assessed the effects of high intensity violet light on selected yeast and
29 mould fungi. Cell suspensions of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, *Candida albicans* and
30 dormant and germinating spores (conidia) of the mould *Aspergillus niger* were
31 exposed to high intensity narrow band violet light with peak output at 405 nm
32 generated from a light emitting diode (LED) array. All three fungal species were
33 inactivated by the 405nm light without a requirement for addition of exogenous
34 photosensitiser chemicals. Of the fungal species tested, *S. cerevisiae* was most
35 sensitive and dormant conidia of *A. niger* were most resistant to 405nm light
36 exposure. Five \log_{10} CFUml⁻¹ reductions of the tested species required exposure doses
37 of 288 J cm⁻² for *S. cerevisiae*, 576 J cm⁻² for *C. albicans* and a much higher value of
38 2.3 kJ cm⁻² for dormant conidia of *A. niger*. During germination, *A. niger* conidia
39 became more sensitive to 405 nm light exposure and sensitivity increased as
40 germination progressed over an 8 hour test period. Light exposure under aerobic and
41 anaerobic conditions, together with results obtained using ascorbic acid as a
42 scavenger of reactive oxygen species, revealed that 405-nm light inactivation in fungi
43 involved an oxygen-dependent mechanism, as previously described in bacteria. The
44 inactivation results achieved with yeast cells and fungal spores together with
45 operational advantages associated with the use of a visible (non UV) light source
46 highlights the potential of 405-nm light for fungal decontamination applications.

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51 **1. Introduction**

52 There have been extensive studies carried out on the effects of light on the biology of
53 fungal organisms with numerous reports published on effects on growth, metabolism
54 and differentiation. There has also been considerable interest in the application of
55 light-based technologies, using specific light wavelengths and intensities, for the
56 inactivation and control of problematic fungal organisms. Ultraviolet light (UV) in
57 particular has been extensively studied as an inactivation technology for destruction
58 of pathogenic and spoilage microorganisms including fungi and yeasts (Begum et al.
59 2009). Although UV-light can be effective, it has limitations as a decontamination
60 technology due to its low penetration into opaque liquids and solids, photodegradation
61 of plastics, and human exposure safety issues (Elmnasser et al., 2007).. These
62 limitations associated with UV-light radiation create potential opportunities for
63 alternative light-based decontamination technologies that are safer to use and cause
64 less degradation of photosensitive materials.

65

66 Novel technologies utilising visible wavelengths of light, most notably in the
67 violet/blue region of the electromagnetic spectrum that induce so-called
68 photodynamic inactivation (PDI) of microorganisms have been developed.
69 Traditionally PDI has involved the use of dyes and other exogenous photosensitiser
70 molecules coupled with light exposure to induce inactivation, but more recently
71 natural photosensitiser molecules, particularly porphyrins endogenous within
72 microbial cells have been targeted. Exposure of microorganisms to visible light
73 particularly at wavelengths of 405 nm, has been shown to be effective in inactivating
74 a range of bacteria, including Gram positive and Gram negative bacterial species and
75 antibiotic resistant microorganisms such as Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus

76 aureus, and its use has been suggested for a range of medical and environmental
77 decontamination applications (Guffey & Wilborn 2006; Enwemeka et al. 2008;
78 Maclean et al. 2008a; Maclean et al. 2009; Maclean et al, 2010; Murdoch et al. 2012,
79 Dai et al, 2012; Dai et al, 2013). However use of 405-nm light for inactivation of
80 fungal organisms and the inactivation process involved has not been previously
81 reported.

82

83 In prokaryotes, 405-nm light inactivation has been shown to be an oxygen-dependent
84 process that is thought to involve absorption of the 405-nm light by endogenous
85 porphyrin molecules. Light at 405-nm wavelength excites these molecules and leads
86 to transfer of energy. This induces generation of highly reactive singlet oxygen ($^1\text{O}_2$)
87 and other reactive oxygen species (ROS) that cause cellular damage and ultimately
88 cell death (Hamblin & Hasan, 2004; Maclean et al. 2008b; Lipovsky et al. 2010).
89 Studies into broadband light inactivation of fungi have shown the sites of damage
90 caused by singlet oxygen are typically the plasma membrane and mitochondria
91 (Donnelly et al. 2008). This is likely to be where endogenous porphyrins reside in
92 fungi as singlet oxygen can only diffuse a short distance and has a relatively short
93 life-span (10^{-6} s) (Bertoloni et al. 1987; Dougherty et al. 1998; Kalka et al. 2000).

94

95 Fungi in general are considered to be more difficult to inactivate than bacteria by
96 some decontamination procedures because of their larger size and complex structures.
97 UV light studies have shown that fungal spores in particular require higher UV light
98 dosage to achieve the same level of inactivation seen in bacterial cells. A study by
99 Anderson et al. (2000) achieved 7-8- \log_{10} reductions in *Escherichia coli*, *Salmonella*
100 *enteritidis*, and *Bacillus cereus* cells upon exposure to 1000 pulses of high-UV

101 content broadband light, whereas fungal spores from *Fusarium culmorum* and
102 *Aspergillus niger* were only inactivated by 3-4- \log_{10} after treatment. Fungi are also
103 protected from external ROS-induced damage by a thick cell wall containing
104 components such as chitin, mannan, glucan, and various lipids (Donnelly et al. 2008).
105 In addition to the thick outer wall, fungi have a plasma membrane separated from the
106 cell wall by a periplasmic space. This reduces the diffusion of photodynamic
107 sensitising agents, used in PDI, into cells thereby limiting singlet oxygen cell damage.
108

109 The present study sets out to assess the effects of 405-nm light, without the addition
110 of exogenous photosensitisers, on cells of *S. cerevisiae* and *C. albicans* and on
111 dormant and germinating conidia of *A. niger*. These fungal species were chosen due
112 to their recognised significance as test organisms in scientific studies and because of
113 their applied importance in medical, industrial and food mycology (Straus, 2009;
114 Mean et al. 2008; Luksiene et al. 2004; Blacketer et al. 1993). This study also aims to
115 determine whether the 405-nm light inactivation of fungi involves an oxygen-
116 dependant mechanism as has been established in similar studies on bacterial species.
117

118 **2. Materials and Methods**

119 **2.1 Yeast Preparation**

120 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* MUCL 28749 and *Candida albicans* MUCL 29903
121 cultures were obtained from the Mycotheque de l'Universite catholique de Louvain
122 (MUCL) (part of The Belgian Co-ordinated Collections of Microorganisms (BCCM)).
123 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *C. albicans* were inoculated into 100 ml Malt Extract
124 Broth and Malt Extract Broth with 0.1 % yeast extract, respectively (Oxoid, UK).
125 After incubation for 18-24 hours at 30°C and 37°C for *S. cerevisiae* and *C. albicans*,

126 respectively, broths were centrifuged at $3939 \times g$ for 10 minutes and the resultant cell
127 pellet was re-suspended in 100 ml phosphate buffered saline (PBS; Oxoid, UK).
128 Yeast suspensions were serially diluted to give an approximate starting population of
129 $\sim 2.0 \times 10^5$ CFU ml⁻¹ for experimental use.

130

131 **2.2 Aspergillus niger Spore and Mycelia Preparations**

132 *Aspergillus niger* MUCL 38993 was obtained from the Mycotheque de l'Universite
133 catholique de Louvain (MUCL). *Aspergillus niger* spores were inoculated onto Malt
134 Extract Agar slopes and grown at 30°C for five days to produce sufficient conidial
135 production (spore production) for use in experimentation. Slopes were flooded with
136 PBS containing one drop of Tween 80 (Sigma, UK) (added to prevent aggregation of
137 spores) and the end of a plastic L-shaped spreader was used to gently remove spores
138 from the surface of the agar slope. One-ml of the resultant solution was then pipetted
139 into 9 ml of PBS before the spores were counted using an Improved Neubauer
140 haemocytometer (Weber Scientific International, UK) to ascertain the population
141 density of the spore suspension. Spore suspensions were then diluted to $\sim 2.0 \times 10^5$
142 CFU ml⁻¹ for experimental use. *A. niger* mycelia were cultured by inoculating 100 µL
143 *A. niger* spores into 100 mL Malt Extract Broth and incubating under rotary
144 conditions (120 rpm) for 24 hours at 30°C. Mycelia were then dispersed by
145 stomaching (Don Whitley Scientific, UK) in PBS.

146

147

148 **2.3 High Intensity 405-nm light source**

149 High-intensity 405-nm light was produced by an indium-gallium-nitride (InGaN) 99-
150 DIE light-emitting diode (LED) array (Opto Diode Corp, USA), with a centre

151 wavelength (CW) of around 405 nm and a bandwidth of ~10 nm at full-width half-
152 maximum (FWHM). In effect although the light source produced light of 405 nm (± 5
153 nm), this will, for convenience, be referred throughout the text as 405-nm light. The
154 LED array was powered by a DC power supply, and a cooling fan and heat sink were
155 attached to the array to dissipate heat from the source, which also served to minimise
156 heat transfer to the sample throughout treatment. The LED array was mounted in a
157 PVC housing designed to fit a 12-well plate (NUNC, Denmark), with the array
158 positioned directly above one of the central sample wells. Irradiance levels of 40 and
159 63 mW cm^{-2} at the surface of the fungal suspensions were used for exposure of the
160 yeast and spore samples, respectively, and the applied light dose was calculated as the
161 product of the irradiance (W cm^{-2}) multiplied by the exposure time (s).

162

163 **2.4 High-intensity 405-nm Light Inactivation Method**

164 A 3 ml volume of yeast or fungal spore suspension was pipetted into a sample well
165 giving a liquid depth of approximately 10 mm. A micro-magnetic follower was
166 placed in the well, and the plate placed onto a magnetic stirring plate for continuous
167 agitation of the sample. The LED array was placed directly above the sample well,
168 with a distance of approximately 2 cm between the light source and the liquid surface,
169 and samples were exposed to increasing durations of high-intensity 405-nm light.
170 Control samples which received no high-intensity 405-nm light exposure were also
171 set-up. Temperature of fungal samples was monitored using a thermocouple to ensure
172 there was no build-up of heat from the LED arrays during this exposure time.

173

174 **2.5 Oxygen Dependence Experiments**

175 Exposure of fungal populations in oxygen-depleted environments was carried out as
176 follows. Fungal suspensions were prepared in an anaerobic cabinet (Don Whitley
177 Scientific, UK) using PBS that had acclimatised in the anaerobic environment for at
178 least an hour before use. 405 nm light exposure of fungal suspensions was then
179 performed in the anaerobic cabinet with the applied doses used being selected based
180 on the lethal dose required to achieve inactivation of each organism in the aerobic
181 (benchtop) experiments. Anaerobic and aerobic non-exposed controls were also set-
182 up for each test sample. To further deplete the levels of available oxygen, exposure in
183 the anaerobic cabinet was repeated with a scavenger of reactive oxygen species added
184 to the fungal suspensions. The scavenger and concentration used was 30 mM
185 ascorbic acid (Sigma Aldrich, Dorset, UK), as used in previous studies (Feuerstein et
186 al., 2005; Maclean et al., 2008b). Exposure of the organisms in the presence of the
187 scavenger was also performed under aerobic conditions as an experimental control.

188

189 **2.6 Effect of 405 nm light on Germinating Aspergillus Spores**

190 *A. niger* spore suspensions were prepared as previously described but resuspended in
191 a chemically-defined germination medium (KH₂PO₄ 1.0 g, MgSO₄ 0.25 g, CuSO₄
192 0.2 mg, FeSO₄ 6.0 mg, ZnSO₄ 1.0 mg, MnCl₂ 4.0 mg, CaCl₂ 50 mg, NH₄SO₄ 2.0 g,
193 Sucrose 10.0 g, monosodium glutamate 5.0 g l⁻¹) rather than PBS. This germination
194 medium was used as it was clear and transparent thereby facilitating light exposure
195 experiments without light attenuation complications. Ten millilitre volumes were
196 dispensed into petri dishes and held at 30°C in a static incubator (to prevent clumping
197 during germination, an effect that occurs more readily under shaken flask cultivation
198 conditions) for up to 8 hours. At 2-hour intervals, 3 ml volumes of germinating spore
199 suspension were removed and exposed to a dose of 454 Jcm⁻² 405 nm light. Non-

200 exposed control samples were set up simultaneously with test samples. Results then
201 allowed comparison of the susceptibility of spores at different stages of germination
202 to that of dormant spore populations.

203

204 To investigate whether 405 nm light exposure had an effect on morphological
205 changes during germination, spores were incubated in germination medium for
206 6 hours at 30°C, exposed to 454 Jcm⁻² 405 nm light, and re-incubated for a further
207 2 hours. Microscopic examination of the light-exposed fungal samples and the non-
208 exposed control samples (which had been incubated for 8 hours with no light-
209 exposure) enabled a visual comparison of whether the light exposure had an effect on
210 morphological changes during germination. For photographic purposes, fungal
211 samples were centrifuged and resuspended in 1/10th of the volume to effect cell
212 aggregation and increase the cell density in the field of view.

213

214 **2.7 Plating and Enumeration**

215 *S. cerevisiae* and *C. albicans* samples were plated onto Malt Extract Agar, and Malt
216 Extract Agar containing 0.1 % yeast extract, respectively (Oxoid, UK). A WASP 2
217 spiral plater (Don Whitely Scientific Ltd, UK) was used to plate out samples (50 µl
218 spiral plate and 100 µl spread plate samples), with each sample being plated in a
219 minimum of triplicate. Sample plates were then incubated at 30°C and 37°C,
220 respectively, for 18-24 hours before enumeration. Results were recorded as colony
221 forming units per millilitre (CFU ml⁻¹). Samples of *A. niger* were, diluted if required,
222 and manually spread plated (50 µl and 100 µl volumes) onto Malt Extract Agar in
223 triplicate and incubated at 30°C for five days. Colonies were enumerated and

224 recorded as CFU ml⁻¹. Due to the plating techniques used the detection limit of these
225 experiments is <10 CFU ml⁻¹.

226

227 **2.8 Statistical Analysis**

228 In the 405-nm light exposure experiments, data points on each figure represent the
229 mean results of two or more independent experiments, with each individual
230 experimental data point being sampled in triplicate at least. Data points also contain
231 the standard deviation and significant differences attained from results. Significant
232 differences were calculated at the 95% confidence interval using ANOVA (one-way)
233 with MINITAB software release 15 and are highlighted with asterisks (*).

234

235 **2.9 Fluorescence Spectrophotometry**

236 The presence of endogenous porphyrins within the fungal species was determined by
237 fluorescence spectrophotometry. Cell cultures were twice washed with PBS, and the
238 resultant cell pellets were suspended in 1 ml of 0.1 M NaOH-1% sodium dodecyl
239 sulphate (SDS) for 24 hours in the dark. Cell suspensions were then centrifuged and
240 the supernatant was used for fluorescence measurements (RF-5301 PC
241 spectrofluorophotometre; Shimadzu, US). Excitation was carried out at 405 nm and
242 emission spectra were recorded between 500-800 nm.

243

244 **3. Results**

245 **3.1 High-intensity 405-nm Light Inactivation of Yeasts and Fungal Spores**

246 Results in Figure 1 demonstrate that *C. albicans* was inactivated by 5-log₁₀ CFU ml⁻¹
247 upon exposure to 405-nm light at a dose of 576 J cm⁻². *S. cerevisiae* showed higher
248 susceptibility, with a 5-log₁₀ CFU ml⁻¹ reduction achieved in half the dosage required

249 for *C. albicans* (288 J cm^{-2}). Inactivation data for *A. niger* dormant spore suspensions
250 is also shown in Figure 1. When dose levels similar to those used to achieve a 5-
251 $\log_{10} \text{ CFU ml}^{-1}$ reduction in population of the yeast populations (up to approximately
252 500 J cm^{-2}) were used, no reduction of dormant *A. niger* spores was evident.
253 However, with the application of higher doses there was a steady decrease in
254 population, with a 5- $\log_{10} \text{ CFU ml}^{-1}$ reduction of *A. niger* spores achieved with a dose
255 of 2.3 kJ cm^{-2} – almost five times the dose required for the same 5- \log_{10} reduction of
256 the yeast cells. Control samples for both the yeast and fungal spore populations did
257 not significantly change over the duration of the experiment. No significant increase
258 in the temperature of the exposed fungal samples was recorded during light exposure,
259 with the maximum temperature recorded being $29^{\circ}\text{C} (\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C})$ after application of the
260 highest dose (2.3 kJ cm^{-2}).

261

262 **Figure 1**

263

264 **3.2 Oxygen Dependence Experiments**

265 Fungal samples were light-exposed in an anaerobic cabinet to doses which achieved a
266 5- $\log_{10} \text{ CFU ml}^{-1}$ reduction under normal aerobic atmospheric conditions (which were
267 288 J cm^{-2} for *S. cerevisiae*; 576 J cm^{-2} for *C. albicans*; 2.3 kJ cm^{-2} for *A. niger*).
268 Results, which are shown in Table 1, demonstrate that the normally 'lethal' 405-nm
269 light dose had no significant effect on *A. niger* spores exposed in the absence of
270 oxygen, with only 0.1- $\log_{10} \text{ CFU ml}^{-1}$ inactivated. Inactivation of *C. albicans* was
271 also reduced in the anaerobic environment with only 1.8- $\log_{10} \text{ CFU ml}^{-1}$ inactivated.
272 Inactivation of *S. cerevisiae* did not appear to be as oxygen-dependent as the other
273 two species, as a reduction of 4.4- $\log_{10} \text{ CFU ml}^{-1}$ was achieved when light-exposed in

274 the anaerobic environment. Although the effect was less pronounced with
275 *S. cerevisiae*, statistical analysis confirmed that for all three fungal species tested
276 there was a statistically significant difference in the population reductions when
277 exposed in the aerobic versus the anaerobic environments.

278

279 In order to further examine oxygen-dependence in the test yeasts, ascorbic acid, a
280 scavenger of reactive oxygen species, was added to the cell suspensions, which were
281 held in the anaerobic cabinet, as an additional measure to minimise the residual
282 dissolved oxygen in the samples. As a definitive oxygen-dependent effect had been
283 found with *A. niger*, no further scavenger testing was carried out on this organism.

284 Results of exposing scavenger-supplemented suspensions of *C. albicans* and *S.*
285 *cerevisiae* to 405-nm light under anaerobic and aerobic conditions are shown in Table
286 1. Ascorbic acid was effective at inhibiting inactivation with *C. albicans*, with no
287 significant inactivation of *C. albicans* occurring when exposed anaerobically in the
288 presence of ascorbic acid. This was significantly different to the 1.8 log₁₀ reduction
289 achieved when exposed anaerobically in the absence of ascorbic acid. Presence of
290 ascorbic acid also reduced the level of inactivation of *S. cerevisiae*, with a 2.3 log₁₀
291 difference between anaerobically-exposed cells in the presence and absence of the
292 scavenger. Exposure of *C. albicans* and *S. cerevisiae* in the presence of ascorbic acid
293 under aerobic conditions resulted in 3.2 and 2.7 log₁₀ reductions, respectively;
294 significantly less than the 5 log₁₀ reductions achieved when exposed under the same
295 conditions in the absence of the scavenger. Overall, although differences between the
296 organisms were noted, results in Table 1 demonstrate that for both organisms, most
297 inactivation was achieved when exposed in aerobic conditions in the absence of the

298 scavenger, and the most effective reduction of microbial inactivation was achieved
299 using the scavenger in the anaerobic environment.

300

Table 1

301

302 3.3 Effect of 405 nm Light on Germinating Spores

303 Results in Figure 1 demonstrated the high 405 nm light doses required to cause
304 inactivation of dormant *A. niger* spores. Experiments were carried out to determine
305 whether germinating spores were more susceptible to 405 nm light. Figure 2
306 demonstrates the results achieved when *A. niger* spores were incubated in a
307 germination medium prior to light exposure using a dose of 454 J cm^{-2} . A significant
308 reduction in the CFU count of the spore suspension was achieved when the spores
309 were light-exposed after a 2-hour incubation period in the germination medium.
310 When the period in germination medium, prior to light exposure, was extended,
311 reductions progressively increased from 0.8 to $2.5 \log_{10} \text{ CFU ml}^{-1}$ reduction over the 8
312 hour test period. No significant change in CFU count was recorded with dormant
313 conidia exposed to the same dose of 454 J cm^{-2} ; therefore demonstrating that once
314 germination of conidia is initiated, conidia have an increased sensitivity to 405 nm
315 light, with their sensitivity increasing as germination progresses.

316

317

Figure 2

318

319 The effect of 405 nm light exposure on morphological changes during the
320 germination process was also investigated. Microscopic examination of conidia after
321 2, 4, 6 and 8 hours incubation in germination medium showed that the conidia
322 underwent the typical germination process previously described for *A. niger* conidia

323 (Anderson and Smith, 1971). Dormant conidia (3.5 μm . mean diameter), which
324 possessed a rough dark pigmented spore coat (Fig 3a), increased in diameter by a
325 process of both imbibitional and spherical growth swelling to 6.5 to 7.0 μm . before
326 germ-tube outgrowth. The majority of conidia produced one or occasionally two germ
327 tubes after 6 hours. The effect of 405 nm light exposure when applied during the
328 germination process can be clearly seen in Figures 3b-c which illustrates the
329 significant difference in the extent of germination between light-exposed and non-
330 exposed spores.

331

332

Figure 3

333

334 3.4 Fluorescence Spectrophotometry

335 Figure 4 shows the fluorescence emission spectra of suspension preparations of the
336 three fungal species dissolved in NaOH-SDS. Excitation of the cell supernatants at
337 405 nm displayed emission peaks at 608 and 611 nm for *C. albicans* and
338 *S. cerevisiae*, respectively. No peaks were observed for *A. niger* spores when excited
339 under the same conditions, however analysis carried out using *A. niger* mycelia
340 demonstrated a peak at 607 nm.

341

342

Figure 4

343

344 4. Discussion

345 The results of this study have demonstrated that fungal organisms can be inactivated
346 by exposure to high intensity light from within the visible spectrum and specifically
347 violet light of wavelength 405 nm (± 5 nm). Of the two yeast species tested,

348 *S. cerevisiae* was more sensitive to 405-nm light exposure than *C. albicans* with the
349 dose levels required to achieve an approximate 5 log₁₀ reduction being ~288 J cm⁻²
350 for *S. cerevisiae* and ~576 J cm⁻² for *C. albicans*. By contrast, dormant conidia of the
351 filamentous mould *A. niger* were most resistant, requiring a dose of approximately 2.3
352 kJ cm⁻².

353

354 Although the dormant conidia of *A. niger* required relatively high levels of 405 nm
355 light exposure before inactivation was achieved, results demonstrated that upon
356 germination, the susceptibility of spores significantly increased. Inactivation data
357 over the germination period (Figure 2) showed that an increased susceptibility of the
358 conidia to 405 nm light was evident after only a 2-hr germination period, indicating
359 that the initial changes undergone by the germinating spores are enough to increase
360 their susceptibility. It can only be speculated whether this increase in susceptibility is
361 related to morphological changes, e.g. increased light penetration associated with
362 stretching or fracture of the dense pigmented spore coat, or to an increased metabolic
363 vulnerability to light induced reactive oxygen species or indeed to a combination of
364 these effects.

365

366 Results of this study also demonstrated that conidial sensitivity increases as the
367 germination process progresses. Microscopic analysis of conidia which had been
368 light-exposed for a period during germination, demonstrated that the 405 nm light
369 exposure arrested the development of the germinating conidia, with hyphal
370 development appearing stunted compared to non-exposed germinating conidia (Figure
371 3b-c), indicating that light exposure during germination can negatively affect both the
372 germ tube and hyphal growth processes.

373

374 The resistance to 405-nm light exhibited by dormant *A. niger* conidia is not surprising
375 given the requirement of these structures to survive periods of exposure to solar
376 radiation during aerial dispersal. Strong resistance to UV exposure has been
377 demonstrated by *F. culmorum* and *A. niger* spores during inactivation studies
378 involving use of pulsed ultra-violet light radiation (Anderson et. al., 2000). *A. niger*
379 spores are particularly difficult to inactivate by light, as they possess multi-layered
380 pigmented spore coats containing aspergillin, a black coloured melanin-like
381 compound (Ray & Eakin, 1975).

382

383 An observation made whilst studying the inactivation effects of 405-nm light on
384 dormant *A. niger* conidia was that some of the spores that survived the light treatment
385 germinated and gave rise to colonies that did not produce spores even after prolonged
386 incubation (Figure 5). A study by Hatakeyama et al. (2007) found that conidiation of
387 *Aspergillus oryzae* was repressed upon exposure to white light. Interestingly they
388 also found that blue light completely suppressed colony formation, which supports the
389 *A. niger* results of this study. However, Zhu & Wang (2005) found that *A. niger*
390 conidiation actually increased upon exposure to blue light, which is contrary to the
391 aforementioned results. It is likely that variations in the effects of light on conidiation
392 also depend on other factors such as the growth media employed and the light
393 wavelengths and intensities used. In *Aspergillus nidulans* it has been reported that
394 conidiation can be regulated by light (Ruger-Herreros & Rodriguez-Romero, 2011)
395 and toxin production and morphogenesis can be controlled by interactions between
396 light and glucose regulation (Atoui et. al., 2010).

397

Figure 5

398

399

400 Light from the red and blue regions of the spectrum have also been shown to have
401 important effects on spore germination, hyphal growth and mycotoxin formation in
402 the food relevant *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium* fungi (Schmidt-Heydt et. al., 2011). At
403 the molecular level there has been considerable interest in light-mediated regulation in
404 fungi which is primarily conferred by blue-light receptors referred to as WHITE
405 COLLARs which are responsible for both light-dependent and –independent
406 processes such as induction of sporulation, carotenoid biosynthesis and circadian
407 rhythms (Corrochano, 2007). Whether or not blue light receptors are involved in any
408 of the morphogenetic or inactivation responses reported in the current study is outwith
409 the scope of this investigation,

410

411 Regarding the susceptibility of the fungi to 405-nm light inactivation, it is interesting
412 to compare the results of the current study to those of previously published work on
413 bacteria. The prokaryotic bacteria also exhibit considerable variability in
414 susceptibility with values, to achieve similar 5-log₁₀ order reductions, as low as 18
415 J cm⁻² with *Campylobacter jejuni* (Murdoch et al., 2010) but most typically around 50
416 - 300 J cm⁻², with Gram positive species being generally more susceptible than Gram
417 negatives (Maclean et al., 2009). Comparison with the values for fungi reported in the
418 current study indicates that fungal organisms may be somewhat more resistant to 405-
419 nm light than bacteria. Interestingly it has been previously observed that *C. albicans*,
420 and other yeasts, are slightly more difficult to kill by photodynamic antimicrobial
421 chemotherapy (PACT) than Gram positive bacterial cells, thereby necessitating higher
422 drug and light doses (Zeina et. al., 2002). This has been attributed to the presence of a

423 nuclear membrane in the yeasts, the greater cell size and the reduced number of
424 targets for singlet oxygen per unit volume of cell (Donnelly et. al., 2008).

425

426 It is also interesting that the relatively high levels of 405 nm light, as reported in the
427 current study, required to inactivate dormant *A. niger* spores are not dissimilar to
428 those required for the inactivation of bacterial endospores. We report here that a 5-log
429 order reduction of dormant conidia of *A. niger* required a dose of 2.3 kJ cm^{-2} whereas
430 Maclean et al (2012) reported that approximately 2 kJ cm^{-2} was required to achieve an
431 approx 4-log order reduction of *Bacillus* species endospores.

432

433 Due to the irradiance output of the light sources used in this study, inactivation of the
434 fungal organisms required relatively long exposure periods, i.e. 2 and 4 hours at an
435 irradiance of 40 mW cm^{-2} for *S. cerevisiae* and *C. albicans*, respectively, and 10 hours
436 at 63 mW cm^{-2} for fungal spores (for 5-log₁₀ reduction). Microbial inactivation by
437 405 nm light exposure has been found to be dose-dependent (Murdoch et al, 2012),
438 and in applications where more rapid fungal inactivation is desirable then use of a
439 much higher power light source would significantly reduce the exposure times
440 required for effective treatment.

441

442 It is considered highly likely that the inactivation mechanism initiated within the
443 fungal species tested involves the photoexcitation of free porphyrins within the
444 exposed cells, as is indicated for bacterial inactivation (Dai et al, 2012). Fluorescence
445 spectrophotometry was used to confirm the presence of porphyrins within the test
446 organisms. The fluorescence emission spectra of the three species indicated similar

447 peaks in the region 605-615 nm, and although the results are qualitative, there was
448 distinct differences in the intensity of the detected peaks. These peaks indicate that
449 the three test species are likely to contain the same predominant intracellular free-
450 porphyrin, possibly coproporphyrin, due to the similarity in its emission peaks when
451 excited at 405 nm (Dai et al, 2013; Hamblin et al, 2005), however further analysis
452 would be required to provide a full identification.

453

454 Most probably due to limitations of the extraction methodology employed, analysis of
455 *A. niger* spores produced no detectable porphyrin excitation peaks. This may well
456 have been due to the persistence of some of the dark spore pigment extract in the
457 supernatant thereby masking the fluorescence detection of porphyrins. For this reason
458 *A. niger* mycelia was used as an extraction source to allow a comparative analysis
459 with the yeast species. Exposure of *A. niger* mycelia to 405 nm light showed that
460 complete inactivation of a $3.5 \log_{10}$ CFU population of dispersed mycelia was
461 achieved upon exposure to a dose of 1080 J cm^{-2} , a result which demonstrated the
462 increased susceptibility of mycelia compared to the resilient spores.

463

464 Comparing the fluorescence emission and the inactivation rates of the three species, it
465 is interesting to note that *S. cerevisiae*, which was the most susceptible to inactivation,
466 had the greatest intensity of intracellular porphyrin, and *A. niger*, which was least
467 susceptible, had the lowest. This suggests that the intracellular levels of the detected
468 porphyrin may have a direct influence on the susceptibility of the organisms.

469

470 The current study has also demonstrated that oxygen plays an important role in the
471 405-nm inactivation mechanism in fungi, further supporting the hypothesis that

472 inactivation involves the photoexcitation of endogenous porphyrins – an oxygen-
473 dependent reaction (Hamblin & Hasan, 2004). The use of anaerobic exposures and a
474 ROS scavenger demonstrated that reducing the oxygen and ROS significantly
475 decreased, or in some cases completely inhibited, 405-nm light induced inactivation.
476 The use of ascorbic acid as the scavenger also provided some information on the
477 nature of the ROS important in the 405-nm light inactivation mechanism. Ascorbic
478 acid can be taken up by the cell and act as a singlet oxygen quencher and radical
479 scavenger (Granot et al, 2003; Maclean et al, 2008b), thus indicating that singlet
480 oxygen and other radicals are key contributors to the inactivation process.

481

482 Inactivation of *A. niger* spores was almost completely inhibited when exposed within
483 an anaerobic environment. The yeasts, particularly *S. cerevisiae*, still displayed a
484 degree of inactivation when exposed under anaerobic conditions, which was then
485 further reduced when combined with the scavenger, however a notable level of
486 *S. cerevisiae* inactivation ($2\text{-log}_{10}\text{ CFU ml}^{-1}$) was still observed: thus indicating either
487 the increased susceptibility of the organism, or the potential involvement of other
488 factors in the inactivation mechanism for this organism. Although fluorescence
489 spectroscopy results demonstrated that there were similarities in the likely porphyrin
490 content of the three organisms, albeit at different levels, it is unlikely that this is the
491 sole reason for the differences between their inactivation kinetics, and it is possible
492 that additional chromophores contribute to the inactivation of these eukaryotic cells,
493 however elucidation of this was out-with the scope of this study.

494

495 Other groups studying the effect of light on yeasts have obtained results that are
496 compatible to those reported here. Fraiken et al. (1996) investigated the use of visible

497 light for the inactivation of three strains of *S. cerevisiae* and *C. guilliermondii*, via a
498 “porphyrin-type compound” bound to the plasma membranes of the yeasts. Upon
499 exposure to the 400-600 nm light, reductions in cell numbers of 93-95% in *C.*
500 *guilliermondii* and *S. cerevisiae* were achieved (10^6 CFU ml⁻¹ starting population).
501 They also noted inactivation was greatly reduced when yeasts were exposed to visible
502 light under anoxic conditions and hypothesised that inactivation in these yeast species
503 was most likely driven by singlet oxygen damage. Therefore the results of this
504 current study correlate well with the previous findings that blue light inactivation of
505 microorganisms is an oxygen-dependent process (Fraiken et al., 1996; Feuerstein et
506 al., 2005; Maclean et al., 2008b).

507

508 The use of light to control fungal and other spoilage microorganisms, has traditionally
509 involved the use of light from the UV region of the spectrum which is much more
510 biocidal than 405-nm light. A study by Begum et al. (2009) treated different fungi
511 including *A. niger* using a UV-C lamp emitting light at 254 nm. They found that after
512 an exposure time of 180 seconds, a 2-log₁₀ reduction in *A. niger* spores was observed
513 at a total dose of around 0.5 J cm⁻². Anderson et al. (2000) studied the effects of
514 pulsed UV-light (PUV) on *Fusarium culmorum* and *A. niger*. They exposed agar
515 plates seeded with fungi to light pulses produced by a Xenon flashlamp with high UV
516 content resulting in around 3 or 4-log₁₀ reductions in *A. niger* and *F. culmorum*
517 respectively after 1000 pulses.

518

519 Although UV-light is highly biocidal there are problems with the application of this
520 technology including inactivation tailing effects, poor penetrability, and
521 photoreactivation responses with sub-lethally damaged populations. Also human

522 health exposure concerns and problems associated with UV-light damage to
523 photosensitive materials are disadvantages associated with the use of UV light as a
524 decontamination technology (Elmnasser et al.2007). Because of the ongoing
525 requirements to control pathogenic and spoilage fungi and because of limitations
526 associated with the use of other decontamination technologies, potential applications
527 may be found for the use of 405-nm light for the inactivation of problematic yeast and
528 mould fungi.

529

530 **5. Conclusions**

531 High-intensity 405-nm light has been successfully applied for the inactivation
532 *S. cerevisiae*, *C. albicans*, and dormant and germinating spores of *A. niger*, in the
533 presence of oxygen but without the requirement of exogenous photosensitiser
534 molecules. Results indicate that in fungi, 405-nm light inactivation involves a violet
535 light induced, oxygen dependent mechanism similar to that previously described in
536 bacteria. Although 405-nm light is less fungicidal than UV-light, 405-nm light offers
537 potential operational advantages over UV-light radiation, and development of higher
538 intensity systems could find potential applications for surface, air or equipment
539 decontamination in the medical, pharmaceutical and food industries or in any other
540 setting in which reduction of fungal contamination is desirable or essential.

541

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549

550

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714 **Figure 1.** Inactivation of *S. cerevisiae*, *C. albicans* and dormant *A. niger* spores in
715 liquid suspension, by exposure to 405-nm light. Asterisks (*) represent light-exposed
716 populations which were significantly different to non-exposed control populations
717 ($P \leq 0.05$). No significant changes were observed in the control samples throughout
718 the experiment.

719

720 **Figure 2.** Demonstration of the increasing susceptibility of *A. niger* conidia to
721 405 nm light when exposed at various stages of germination. Conidia were exposed
722 to a dose of 454 J cm^{-2} . Data for the exposure of dormant conidia suspended in PBS
723 is included for reference. Asterisks (*) represent light-exposed populations which
724 were significantly different to non-exposed control populations ($P \leq 0.05$).

725

726 **Figure 3.** Microscopic visualisation of (a) dormant conidia, (b) conidia exposed to
727 405 nm light (454 J cm^{-2}) after a 6-hr germination period followed by a further 2-hr
728 post-exposure germination period, showing abnormal germination, and (c) non-
729 exposed conidia after an equivalent 8-hr germination period, showing normal
730 germination. Cells were viewed under $\times 400$ magnification.

731

732 **Figure 4.** Fluorescence spectra of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, *Candida albicans* and
733 *Aspergillus niger* mycelia. Fluorescence emission spectra were detected from
734 suspension preparations of the three species dissolved in NaOH-SDS, using an
735 excitation wavelength of 405 nm.

736

737 **Figure 5.** A mixture of sporing and non-sporing *A. niger* colonies that have
738 developed from spores that were exposed to high doses of 405 nm light. Light
739 exposed spores were plated onto Malt Extract Agar and incubated for 10 days for
740 colony development.

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747 **Table 1.** Mean population reductions of fungal test species after exposure to 405-nm

748 light under aerobic and anaerobic conditions. Doses used for exposure were those

749 required to achieve a 5-log₁₀ reduction of each organism under aerobic conditions:

750 288 J cm⁻² for *S. cerevisiae*, 576 J cm⁻² for *C. albicans*; 2.3 kJ cm⁻² for *A. niger*

751 spores.

752

Microorganisms	Mean Reduction in Microbial Numbers (Log ₁₀ CFU ml ⁻¹)			
	Light-exposed		Light-exposed + Scavenger	
	Aerobic	Anaerobic	Anaerobic	Aerobic
<i>C. albicans</i>	5.02 (±0.1)	1.76 (±0.3)	0.03 (±0.0)	3.25 (±1.6)
<i>S. cerevisiae</i>	5.18 (±0.1)	4.37 (±0.8)	2.03 (±0.1)	2.72 (±0.3)
<i>A. niger</i> spores	5.24 (±0.2)	0.1 (±0.3)	N/A	N/A

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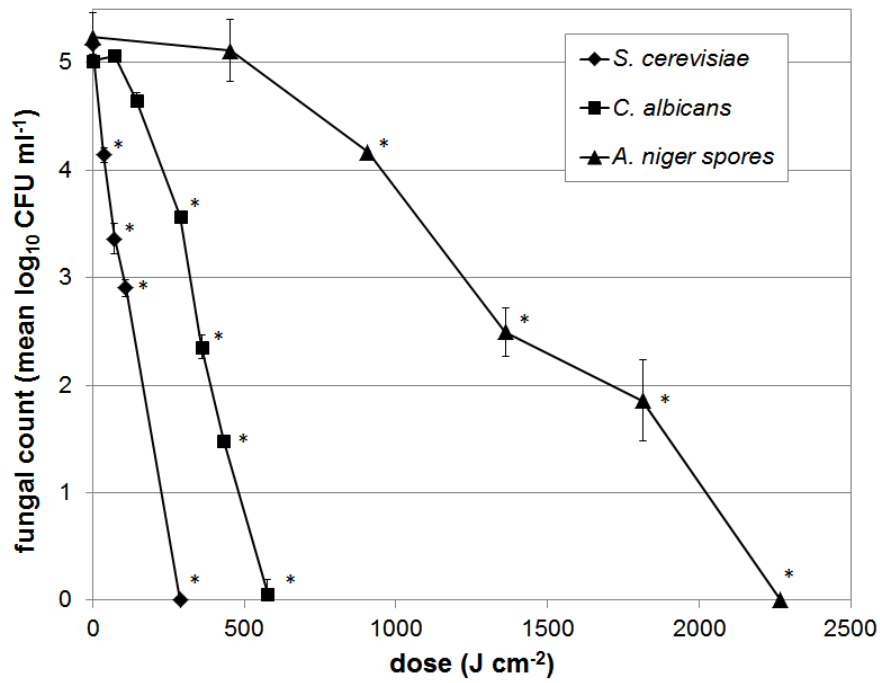
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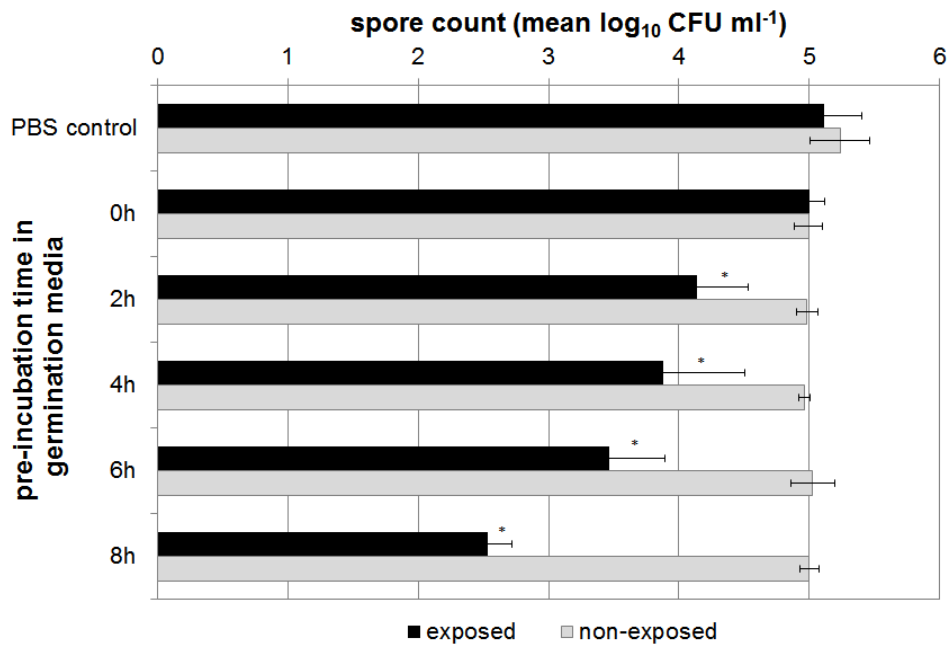


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Fig 1



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Fig 2

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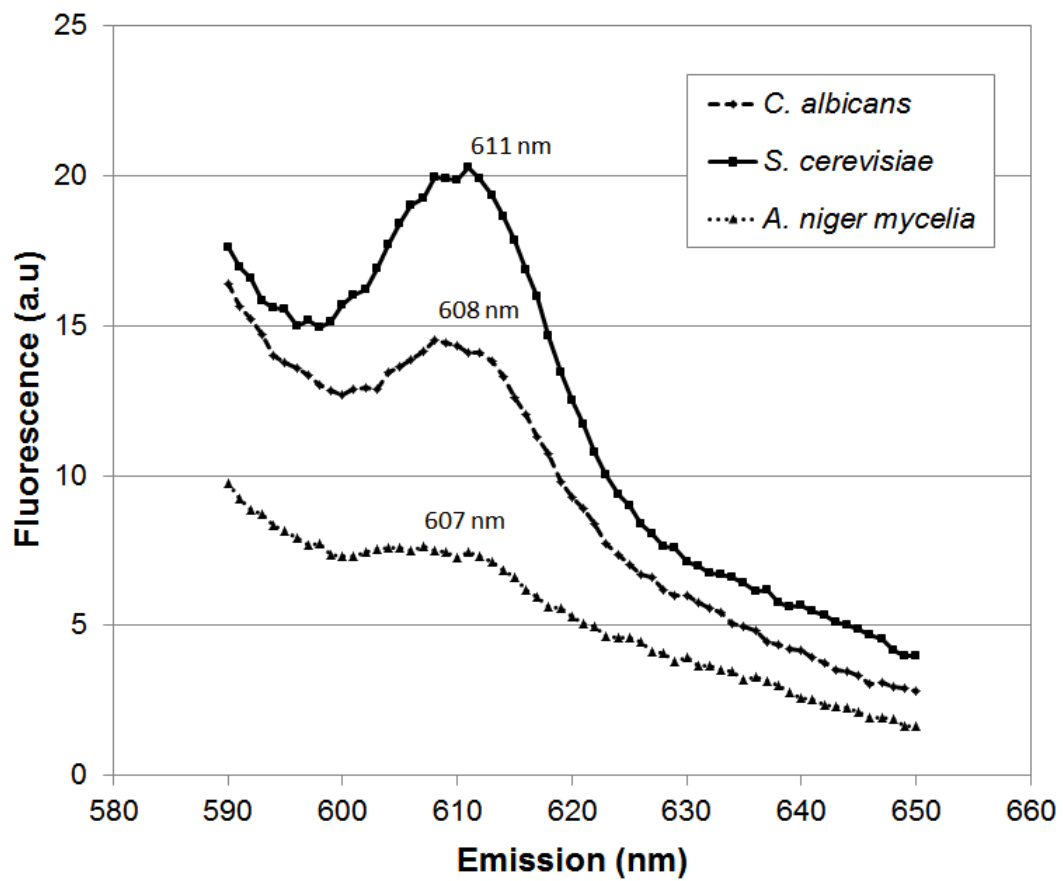
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Fig 3

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Fig 4

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Fig 5