

1 **Plant-derived bioactive compounds at sub-lethal concentrations: towards smart biocide-free**
2 **antibiofilm strategies**

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14 **Abstract**

15 Biofilm resistance to biocides is becoming a global issue with an impact on many fields, including
16 health care, agriculture, the environment, society and industry. Plants offer a virtually inexhaustible
17 and sustainable resource of very interesting classes of biologically active, low-molecular-weight
18 compounds (parvome). In the past, the plant parvomes were screened mainly for their lethal effects,
19 disregarding concentrations and ecologically relevant functions of these molecules in the natural
20 context. Testing sub-lethal concentrations of plant-derived compounds mimicking environmental
21 levels may be critical to reveal mechanisms subtler than the killing activity, e.g. those influencing
22 the multicellular behavior, offering an elegant way to develop novel biocide-free antibiofilm
23 strategies. In a cross-disciplinary fashion, we illustrated recent successes of sub-lethal
24 concentrations of plant-derived compounds, their ecological insight, pro et contra, future directions
25 and impacts, envisioning implications for policy making and resource management.

26

27 **Keywords:** biofilm; plant-derived compounds; biocide-free strategies; sub-lethal concentrations

28

29 **Introduction**

30 It has been estimated that at least 99% of the world's microbial biomass exists in form of biofilm, a
31 complex differentiated surface-associated community embedded in a self-produced polymeric
32 matrix enabling microorganisms to develop coordinated and efficient survival strategies. Although
33 the inclination to colonize surfaces is advantageous from the microbial standpoint, it may cause
34 chronic infections (Cegelski et al. 2008; Estrela et al. 2009), parasitism phenomena in animals and
35 plants (Skamnioti and Gurr 2009), biodeterioration of historical and artistic objects (Giacomucci et
36 al. 2011; Cappitelli et al. 2012), biodeterioration of engineered systems (Zhang et al. 2012), and
37 fouling in food-processing equipments (Ranier et al. 2011). Furthermore, biofilm injury has a
38 profound socio-economic impact, incurring direct and indirect industrial costs that result in a huge
39 financial burden for an already over-stretched economy.

40 For human societies, the most detrimental property of biofilms is the expression of specific
41 characters that make sessile microorganisms more resistance to antimicrobial agents (up to 1000-
42 fold) than their planktonic counterparts (Høiby et al. 2010; Flemming 2011). As climate conditions
43 change, natural and engineered ecosystems are increasingly reaching temperatures and humidity
44 that are conducive to biofilm growth. Although increased biofilm biomass would lead to an
45 increased use of biocides, questions concerning the biodegradability of biocides, their risk to human
46 and animal health and their environmental impact, have increasingly discouraged biocide use. This
47 is readily seen in the number of recent policies, directives, technical reports, strategies,
48 recommendations and regulatory decisions designed to reduce antimicrobial agents consumption,
49 ensuring the prudent use of these fragile strategies, and protect specific agents that are critically
50 important for human and animal health and wellbeing (Directive 98/8/EC; Recommendation
51 2002/77/EC; SCENIHR report 2009; EFSA Summary Report 2012). Finally, the antimicrobial
52 arena is experiencing a shortage of lead compounds progressing into both clinical and industrial
53 trials and growing negative consumer perception against synthetic compounds has led to the search
54 for natural-derived products (Lam 2007).

55 In the last few years, the efforts have been directed towards developing preventive strategies that
56 can be used to disarm microorganisms without killing them (Cegelski et al. 2008; Rasko and
57 Sperandio 2010). An innovative approach is the use of biocide-free antibiofilm agents with novel
58 targets, unique modes of action and proprieties that are different from those of the currently used
59 antimicrobials. In addition, as these substances do not exert their action by killing cells, they do not
60 impose a selective pressure causing the development of resistance (Rasko and Sperandio 2010).
61 Observing the processes of biofilm formation it is reasonable to expect that interfering with the key-
62 steps that orchestrate genesis of virtually every biofilm could be a way for new preventive strategies
63 that do not necessarily exert lethal effects on cells but rather sabotage their propensity for a sessile
64 lifestyle (Figure 1). For instance, interfering with the surface sensing process and mystifying
65 intercellular signals, the biofilm cascade might be hampered.
66 These strategies might bring new products to the market and cover methodologies and novel
67 approaches, making significant contributions to innovation and economic productivity in SMEs.
68 They provide support for cross-cutting actions while offering new tools for society and policy
69 makers.

70

71 **Ecological insight of plant-derived antibiofilm compounds**

72 The need for innovative antibiofilm technologies has led to renewed interest in the ways that
73 organisms protect themselves against microbial colonization.

74 Plants lacking cell-based inducible immune responses and that live in nutrient-rich environments
75 are continuously exposed to a broad array of potentially deleterious microorganisms leading to
76 increased weight and friction, impeded trans-epidermal exchanges, altered color, smell, and contour
77 (Wahl et al. 2012). This provides the driving force behind the evolution of a variety of sophisticated
78 strategies to enhance plant fitness via chemical defenses against biofilms (de Nys and Steinberg
79 2002; Qian and Fusetani 2010). In addition, one of the main advantages of plant-derived

80 compounds with potential pharmaceutical and medical applications is the lack of shared pathogens
81 between plant and mammals (Cichocka et al. 2010).

82 Both aquatic and terrestrial plants offer very interesting classes of biologically active, low-
83 molecular-mass (< 5 kDa) compounds (“parvome”, parv=small, -ome= group), like alkaloids,
84 terpenoids, flavonoids and coumarins, peptides, glycosides, nucleosides and polyphenols. They may
85 act in a variety of ways: antibiotics, allosteric regulators, catalysis, catalytic cofactors, regulatory
86 activities at level of DNA, RNA and protein, pigments, mutagens, antimutagens, receptor agonists,
87 antagonists, signal molecules, siderophores, detergents, metal complexing/transporting agents,
88 pheromones, toxins and other interesting activities (Davies and Ryan 2012). However, during the
89 intensive half-century of drug discovery, available natural compounds found in the plant parvome
90 were screened mainly for their lethal effects, disregarding concentrations and ecologically relevant
91 functions of these molecules in the natural environments. All that mattered were compounds
92 effective in killing target microorganisms (*inter alia* Gibbons 2005; Puglisi et al. 2007; Quave et
93 al. 2008; Mayavu et al. 2009; Tajkarimi et al. 2010; Artini et al. 2012; Falcão et al. 2012; Guedes et
94 al. 2012). In contrast, few papers address the inhibition of biofilm formation by using compounds at
95 sublethal concentrations.

96 In many cases, the killing activity of a naturally-occurring compounds is primarily a laboratory
97 property, since the concentrations of these agents available in nature would be insufficient to exert
98 their lethal effects (Yim et al. 2007; Davies 2011). Several studies on marine plants highlighted a
99 lack of correlation between antimicrobial activities and abundance of surface-associated
100 microorganisms, suggesting that chemical defenses may function by mechanisms more subtle than
101 the simple killing activities like those influencing the multicellular behavior by manipulating the
102 expression of specific phenotypes that represent different stages of the biofilm process (Harder
103 2009).

104 The optimal defense theory asserts that organisms allocate resources to chemical defenses in a way
105 that maximizes fitness and preserves their primary biological functions such as homeostasis

106 maintenance, growth and reproduction (Ivanisevic et al. 2011). The production of toxic compounds
107 might impose: i) a significant metabolic burden to the plant in order to protect itself from
108 autotoxicity (Heil and Baldwin 2002) and ii) ecological costs resulting from the myriad of
109 interactions that a plant has with its biotic and abiotic environment (Heil and Baldwin 2002). In
110 fact, it has been estimated that a considerable percentage of bacterial genomes is dedicated to
111 shaping the organisms' habitat and maintaining their community and niche in the ecosystem
112 (Phelan et al. 2012). Thus, killing microorganisms is not advantageous for the plant as might affect
113 local ecological relationship. Finally, sub-lethal concentration represents one mechanism by which
114 the host minimizes the risk of counter adaptation, which would be likely to occur if secondary
115 metabolites were toxic to associated microbes (Engel et al. 2002).

116 Testing sub-lethal concentrations of plant-derived compounds mimicking environmental levels may
117 be critical to understand biological functions, highlighting different and valuable biological
118 activities far from killing activities. As a consequence, one of the most pressing issues is the
119 estimation of the sub-lethal concentrations of secondary metabolites experienced by
120 microorganisms in nature. In the context of antibiofilm researches, this gap may be filled carrying
121 out preliminary experiments to define the toxicological threshold zone for the selected model
122 systems and then screening a wide range of sub-lethal concentrations at frequent intervals in order
123 to identify the experimental space with the maximum antibiofilm activity. However, the efforts of
124 industrial, academic, governmental actors are made to reduce time and costs of research
125 programmes by testing few concentrations at standard conditions, demanding carefully designed
126 experiments to explore in details and at reasonable cost the low-dose response and the cellular
127 behavior in complex scenarios.

128

129 **Determination of optimal sub-lethal concentrations**

130 The design of experiments technique (DOE) could be successfully employed to clarify the
131 antibiofilm performance of plant-derived compounds without testing many sub-lethal

132 concentrations, but just performing a limited number of experiments according to rigorously
133 formulated mathematical protocols (Franceschini and Macchietto 2008). With this multivariate
134 approach it is possible to simulate cellular behavior in complex scenarios, considering effective
135 factors, interactions and selecting optimum conditions that maximized the antibiofilm response
136 (Leardi 2009).

137 Although DoE methods have been around since the mid-20th century, their application in the
138 discovery of non-toxic antibiofilm compounds has only recently taken hold. DoE has been shown to
139 perform excellently in a wide range of applications: chemical kinetics, process control, drug
140 discovery, biological systems (e.g. fermentation and bio-kinetics), pharmacodynamics, process
141 engineering etc. (*inter alias* Akhbari et al. 2011; Hu et al. 2012; Papanephytou and Kontopidis
142 2012; Jibrail and Keat Teong 2013). However, to the best of our knowledge, only three works
143 (carried out by the authors of the present paper) successfully modeled the antibiofilm performances
144 of plant-derived compounds at sub-lethal concentrations exploiting High Throughput Screening
145 techniques.

146 By using DoE coupled with microtiter biofilm assay Villa and colleagues (2011) observed that the
147 best anti-biofilm performance of sub-lethal concentrations of the phenolic compound zosteric acid
148 (secondary metabolite from the seagrass *Zostera marina*, figure 2a) against *Candida albicans* was
149 obtained at a specific threshold level, which corresponds to the minimum point of the response
150 surface model and not to the maximum concentration tested (Figure 3). At this level, zosteric acid
151 played a role in thwarting budded-to-hyphal-form transition, in reducing biofilm biomass and
152 thickness, in extending the performance of antimicrobial agents and showed cytocompatibility
153 towards soft and hard tissue (Figure 4). The non-linear response patterns depicted by the surface
154 response followed a parabola-like shape profile, resembling a hormetic property (the situation in
155 which the response to an environmental stressor varies with the level of exposure). However, a
156 biphasic profile is not new in the biofilm world: the biofilm mediators homoserine lactones act in a

157 concentration-dependent manner, where upper and lower threshold concentrations trigger the
158 formation of a biofilm (Rickard et al. 2007).

159 *Escherichia coli* cells treated with zosteric acid were characterized by stress-associated (e.g. AhpC,
160 OsmC, SodB, GroES, IscU, DnaK), motility-related (FliC), quorum-sensing-associated (LuxS) and
161 metabolism/biosynthesis-related (e.g. PptA, AroA, FabD, FabB, GapA) proteins. This indicated that
162 the antibiofilm compound targeted key steps involved in biofilm formation by modulating the
163 threshold level of the extracellular signalling molecule autoinducer-2 (AI-2) and inducing a
164 hypermotile phenotype unable to firmly adhere on surfaces (Villa et al. 2012b). The compound
165 seems to act as an environmental stimulus or chemical manipulator that provides advance warning
166 about environmental changes, allowing the microorganisms to prepare for adversity while
167 conditions are still favorable. From an ecological perspective, the mechanism of action of the
168 zosteric acid seems to portray the “xenohormesis theory”. According to the xenohormesis,
169 heterotrophs (animals and microbes) are able to sense chemical stimuli synthesized by autotrophs
170 (like plants) in response to stress to mount a preemptive defense response that increases their
171 chance of survival (Howitz and Sinclair 2008). Interestingly, the synthesis of phenolic compounds
172 is induced in plants by a variety of environmental stresses and the planktonic phenotype represents
173 a life-extending physiological trait to escape from adversity improving the colonization of new
174 favorable habitat. In a similar way, reacting to zosteric acid would allow the bacterial response to
175 begin ahead of any direct damage or energy deficit, and, more importantly, would not stake the life
176 of both the plant and the microorganism respecting the ecological relationships and leading to an
177 extended lifespan of the involved counterparts.

178 Thus, exploring the effects of sub-lethal concentrations of plant-derived compounds on microbial
179 behavior (e.g. adhesion, chemotaxis, swimming and swarming motility) has the potential not only to
180 demonstrate interesting xenohormetic-like responses and the extent and the modality to which
181 microbial surface colonization is chemically mediated, but also to unveil potent biocide-free
182 antibiofilm mechanisms.

183

184 **Recent successes of antibiofilm compounds from plants at sub-lethal concentrations**

185 Vattem et al. (2007) have suggested that spices with renowned antibiotic properties could also
186 possess antipathogenic activities, which may not be related to lethal effects on the target
187 microorganism. The plant-derived compounds icariin and resveratrol, used in traditional Chinese
188 medicine, were found potent antibiofilm molecules against *Propionibacterium acnes* (Coenye et al.
189 2012). Importantly, the antibiofilm activity was detected at sub-inhibitory concentrations. Similarly,
190 extracts from *Commiphora leptophloeos*, *Bauhinia acuruana* and *Pityrocarpa moniliformis*
191 demonstrated marked *Staphylococcus epidermidis* antibiofilm activity on polystyrene and glass
192 surfaces without causing bacterial death (Trentin et al. 2011). The extract 220D-F2 from the root of
193 *Rubus ulmifolius* was used to inhibit *S. aureus* biofilm formation to a degree that can be correlated
194 with increased antibiotic susceptibility without limiting bacterial growth (Quave et al. 2012).
195 Ursolic acid from the tree *Diospyros dendo* (Figure 2b) is completely non-toxic towards *E. coli*, *P.*
196 *aeruginosa*, *Vibrio harveyi*, and successfully inhibited the formation of these bacterial biofilms.
197 Transcriptome analyses showed the induction of chemotaxis and motility genes in *E. coli* treated
198 with the plant-derived compound, suggesting that ursolic acid may function as a signal that tells
199 cells to remain too motile hindering cell adhesion or destabilizing already formed biofilm (Ren et al.
200 2005).

201 The methanolic extract obtained from *Cuminum cyminum*, a traditional food ingredient in South
202 Indian dishes, was shown to act as quorum-sensing inhibitor. By interfering with the acyl-
203 homoserine lactone activity, it inhibited the production of violacein pigment, swimming and
204 swarming motility, production of the extracellular polymeric substances and biofilm formation in
205 several bacterial pathogens (Issac Abraham et al. 2012). Also the extract of *Capparis spinosa*
206 showed a high degree of anti-quorum sensing activity in a dose dependent manner without affecting
207 the bacterial growth of *Serratia marcescens*, *P. aeruginosa*, *E. coli* and *Proteus mirabilis*. It also
208 exhibited inhibition in swimming and swarming motility of the bacterial pathogens (Issac Abraham

209 et al. 2011). Two synthetic furanones based on those produced by the marine macroalga *Delisea*
210 *pulchra* (Figure 2c) were shown to attenuate bacterial virulence in the mouse models of chronic
211 lung infection by targeting *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* quorum-sensing without directly killing
212 bacteria, not imposing a selective pressure for the development of bacterial resistance (Wu et al.
213 2004). A number of flavonoids found in citrus species, including naringenin (Figure 2d),
214 kaempferol (Figure 2e), apigenin (Figure 2f) and quercetin (Figure 2g), which are antagonists of
215 homoserine lactone and AI-2-mediated cell–cell signaling in *V. harveyi*, were able to inhibit biofilm
216 formation by *V. harveyi* BB120 and *E. coli* O157:H7 in a dose-dependent manner (Vikrame et al.
217 2010).

218 Recently, members of the Transient Receptor Potential (TRP) channels have drawn large attention
219 as versatile sensors to detect changes in the external environment being associated to sensation of
220 heat, cold, noxious chemicals, pain, osmotic force, touch, vibration, proprioception and axon
221 guidance (Vriens et al. 2008) in various animals and in man. Interestingly, fungal genomes present
222 genes encoding a TRP-like structure. The mechanosensitive TRP channel in *Saccharomyces*
223 *cerevesiae* (Yvc1=TRPY1) has orthologs in other fungal genomes including TRPY2 of
224 *Kluyveromyces lactis* and TRPY3 of *C. albicans* (Chang et al. 2010). Since several plant-derived
225 taste-active substances are able to modulate/interact with these sensing channels, they are
226 interesting bioactive molecules with new potential targets for the development of non-toxic
227 strategies against biofilms. According to this chemosensory-based strategy, the efficacy of sub-
228 lethal concentrations of *Muscari comosum* bulb extract in modulating yeast adhesion and
229 subsequent biofilm development on abiotic surfaces and its role as extracellular signal responsible
230 for biofilm dispersion was reported (Villa et al. 2012a) (Figure 1).

231

232 **Drawbacks in the advancement of plant-derived products production**

233 Main reasons for the fact that plant-derived products research has not yet advanced to great lengths
234 in the last 20 years include the incompatibility of natural product libraries with high-throughput

235 screening, the marginal improvement in core technologies for natural product screening and natural
236 product structure elucidation (Lam 2007). In addition, chemists have been sometimes frustrated by
237 their inability to resolve complex mixtures at reasonable cost. However, an advantage of using
238 mixture is that effects may be additive and synergistic, through their ability to affect multiple targets
239 (Kirakosyan and Kaufman 2009), a smart strategy when dealing with the complex phenomenon
240 such as biofilm formation in which different pathways are involved.

241 Recently, the development of new methodologies has revolutionized the screening of natural
242 products: bio-prospecting, development of a streamlined screening process, improved natural
243 product sourcing, advances in chemical methodologies, combinatorial biosynthesis and plant
244 genomics (Lam 2007; Bohlin et al. 2010). For instance, rapid and more cost-effective genome
245 sequencing technologies coupled with advanced computational power permits extracting chemical
246 knowledge from genetic information more efficiently (Li et al. 2009). Less expensive DNA
247 sequencing allows the identification of gene clusters known to be associated with a production of
248 small molecules. In addition to identify new natural products, genome mining may certainly have an
249 impact on the understanding the production of natural products (Clardy and Walsh 2004; Lam
250 2007).

251 When research leads to the commercialization of an agent, large quantities of the compound are
252 required. The preferred option is synthesis of the compound. Combinatorial chemistry approaches
253 are being applied based on phytochemical scaffolds to create screening libraries that closely
254 resemble antibiofilm-like compounds. In silico techniques like quantitative structure–activity
255 relationships (QSAR) analysis, pioneered by Hansch et al. (1962), helps to quantitatively correlate
256 the activity or properties of compounds with their measured or computed physiochemical
257 properties, playing crucial and rate accelerating steps for the better drug design in the modern era
258 (Lill 2007; Verma et al. 2010; Kar and Roy 2012; Yao 2012). QSAR approaches have been
259 developed and have demonstrated appealing advantages, including their low-cost and capability to
260 scale up easily (Yao 2012). The main assumption in the QSAR approaches is that the all properties

261 viz. physical, chemical and biological are purely depending on the molecular structure. QSAR is an
262 attempt to remove the element of luck from drug design by establishing a mathematical relationship
263 in the form of an equation between biological activity and measurable/computed physicochemical
264 parameters. These equations may be used by the chemist to make a more informed choice as to
265 which analogues to prepare. Currently, QSAR approach has been successfully applied to many data
266 sets of plant-derived compounds (Wright et al. 2006; Chen and Li 2009; Nargotra et al. 2009; De-
267 Eknankul et al. 2011; Yao et al. 2011). Thus, by applying the QSAR technique, new organic
268 synthetic methodologies and biotransformation for the modification of natural product leads would
269 generate a novel, structurally diverse analogs with improved properties or new activities (Zhou et al.
270 2012).

271 However, owing to their structural complexity, some natural products are not currently produced on
272 an industrial scale by chemical synthesis. Thus, another drawback lies in the sustainability of the
273 use and management of plant resources, insuring that the population size and the availability of the
274 extracted product do not decline as a result of harvesting (Gilliland et al. 2009). A solution is
275 represented by microbial hosts engineered to express plant metabolic pathways as reported by
276 Ajikumar et al. (2010) and the developing of a platform technology to isolate and culture cambial
277 meristematic cells (CMCs, multipotent plant cells that give rise to the vascular tissues xylem and
278 phloem) in the laboratory and then harvesting the desired products from the media in which they
279 grow (Lee et al. 2010). Finally, tailoring efficient laboratory plant-systems to produce specific
280 compounds can be an efficient and sustainable source of plant-derived products.

281

282 **Concluding remarks**

283 Plants represent a virtually inexhaustible and sustainable resource of biocide-free antibiofilm agents
284 with novel targets, unique modes of action and proprieties with potential for utilization in a plethora
285 of medical, agricultural, and industrial fields. On the one hand, realization of this possibility has so

286 far been hindered by insufficient fundamental research to comprehensively understand the
287 ecologically relevant functions of plant-derived compounds in the real natural environments.
288 When testing the biocidal action of a naturally-occurring agent against biofilm-forming
289 microorganisms, we should keep in mind that this might not be the modality whereby this molecule
290 works in nature. The concept that the killing activity is not the only property of a compound can be
291 traced back to the 16th century when the Swiss chemist and physician Paracelsus wrote: "All things
292 are poison and nothing is without poison, only the dose permits something not to be poisonous".
293 Now the question is: what happens at sub-lethal concentrations?
294 This is a common failure of many studies in which the investigator is unaware of the microbial
295 behavior at sub-inhibitory concentrations. Thus, it is possible that the use of plant-derived
296 compounds as less toxic or non-toxic antibiofilm products has been neglected or even abandoned
297 principally because the optimal sub-lethal concentrations and working conditions were not found
298 and not because the agent was ineffective. This holistic approach provides risk managers and
299 decision-makers with the evidence they need to prioritize their resources and efforts to develop new
300 technologies to deal with the spread and recalcitrance of unwanted biofilms.
301 Sub-inhibitory concentrations of plant-derived compounds might offer an elegant way to interfere
302 with specific key-steps that orchestrate biofilm formation, mitigating biofilm formation without
303 affecting their existence, sidestepping drug resistance and extending the efficacy of the current
304 arsenal of antimicrobial agents. This technology might pave the way to more innovative, resource
305 efficient and competitive society that reconciles human wellbeing with the sustainable use of
306 renewable resources for industrial purposes, while ensuring environmental protection.

307

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502 **Figure captions**

503

504 **Figure 1:** The biofilm life cycle in three main steps (1- reversible and irreversible attachment; 2-
505 maturation; 3- detachment) and action of some plant-derived bioactive compounds at sub-lethal
506 concentrations.

507

508 **Figure 2:** Plant-derived compounds with antibiofilm activities at sub-lethal concentrations: (a)
509 zosteric acid, (b) ursolic acid, (c) synthetic furanones based on those produced by *Delisea pulchra*,
510 (d) naringenin, (e) kaempferol, (f) apigenin and (g) quercetin.

511

512 **Figure 3:** Three-D response surface model displaying the hormetic properties of zosteric acid, a
513 secondary metabolite of the seagrass *Zostera marina* tested against *Candida albicans* biofilm. Plot
514 shows interaction between zosteric acid and pH when time and temperature were 12 hours and 25
515 °C respectively. The variables were coded in the range -1 (minimum selected value) and +1
516 (maximum selected value). Ranges in the legends represent the number of adhered cells. The graph
517 shows that the best anti-biofilm performance of the plant-derived compound was obtained at a
518 specific threshold level, which corresponds to the minimum point of the response surface model.
519 Thus, the minimum number of adhered cells does not correspond to the high amount of zosteric
520 acid. Minimum adhesion (that is the maximum response) corresponds to 10 mg/l of zosteric acid.
521 The maximum response is predicted to be a reduction of fungal spores adhesion by 70%.

522

523 **Figure 4:** View of 3D reconstruction images of *Candida albicans* biofilm grown without (a) and
524 with sublethal dose of zosteric acid (b). Zosteric acid induces morphostructural alterations,
525 thwarting budded-to-hyphal-form transition. Biofilms were stained with FUN-1 yeast viability stain
526 (red-orange), indicating that zosteric acid treatment maintains metabolically active cells. Biofilm
527 samples were visualized using a Leica TCS-SP2 AOBS confocal laser scanning microscope with

528 excitation at 488 nm, and emission \geq 530 nm (green and red channels). Images were captured with a
529 63X 0.9 NA w water immersion objective and analyzed with the software Imaris (Bitplane
530 Scientific Software, Zurich, Switzerland).

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